

HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES OF
EMPLOYEE RETENTION IN
RESEARCH UNIVERSITIES IN ISRAEL

by

Amir Harpaz

Bachelor of Arts, Tel-Aviv University, Israel, 2001

Master of Arts, Tel-Aviv University, Israel, 2004

Master of Business Administration, Haifa University, Israel, 2016

DISSERTATION

Presented to the Swiss School of Business and Management Geneva

In Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements

For the Degree

DOCTOR OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

SWISS SCHOOL OF BUSINESS AND MANAGEMENT GENEVA

JANUARY 2023

HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES OF
EMPLOYEE RETENTION IN
RESEARCH UNIVERSITIES IN ISRAEL

by
Amir Harpaz

APPROVED BY



Assistant Professor Hrvoje Volarević, PhD, Chair



Associate Professor Andreja Rudančić, PhD, Committee Member



Professor, Josip Burušić, PhD, Committee Member

RECEIVED/APPROVED BY:

Dino Kolak, SSBM Representative

Dedication

My successful completion of this doctorate program is dedicated primarily to my family. To my parents, who, although they were not privileged to be present at this moment, accompanied me every moment during the writing of the research. To my three amazing daughters, whose presence and constant encouragement are a source of strength and inspiration for me. Thank you for your patience and understanding during the doctoral study.

To my dear brothers and sister who accompanied me all the way. Thank you for your kind words, guidance, and emotional support, which I appreciate.

To Sharon, thank you very much for all the support and encouragement during the difficult hours that sometimes accompanied the research writing process. Thank you for your insights, understanding, and willingness to help. To all my dear friends, I thank you sincerely for the encouragement, support, and belief in me all along.

Finally, I would like to thank Prof. Wayne Kaplan, whose encouragement and support in my career helped to lift my spirit significantly during the writing of this doctoral thesis.

Acknowledgments

I was able to complete this dissertation thanks to the help of several people. I want to thank Dr. Andreja Rudančić that served as my mentor since I began my doctoral studies. I sincerely appreciate your time, guidance, and support in completing this study to the helpful admission team at SSBM, who were always available and right to help with any request or problem.

I would also like to thank the university's representatives who agreed to take the time to share with me some of the challenges that accompany them in the course of their work. Their willingness to share internal processes, feelings, and difficulties is not taken for granted, and for that, I am deeply grateful to them and their work.

ABSTRACT

Higher education systems, and universities among them, are experiencing high competition in recent years in retaining their employees. Universities are facing challenges from other competitive markets and the private sector. Failure to address and resolve retention issues can cause short- and long-term impacts on the organization's performance. There is a lack of empirical data regarding Human Resource Management (HRM) strategies, perspectives, practices, and their effects on employee retention within universities in general and in Israel. This lack of data and understanding contributes to employee turnover. To date, no comprehensive, in-depth research has been conducted on the reasons for administrative staff turnover in universities in Israel.

The purpose of this study is to explore and analyze the various human resource management strategies and practices used to maintain and improve employee retention of administrative and technical staff retention in research universities in Israel. This qualitative study utilizes individual interviews from research universities in Israel to allow the researcher to begin an inquiry into human resource management perspectives, strategies, and practices of employee retention in universities. The following primary research questions were addressed:

1. What are HRM professionals' beliefs, perceptions, and attitudes about employee retention in their organizations?
2. What practices are HRM professionals implementing to reduce turnover and achieve employee retention?
3. According to HRM professionals, what retention practices and strategies are the most effective?
4. What are the main challenges for implementing retention practices?

Four theoretical categories emerged from the data using Charmaz Grounded theory (Charmaz, 2014). 1) Lack of identification of retention as an organizational problem. 2) HRM lack of retention strategy. 3) HRM challenges. 4) Developing HRM retention practices. These categories presented a complex picture of the challenges faced by human

resource managers in organizations, not only in their ability to retain employees but also in their ability to recruit new personnel for these organizations.

Finally, this research could advance our understanding of employee turnover and retention in Israeli universities and enable the development, adoption, or modification of practices for employee retention. Continuation of future research may further help understand the trends of change in university employment patterns and allow efficient and effective strategic planning for employee retention in universities and organizations.

Table of Contents

List of Figures	10
CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION.....	11
1.1 Introduction.....	11
1.2 Research Problem	13
1.3 Purpose of Research.....	16
1.4 Significance of the Study	16
1.5 Theoretical Framework and Research Questions	17
CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF LITERATURE	19
2.1 Employee Turnover	19
2.1.1 Lee and Mitchell Unfolding-Model.....	21
2.1.2 Intermediate Linkage Model.....	23
2.1.3 Steers & Mowday Turnover Model.....	24
2.1.4 Sheridan & Abelson Cusp Catastrophe model.....	25
2.1.5 Jackofsky’s Integrated Process Model.....	25
2.2 Human Resource Management	26
2.2.1 SHRM Theories	27
2.2.1.1 The universalist approach	28
2.2.1.2 Resource-based approach.....	29
2.2.1.3 Fit Approach	29
2.2.1.4 The Behavioral Approach.....	30
2.3 Employee Retention.....	31

2.3.1 Motivation Theories.....	32
2.3.1.1 Job Satisfaction.....	32
2.3.1.2 Self-Determination Theory (SDT).....	34
2.3.1.3 The Motivator-Hygiene Theory.....	35
2.3.1.4 Person Organization Fit vs. Person Job Fit.....	37
2.3.1.5 Job Embeddedness.....	39
CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY.....	42
3.1 Introduction.....	42
3.2 Research Design.....	44
3.3 Data Collection Procedure.....	46
3.4 Data Analysis.....	48
3.6 Conclusion.....	52
CHAPTER IV: RESULTS.....	53
4.1 Introduction.....	53
4.2 Universities and Participants Profiles.....	53
4.3 Reporting of the Data.....	55
4.3.1 Identification of Retention as an Organizational Problem.....	56
4.3.2 HRM lack of Retention Strategy.....	61
4.3.3 HRM Challenges.....	69
4.3.4 Developing HRM retention practices.....	84
CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION.....	91
5.1 Introduction.....	91

5.2 Identification of Retention as an Organizational Problem.....	93
5.3 HRM lack of retention strategy.....	95
5.4 HRM challenges.....	97
5.5 Developing HRM retention practices	101
CHAPTER VI: SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	105
6.1 Summary	105
6.2 Implications.....	107
6.3 Recommendations for further research	115
6.4 Conclusion	117
BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	119
APPENDIX A: Informed Consent for Research	132
APPENDIX B: Interview Protocol	134

List of Figures

- Figure 1.** A Visual representation of a grounded theory
- Figure 2.** Interrelationship Between Data Collection and Analysis
- Figure 3.** The strategic view of HRM

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Employee turnover is one of the fascinating management areas, and thousands of researchers have been conducted on this topic over the past one hundred years or so, contributing to various theories, models, and findings (Hom P. A., 2020, pp. 1-3). In recent years, organizations are experiencing high competition in retaining their talented employees, which has become challenging (Manogharan, 2018). Although the literature has immensely advanced over the past years in understanding the phenomenon, much has remained unexplained about the influence of change and time (Lee., 2005). Mobley's models (Mobley W. , 1982) classify the consequences of turnover to both the leavers and the organization. Although the effects can be regarded as positive or negative, involuntary turnover presents organizations with a wide range of direct and indirect consequences, most of which are harmful to the organization (Hom P. A., 2020, pp. 17-46). The cost of employee turnover has received much attention in the literature, and several cost-benefit models have been developed to identify the economic impacts and their implications (Sturman, 2003).

Higher Education Institutions (HEI), although considered a part of the non-profit sector, operate as revenue maximizers since they serve their customers (Leslie, Larry, L., & Rhoads, Gary, 1995). Human resource management (HRM) in organizations has been proven to be a pivotal contributor to job satisfaction. Implementing various practices can increase job satisfaction and employee retention (Steijn, 2004). Managing retention depends on HRM practices' ability to achieve employee engagement in the organization (Roodt, 2018). Employees in non-profit organizations, such as HEI, are more likely to place a high priority on job quality compared to for-profit organizations; hence they are likely to be more demanding for employment practices (Kalleberg, A. L., Marsden. P. V., Reynolds, J., & Knoke, D., 2006). Failure to address and resolve retention issues can cause short- and

long-term impacts on the organization's performance (Holtom, B., Mitchell, T., Lee, T., & Ebrly, M., 2006). But despite its importance, not much attention was given to this phenomenon in academia and higher education institutions (Vu, 2020). The current literature focuses mainly on student retention (e.g., (Othman, 2016), (Tight, 2020), (Burke, 2019)), on academic staff retention (e.g., (Selesho, Jacob. M., & Naile, Idah, 2014), (Shah., Imran Ahmed., Yadav, Amit., Afzal, Farman. et. al, 2020), (Takawira, 2014)), but almost none on the administrative personnel working in those same institutions. The general staff in higher education institutions and universities has been largely ignored in both academic and non-academic literature (Szekeres, 2006), and is often regarded as "the forgotten workforce" (Castleman, T., & Allen, M., 1995).

HRM plays a crucial role in achieving employee retention; therefore, it is essential to study this phenomenon further. There is a lack of empirical data regarding HRM strategies, perspectives, and practices on employee retention within higher education institutions and universities in Israel. Public sector HRM is distinctive regarding the private sector because of public values and civil service rules, creating a different set for reference on how they operate and manage their staff (Leisink, Peter., Borst, Knies, Eva., & Battiata, Valentina, 2021). This study's results and findings may benefit HRM and managers in better understanding employee turnover and developing, modifying, or adopting strategies and practices to attain employee retention. Identifying and implementing those strategies may potentially result in reducing the turnover rate for the organizations.

The following main hypotheses will be examined:

H1: The HRM in the universities doesn't have a systematic strategic plan that deals with employee retention. They act reactively rather than proactively.

H2: Since there is no systematic strategic plan for employee retention, HRM implements practices without a preliminary plan and without checking applicability or success.

H3: The universities do not set quantitative goals for employee turnover; therefore, they cannot test compliance with success or failure goals.

H4: HRM does not have a dedicated program for treating the various populations under their responsibility, i.e., administrative or technical personnel.

1.2 Research Problem

Higher education institutions (HEI) are facing challenges from other competitive markets, i.e., higher education institutions and the business market. Employee retention and turnover are challenged by new competition, changing work dynamics, and emerging technologies (Chahar, Bhawna., Rana Jain, Samax & Hatwal, Vinod, 2021). Although the public sector faces less competition, HEI stands out in this context (Kalleberg, A. L., Marsden. P. V., Reynolds, J., & Knoke, D., 2006). The focus on their skilled and talented personnel is one of the most significant issues businesses and organizations confront today (Redelinghuys, K. & Botha, E., 2016). The university's administrative staff is vital in bridging the gap between the needs of the academic disciplines and the needs of the central university administration (Szekeres, Judy & Heywood, Tony, 2018). Higher education institutions have let administrative turnover become a cultural norm within their operational practice. (Figueroa, 2015). Personnel and human resource management have received little consideration in the HEI sector (Jo, 2008), although it is one of the major employers in Israel's public sector.

Researchers, company executives, and human resource managers have been trying to figure out what causes turnover or why employees leave their positions for a long time. Managers' capacity to keep personnel significantly impacts the organization's ability to compete or

survive (Joo, B., Hahn, H., & Peterson, S., 2015). Like for-profit organizations, nonprofit organizations and institutes of higher education struggle to keep personnel. But because they frequently operate on a set budget, they can suffer even more than the business sector (Kang, 2015). In recent years in Israel and other places around the world, there has been an upward trend in turnover that has intensified during the COVID-19 pandemic. Since 2015, there has been an increase in the number of employee resignations in Israel, slowly but gradually. This process has intensified during the pandemic, from 29% in 2019 to 107% in 2020, whereas the dismissal rate was only 1% in 2019 and 11% in 2020 (Zohar, G., Avraham, N., Sofer-Rot, S., 2021). This phenomenon is even more striking since almost all the administrative personnel in the research universities in Israel are unionized within the national labor organization. The Histadrut¹ serves as the “General Federation of Labor in Israel”, or its more recent name dating from 1994 – “The New General Federation of Labor”. Until recent years about a quarter of the employees in Israel were organized in labor unions, and about a third were covered by a collective agreement (Atex, Hagai., & Almog, Guy, 2021). In most of the public sector in Israel, about 65% (excluding the security and armed forces) are unionized within the Histadrut (ibid). Employee turnover at higher education institutions has increased in recent years due to employees becoming demotivated and burned out ((Jo, 2008) (Figueroa, 2015)). Nevertheless, most higher education research on retention focuses on student retention (e.g., (Vincent, 2006), (Lau, 2003), (O’Keefe, 2013)) rather than on HEI employees. Comparatively, little focus is placed on human resource management and job satisfaction in academic research on public administration (Steijn, 2004).

Reduced customer satisfaction, productivity, profitability, and future revenue growth have all been related to higher turnover (Hogan, 1992). Higher education institutions are even

¹ Hebrew word meaning “Organization”, any organization. But when referring to “the Histadrut”, it refers to the biggest and most influential workers union in Israel.

more vulnerable to the consequences of turnover, and human resources activities are the most effective at minimizing these effects (Agrawal, Harshita., Yadav, Mohit., & Singh, Anushree., 2019). Human resource management procedures have been shown to impact and improve employee retention and job satisfaction significantly (Steijn, 2004). Human resource management in the public sector is particularly relevant to study because public organizations are typically large and labor-intensive. The level of services its employees deliver determines the quality of the public sector (Leisink, Peter., Borst, Knies, Eva., & Battiata, Valentina, 2021). Higher education institutions and universities operate to maximize their prestige, as opposed to the private sector and for-profit businesses, which strive to maximize their profit. They strive to elevate their standing and prestige within the academic community. Consequently, academic employees encounter different challenges at work than their counterparts in the business sphere (Jo, 2008).

Additionally, firms and institutions in the public sector are under pressure to sustain good corporate citizenship by implementing human resource management practices that treat their workers fairly and holistically because of their prominence in the public sphere (Kalleberg, A. L., Marsden. P. V., Reynolds, J., & Knoke, D., 2006). The public sector differs from the private sector in several significant respects. First, as opposed to the single bottom line that exists in the private sector, which is to maximize profit, the public sector strives to increase the value the organization generates for its stakeholders (Moore, 2000). Second, human resource management practices employed by government agencies frequently diverge from those utilized by the private sector (Kalleberg, A. L., Marsden. P. V., Reynolds, J., & Knoke, D., 2006). Third, because employees in the public sector are viewed as distinctive, the relationship between performance and HRM practices requires specific scrutiny.

1.3 Purpose of Research

The purpose of this study is to explore and analyze the various human resource management strategies and practices used to maintain and improve employee retention of administrative and technical staff in research universities in Israel. There are currently nine research universities in Israel, one ‘Open University’ for undergraduate and graduate, and fifty-three colleges (Israel, Council of Higher Education, 2018). As of 2019, there are thirteen thousand three hundred and twenty administrative and technical employees in HEI in Israel, and seventy-eight percent are employed in universities (Zbirin, 2021). That personnel may be either academic or non-academic support personnel who reports to senior administrators, academic supervisors, or deans. Human resource managers in Israeli research universities were requested to divulge the methods and procedures they use to keep workers for this study. They were also asked to discuss their opinions on staff turnover and retention in their organizations, as well as the challenges, setbacks, and triumphs they encountered.

1.4 Significance of the Study

To date, no comprehensive, in-depth research has been conducted on the reasons for administrative staff turnover in universities in Israel, and the same applies to the study of HRM practices for employee retention in those universities. Therefore, this research could advance our understanding of employee turnover and retention in Israeli universities and enable developing, adopting, or modifying strategies and practices for employee retention.

1.5 Theoretical Framework and Research Questions

The value of staff retention is widely established in the literature, particularly with regard to the costs of turnover for the organization. The causes of employee turnover have received significant attention in recent decades' studies on turnover, leading to the development of essential theories to explain this phenomenon (Hom P. A., 2020, p. 72). These turnover theories, however, do not establish the essential theoretical foundation for employee retention strategies. There is very little research on effective employee retention strategies (Ramlall S. , 2004).

Grounded theory will be utilized in this study. Grounded theory is a "qualitative research method that uses a systematic set of procedures to develop an inductively derived grounded theory about a phenomenon" (Strauss, A. L., & Corbin, J. M, 1990, p. 24), it "consists of systematic, yet flexible guidelines for collecting and analyzing qualitative data to construct theories from the data themselves..." (Charmaz, 2014, p. 1). The significance of this approach and what sets it apart from other qualitative methods is that it aims to produce a theory through the thoroughness of its methodology (Walker, Diane., & Myrick, Florence, 2006). Additionally, it gives the researcher analytical control over data collecting and any new insights from an interview (Charmaz, 2014, p. 85). Glaser and Strauss (Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L., 1967) introduced a method of a two-step process for data analysis. Although similar to other qualitative coding methods in certain respects, the coding process is also distinct in terms of grounded theory. All of the data must first be coded before being analyzed in accordance with predefined notions. In the second step, the researcher must look for characteristics of categories and then create some theoretical concepts. The method of coding in Grounded theory not only helps to raise analytic questions about the data from the very beginning of collecting the data (Charmaz, 2014, p. 3) , however, it also facilitates the conversion of the researcher's data from transcript to theory (Walker, Diane., & Myrick, Florence, 2006). The use of this methodology in this study will facilitate the exploration

and comprehension of the phenomenon being studied and the development of a theory that will describe and explain the phenomenon.

The following research questions will be addressed:

1. What are HRM professionals' beliefs, perceptions, and attitudes about employee retention in their organizations?
2. What practices are HRM professionals implementing to reduce turnover and achieve employee retention?
3. According to HRM professionals, what retention practices and strategies are the most effective?
4. What are the main challenges for implementing retention practices?

These questions are being addressed in this research, along with a review and analysis of the procedures use by university human resources administrations to retain employees.

CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Employee Turnover

Researchers, business leaders, and human resource managers have been attempting to figure out what causes turnover or why individuals quit their positions for an extended period of time. One of the most prominent issues managers is employee retention, which significantly impacts an organization's ability to compete or even exist (Joo, B., Hahn, H., & Peterson, S., 2015). Even if the work cycle of the organization's employees is automated, maintaining the labor supply is beneficial to efficient management (Morrel, 2016, p. 27). The ratio of employees who depart an organization over a certain period divided by the average number of employees in that organization during that same period is known as turnover (Price, 1977, pp. 10-25). Turnover is correlated with withdrawal tendencies, job avoidance, job searching, and exploring alternative employment opportunities (Harrison, D. A., Newman, D. A., & Roth, P. L., 2006).

While the term "employee turnover" occasionally refers to a process of one's job being terminated voluntarily (Mobley W. H., 1992), others consider involuntary processes, such as retirement (Hanisch, K.A, & Hulin, C.L., 1990), pregnancy (Lee T. W., 1994) and dismissal, to be considered as an employee turnover. But researchers on employee turnover focused on self-initiated leave (Mobley W. , 1982), thus, it has grown difficult to precisely separate outcomes of voluntary and involuntary turnover. It needs to be clarified how those procedures differ, making it challenging to establish whether a turnover was voluntary or not (Mobley W. H., 1979). Since the majority of the turnover measurements rely on the employer's data, there is not only an issue with the classification of turnover but also with the data for the causes and reasons for leaving. In addition to the possibility that their

interpretation of the facts or outcomes may be biased, employees are sometimes reluctant to disclose their true motivations for quitting out of concern that doing so will harm the organization's positive reputation (Hom P. W.-W., 1992). These days, it is more customary to analyze this phenomenon as a continuous sequence of variables rather than a dichotomous separation because it can be challenging to identify whether it was a voluntary or involuntary decision or possibly a joint decision (Maertz, C. P., & Campion, M. A., 1998).

Researchers have also distinguished between functional and dysfunctional organizational turnover (Dalton D. T., 1982). Their findings that turnover may be dysfunctional to the organization rely on three theoretical perspectives: a) cost-base perspective; b) human capital perspective; and c) social capital perspective (Hancock, 2013). The *cost-based perspective* suggests that turnover causes both direct and indirect costs, and therefore it affects the organization's performance ((Morrell, 2001) (Mobley W. , 1982)). The *human capital perspective* suggests that turnover causes the loss of highly trained, knowledgeable, and skilled employees, which causes both direct and indirect costs on HRM processes such as exit interviews, recruitment time and costs, training costs, and potential productivity loss. (Allen D. G., 2010). The *social capital perspective* suggests that turnover damages the social fabric of the organization and causes demoralization (O'Reilly, 1989) , and a social network disruption (Krackhardt, D., & Porter, L. W., 1985) (Krackhardt, 1986) Whatever the motivations for leaving or staying in the organization, it is well recognized to be a costly procedure for both the employer and the employee. ((Mobley W. , 1982), (Lee, T. W., Mitchell, T. R., Sablinski, C. J., Burton, J. P., & Holtom, B. C., 2004)).

Employee and organization outcomes from turnover are significant. The purpose of this study is to understand better how turnover affects organizations. Consequently, this study will focus on how it affects organizations rather than individual employees. One of the main consequences of turnover to the organization is the economic costs, resulting in a

significant implication for the employee's separation and replacement processes. There are tangible costs that are usually easier to measure, such as HR activities for dismissal and recruiting, managers' time, costs to minimize work disruption, and temporary coverage. The intangible costs, such as lost customers or clients, performance repercussions, loss of organizational memory, demoralization, and disruption of teamwork, are typically more challenging to quantify (Peter W. Hom, 2020). But the economic costs can be identified and also measured by productivity loss. A loss of production could yield productivity loss (Ulrich, 1991), but it can have a similar effect on the ability to provide service (Price, J. L., 1989). When employees leave, their service may suffer, and new replacements may perform less effectively while learning the new position (Mobley W. , 1982). Given that non-profit organizations typically operate on a tight budget and have less financial flexibility, this scenario can be even more crucial to them (Kang, 2015). Higher education institutions are also not immune to the harmful effects of turnover. Declining financial resources, increasing public demands for accountability, and changing professional context (Lindholm, 2003), is only part of the elements influencing non-academic employee turnover in research universities in Israel. Over the years few key concepts from the various theories that have emerged to explain employee turnover help us understand this phenomenon.

2.1.1 Lee and Mitchell Unfolding-Model

The *Lee and Mitchell Unfolding Model* (Lee, T. W., & Mitchel, T. R., 1994) was first introduced in the mid-'90s and went against the prevailing view that purely economic elements are the primary basis for turnover (Mobley W. H., 1979). The push and pull forces that are operating on the reasons for turnover were recognized by this model. While some workers are motivated to quit the company, others are enticed to another (Goldstein, 2017,

p. 465). Prior models (such as Mobley Intermediate Linkage Model (Mobley W. H., 1977); Steers & Mowday Turnover Model (Steers, 1981); Sheridan & Abelson Cusp Catastrophe model (Sheridan, John E. and Michael A. Abelson, 1983); Jackofsky's Integrated Process Model (Jackofsky, 1984)), which will be elaborated hereby, managed to explain only a few of the variances of employee turnover. With the idea that turnover is a dynamic process that develops over time in response to shocks, this model seceded from earlier turnover models. They discovered four decision paths that workers consider before opting to quit (Lee T. W., 1994). The *first path* starts with a shock to the system, which could be a work-related shock (such as organizational change, psychological contract breaches, and HR practice) (Goldstein, 2017, p. 449). The shock prompts the worker to look for earlier recollections, or a "script," based on prior encounters or social norms. There is a preexisting strategy to deal with this kind of shock. The employee will resign if the previous script is appropriate, which will be implemented immediately. Another decision path is initiated if a match with the past script did not occur. The *second path* also starts with a shock to the system but with no past recollection available. Since the employee lacks a predetermined response, he mulls over whether to stay or go. The shock's compatibility with his values, trajectory, and strategic visions are evaluated in the following stage. He then determines whether to leave or alter the image if the shock is incompatible with those images. But he will resume if the images match. The *third path*, like the second decision path, suggests that when a shock occurs, the employee search for a script. If he does not find any, he will then perform image compatibility. If it fits, he will stay, but if not, he will search for alternatives. He will remain only if his current position provides more benefits than the alternatives. The *fourth decision path* begins with job dissatisfaction. However, this time, the employee evaluation is driven by a change in either his perceptions or organizational changes rather than a shock. Before making a decision to quit in these circumstances, the employee will evaluate his options and assess how his current position stacks up against other positions (Lee, T. W., & Mitchel, T. R., 1994). The employee will evaluate whether

or not he is satisfied with his current position. In this case, the employee will either resign without looking at other available jobs or begin the evaluation process, as explained in decision path three (Mitchell T. R., 2001).

Finally, the Lee and Mitchell Unfolding Model was based on Beach's (Beach, 1990) generic image theory, which advanced the understanding of turnover decisions made by the employee. This theory disputes widely accepted conceptions that view economics as an explanation for employee turnover (Hom P. A., 2020). Recent studies have continued to develop the *Lee and Mitchell Unfolding Model* (Lee T. W., 1994), and tried to create an empirical test for the theory (e.g., (Holtom, 2005), (Weller, 2009)). In a more recent study, Mitchell et al. further studied the impact of job embeddedness on turnover. According to their theories, employee job embedding increases the likelihood that turnover will be reduced and vice versa (Mitchell T. R., 2001). Other studies, such as Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (Kammeyer-Mueller, 2005) tried to identify and predict the probability of employee turnover before it happened. Maertz and Griffeth (Maertz, C. P., & Griffeth, R. W., 2004), proposed eight motivational forces that influence turnover. They came to the conclusion that integrating HRM practices will encourage staying, whereas implementing substandard HRM practices will encourage leaving. The Unfolding Model also helps to reveal more complex situations and considerations of employee decision-making altogether generate the decision of turnover. This approach significantly advanced our knowledge of how an unexpected shock at work or in one's private life might lead to turnover (Goldstein, 2017, p. 449), and therefore it will give the basic construct for this research.

2.1.2 Intermediate Linkage Model

Other turnover models have been tried over the years to explain employee turnover. One of the significant models introduced by Mobley (Mobley W. H., 1977), is the *Intermediate*

Linkage Model. According to this model, the key to understanding employee turnover is understanding the intermediary relationships between one's current position and the outcomes of satisfaction vs. dissatisfaction. Job discontent leads to ideas of quitting and looking for another employment (Hom P. A., 2020, p. 77). The employee then evaluates whether quitting will be more advantageous for him, and then he will initiate employment searching. A second evaluation will be performed by contrasting it with the current position when alternatives to his current job have been identified. He will initiate quitting if the alternatives become more appealing (Singh, 2015). Additional studies have found that there are various intermediary links in the withdrawal decision process that link job satisfaction with the intention to quit (Spencer, 1983). But the model has its disadvantages, among others, since it lacks several determinants of job search, such as job skills and the probability of finding an acceptable job offer (Black, 1981).

2.1.3 Steers & Mowday Turnover Model

The **Steers & Mowday Turnover Model** (Steers, 1981) presented a model focused on job determinants and may be considered more complex than previous models. This model hypothesizes that job performance antecedents to affective work attitudes have an impact on turnover (Birnbaum, 1993). The Steers & Mowday turnover model implies that the decision to leave comes first, and then comes the search for the best alternative. This is one of the primary differences to Mobley's intermediate model. In Mobley's model, the intention to quit comes after analyzing the alternatives (Singh, 2015). This approach suggested that the employee compares his values to those of the organization. If those values are met, it might have an impact on the worker's decision to stay or quit (Steers, 1981). Eventually, this concept was only partially supported by the studies that were conducted (Hom W. P., 1984).

2.1.4 Sheridan & Abelson Cusp Catastrophe model

Sheridan & Abelson Cusp Catastrophe model (Sheridan, John E. and Michael A. Abelson, 1983), explains how changing variables such as job tension and group cohesion may influence withdrawal behavior (Sheridan, John E. and Michael A. Abelson, 1985). According to this, it is suggested that tension or commitment are not continuous linear functions of withdrawal (Singh, 2015). Reduction in employee commitment or interest in the organization, which may manifest as turnover, is referred to as withdrawal behavior (Campion, 1991) and absenteeism (Dalton D. &, 1991). The study found that withdrawal behavior goes through several stages. As an employee approaches the fold region, even minor changes in the control variables might result in discontinuous changes from retention to the termination. It describes three sets of behavior surfaces leading to three paths depicting the individual withdrawal process (Sheridan, John E. and Michael A. Abelson, 1983, p. 722). The cusp catastrophe model is regarded as a revolution in the turnover field. Understanding and predicting turnover may be improved by considering the nonlinear impacts of the primary causes of turnover (Hom P. A., 2020). This model demonstrates that turnover is a dynamic process and that, to a certain extent, its variables may be tracked and observed.

2.1.5 Jackofsky's Integrated Process Model

Jackofsky's Integrated Process Model (Jackofsky, 1984) initiated a combination of voluntary and involuntary quits data and proved a curvilinear U-shaped relationship between performance and turnover (Hom P. A., 2020, pp. 160-161). Jackofsky, extrapolating March and Simon's theory (March, 1958), reasoned that low performance

would cause high turnover. Low performance makes it challenging to identify alternatives; therefore, as performance rises to some intermediate level, it will decrease both voluntary and involuntary turnover. Voluntary turnover occurs when performance exceeds the intermediate level because individuals with strong performance are more likely to have options ((Hom P. A., 2020, p. 161) (Singh, 2015)). As previously mentioned in this study, the model thus links job turnover with performance but needs to be adequately supported by research that has been done to date (e.g., (Zenger, 1992)).

2.2 Human Resource Management

Human Resource Management (HRM) is defined as “all those activities associated with management of employment relationship in the firm” (Boxall P. F., 2003, p. 1). It is a system that incorporates a variety of tasks intended to help the organization work effectively and achieve its objectives by maximizing the utilization of its personnel's abilities, skills, and other characteristics. (Pynes, 2013, pp. 3-4). The concept of HRM initially emerged in the 1980s by both Harvard (Beer, M., Spector, B., Lawrence, P. R., Quinn Mills, D., & Walton, R. E., 1984) and Michigan (Fombrun, C. J., Tichy, N. M., & Devanna, M. A., 1984) researchers, mainly as a philosophy of how to manage employees. Beer argued that “Human resource management (HRM) involves all management decisions and actions that affect the nature of the relationship between the organization and employees – its human resources” (Beer, M., et.al., p. 1). According to it, humans are considered to be capital and an important revenue source for an organization (Noe, 2018, p. 4). While there are many differences in ideologies, styles, and managerial resources of HRM, it is performed in any organization in some form or other (Boxall P. P., 2007, p. 1). Many studies argued that HRM is an essential means to achieve a competitive advantage through the implementation of its practices ((Walker, 2001) (Delery J. , 1998)). HR needs a system to operate and deliver its policies to achieve this functioning. The primary

responsibilities of HR are threefold: a) Administrative services and transactions; b) Business partner services; c) Strategic partners (Noe, 2018, p. 6). It also incorporates all the practices, policies, and strategic aspects of the organization. The outcomes and impacts of HRM focus on a) *Performance* – by recruiting and retaining; learning and development activities; performance management; and employee wellbeing. b) *Behavior* – by influencing employee’s motivation; c) *Culture* - through organizational development intervention; d) *System* – by influencing work design; e) *Structures* – by influencing organization design (Armstrong, Michael & Taylor, Stephen, 2014).

Through time, the concept of HRM has developed to incorporate with the Organization strategy, hence Strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM). The strategy for planned human resource activities and deployments, or SHRM, aims to assist the organization in achieving its objectives (Wright P. M., 1992, p. 298). Kaufman elaborated it as “The choice, alignment, and integration of an organization’s HRM system so that its human capital resources most effectively contribute to strategic business objectives” (Kaufman, 2015, p. 404). Recent year’s studies focused on SHRM primarily as the connection between organizational strategies and its effectiveness (Wright P. M., 1999), but comprehensive studies tried to establish different relationships between SHRM and various organization outcomes ((Delery J. , 1998) , (Combs, 2016)). Three main approaches can be identified to SHRM: the Universalist approach, the Resource-based approach, and the Fit approach (Torrington, 2014, p. 50).

2.2.1 SHRM Theories

Over the past three decades, several organizational theories and financial and economic ideas have influenced SHRM (Wright P. M., 1992). But in addition to being a very arduous task, the emergence of SHRM as a conceptual logic also poses several challenges in

defining its vague boundaries (Delery J. a., 2017). The following HRM strategies from various approaches will give the basic construct for this research framework.

2.2.1.1 The universalist approach

The first one, *the universalist approach*, which is a very dominant approach in the USA, assumes that SHRM is supposed to enhance and improve the use of human management strategically within the organization, to improve its organizational performance, as it is declared in the corporate organization strategy (Brewster, 1999). According to this approach, there is a focus on groupings of HR practices which their combination is supposed to show better results than each practice individually. A high-performance work system (HPWS) is a grouping or combination that promotes synergy and boosts performance (Boxall P. a., 2009). It assumes a linear relationship between variables; therefore, researchers can identify the best HRM practices, which demonstrate the capacity to improve organizational performance and have to be generalized (Becker, 1996). But in comparison to the other approaches, it has a less theoretical foundation. The focus on empirical testing of HRM performance relationship, although it contributes to an elevated level of statistical significance, leads to a lack of consideration of crucial variables (Fernando Martin-Alcazar, 2005). In conclusion, this approach indicated a relationship between HRM and performance, but not that it inevitably causes or supports higher performance (Guest, 2003).

2.2.1.2 Resource-based approach

The resource-based approach gives a particular focus on the human resource factor of the organization. It is concerned with the relationship between the internal resources of the organization and its performance (Boxall P. , 1996). To gain a competitive advantage, a firm must develop the human capital and not only align it to the strategic goals (Torrington, 2014). Barney stated that for a firm to have a sustained competitive advantage, its resources must have four attributes: a) it must be *valuable*, i.e., it must be able to neutralize threats or exploit opportunities in the firm environment. b) it must be *rare* among the firm's competition. c) it must be *inimitable*. d) there must not be any *substitute* for this resource (Barney, 1991). This resource-based approach gives excellent value to the human capital as a performance driver to the firm, whereas other approaches give attention to human resource practices. A competitive advantage can be created through human capital, but HRM practices should make the most of this resource (Wright P. a., 2011). These methods might only sometimes provide a competitive edge. Although practices may be repeated by different organizations, due to variations in human capital, they may generate mixed results (Wright P. M., 1994). As mentioned, this approach focuses on creating a competitive advantage through human capital, but it reduces its relevancy for the public sector, where competitive advantage is less relevant.

2.2.1.3 Fit Approach

Strategic Fit is critical and fundamental to the concept of SHRM. Adoption of a particular strategy by an organization must require HR practices that will be able to support this strategy. The Fit or contingency perspective argues that performance is optimized when there is a "fit" between the organization's structure to its strategy (Richardson, 1999, p. 23). This alignment between HR practices and competitive strategy was labeled as *vertical*

or *strategic fit* (Boon, 2008, p. 14), whereas the integration of the HR practices with one another was labeled as *horizontal or internal fit* (Torrington, 2014, p. 52).

Vertical fit involves linking HR practices to the Organization's strategy regarding the context and circumstances of the organization (McMahan, 1999). In contrast, *Horizontal fit* deals with whether the different HR practices within the organization are integrated into a coherent system (Delery J. E., 1996). There are six main strategic components of HRM: a) Management Awareness – i.e., focusing on the administrative HR-related needs in the organization. b) Management of the Function – i.e., managing the HR function and its resources. c) Portfolio of Programs – i.e., activities range from salary to compensation and long-term planning. d) Personnel Skills – i.e., advancement of HR skills to cope with the mission. e) Information Technology – using analytical tools to advanced forecasting. f) Awareness of the Environment – especially in the early stage of the organization, where there is little awareness of the environment's reaction (Baird, 1988). The source of a competitive advantage might not always be those methods. Although practices may be used consistently across organizations, the variations in human capital could result in diverse outcomes. Innovative HR strategies may have an impact on performance, but only when combined with other HR strategies (MacDuffie, 1995). Organizations will be more effective by adopting a strategic setup that combines horizontal and vertical fit (Holbeche, 2022, p. 13), i.e., between its HR practices and the organization's strategy.

2.2.1.4 The Behavioral Approach

This theory focuses on employee behavior as a mediator between firm performance and strategy (Delery J. a., 2017). It is presumptively intended to incite and exert influence over employees' conduct and attitudes. Gaining control over employee attitudes and actions is the primary objective of employment practices (Wright P. M., 1992). According to this theory, different organizations need different employees' behavior to achieve their strategy successfully. This approach focuses on vertical fit, i.e., the correlation between HRM

practices and the organization's strategy (Boxall P. , 1992), to explain employees' behaviors following the organization's strategic framework. Schuler and Jackson's (Schuler, 1987) model for linking HRM practices with competitive strategies is one example of implementing this approach. In order to forecast and alter both strategy and practices, they argued that there is a relationship between HRM practices and competitive strategies. Additionally, they recommended that executives employ a "menu" of HRM practices to support positive role behaviors that align with the organization's goals and coordinate the HR practices (ibid). However, despite the intuitive appeal of this model, there needs to be evidence to back up the claim that employee behaviors result in favorable organizational outcomes (Wright P. M., 1992).

2.3 Employee Retention

Every organization's continual goal is to manage employee retention. It refers to the percentage of employees whom the organization still employs (Phillips, 2009, p. 27). The organization must make a concerted effort to influence the employee's decision to remain with the company (Melinde, 2018, p. vii). Although retention may sometimes look like the other side of the coin of turnover, it is not always an accurate description of the situation. There may be psychological reasons for staying in the company vs. psychological reasons for leaving the company (Mitchell T. R., 2001). While the majority of retention literature offers more realistic strategies for retaining employees, they frequently need a theoretical foundation (Ramlall S. , 2004). Some fundamental motivation theories and their implication for employee retention will be discussed below.

2.3.1 Motivation Theories

2.3.1.1 Job Satisfaction

In the past, research has shown that lower levels of job satisfaction would result in turnover and vice versa (Phillips, 2009, p. 73). Job satisfaction is a positive or upbeat feeling that results from an evaluation of one's job or job experience (Locke, 1976, p. 1304). However, there are several definitions of the term itself, each with a different emphasis. Early literature refers mainly to meet the psychological and physical demands of the employee (for example: (Porter, 1962), (Wolf, 1970)), whereas most recent publications focus more on the cognitive processes. It has been found to have an important influence on organizations in diverse ways: First, it increases productivity by reducing both absenteeism and turnover ((Wright, Bradley, E. & Kim. Soonhee, 2004) (Bandura, 2014) (Koh, H. & Goh, C., 1995)). Second, it is connected to job commitment, meaning the employee is more required to remain with the organization. Third, job satisfaction is also moderately related to organizational citizenship behavior (Wen-Hou, 2020). Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) represents "...the informal modes of cooperation and contributions that participants render as a function of job satisfaction and perceived fairness" (Organ, 2018).

The importance of job satisfaction can be classified according to the focus on the employee or the organization. While job satisfaction can influence employee behavior that may negatively impact the organization, it can also serve as a reflection of how the organization is functioning (Spector, 1997, p. 2). The term itself refers to one's feelings of satisfaction on the job, which can lead to motivation to work (Brief, A. P. & Weiss, H.M., 2002), hence increasing the organization's productivity which leads to achieving the organization's goals (Josiane, 2020). However, a concept as complex as job satisfaction might mean different things to different people and academics. Although it is typically associated with

motivation, there isn't enough evidence linking job satisfaction to motivation (Mullins, 2005, p. 700), nor did it indicate a direct correlation between satisfaction and quitting (Hom P. A., 2020, p. 151). Although there is a potential link between job satisfaction and organizational performance, it needs to be better established, and there is only a weak association between the two variables (Iaffaldano, M.T, & Muchinsky, P.M, 1985).

For psychological well-being, humans must constantly feel content; otherwise, unhappiness may have detrimental effects. Hackman and Oldham (Hackman, 1980), in their internal motivation model (sometimes also known as the Job Characteristics Model), identified three critical conditions required for creating employee internal motivation: a) Knowledge of the result – i.e., the employee needs to know whether he performed well or poorly. b) Experience responsibility – i.e., whether the employee is accountable for his job outcomes. c) Experience the work as meaningful – i.e., the understanding of the employee that the work he is doing is not superfluous. These conditions are essential psychological states and are all prerequisites for internal work motivation (Hackman, 1980, pp. 72-73). In addition, some fundamental psychological needs, such as competence, autonomy, and relatedness, are ones that humans have evolved rather than learned. People will feel more satisfied and more motivated when such needs are met. When those demands are not met, people may display a variety of symptoms of decreased motivation and ill-being (Deci, L., Edward & Ryan, M., Richard, 2014). Arnold states three main components for motivation: 1) Direction - what the person is trying to do; 2) Effort - how hard the person is trying; 3) Persistence - how long a person continues trying (Arnold, John et. al., 2005, p. 310). One is more likely to be motivated when their needs are met. Motivated individuals and employees behave openly and show a desire to put forth an effort. Self-motivation, ideal from the employee's perspective, characterizes these people (Armstrong, Michael & Taylor, Stephen, 2014, p. 170).

2.3.1.2 Self-Determination Theory (SDT)

Deci and Ryan first introduced self-determination theory during the '80s in the past century; they suggested that human seek to engage in optimal challenges, seek attachments and feelings of security and belongingness, and to self-organize and regulates their behavior (Deci, L., Edward and Ryan, M., Richard, 2000). It is a motivation theory that places an emphasis on the individual's psychological needs. The theory sets the groundwork for the idea that humanity is evolving psychologically, albeit in ways that facilitate or block the realization of this natural sequence (Deci, L., Edward and Ryan, M., Richard, 2000). SDT asserts that we establish our own internal motivation, which is rooted in our fundamental need to improve our abilities and interact with our surroundings and environment (Gunasekare, 2016). SDT defines sets of several individual needs: a) *Autonomy* – people need to feel and believe that they can exercise free will, make personal choices and decisions, and have the ability to rationalize them (Edward L. Deci, Haleh Eghrari, Brian C. Patrick, & Dean R. Leone., 1994) It does not imply that autonomy should be practiced independently of others, but rather that it will provide the individual with a sense of alternative or option. b) *Competence* – a person's need to feel that he can control and regulate his surroundings (Deci, E. L., Ryan, R. M., & Koestner, R., 1999). c) *relatedness* – reflects a person's need to be connected to other people, to love and care for others, and for others to love and care for them (Van den Broeck, Anja., Ferris, D., Lance., Chang, Chu-Hsiang., & Rosen, C., Christopher, 2016). Deci and Ryan contend that these requirements are necessary to create an environment that promotes growth, integration, social growth, and individual well-being. These requirements dictate the person's motivational orientation (Fall, Amar and Roussel, Patrice, 2014).

To summarize, SDT is a cognitive evaluation theory that explains the effects of extrinsic motivators on intrinsic motivation. It introduces a continuum of self-determination, from

a-motivation to intrinsic motivation. Motivation distinguishes between autonomous and controlled motivation, which means one is motivated by an interest in an activity (Gange, 2005). The self-determination construct is currently used most extensively in the Self Determination Theory. It advances knowledge about how psychological requirements interact with potential sources of support or resistance from the social environment to produce a person's positive and negative aspects (Adams, 2017). Thus, this theory represents and functions as a tool for understanding employee satisfaction as a whole and comprehensive approach rather than just processes of job satisfaction. It provides practical methods to boost motivation and hence lower potential turnover by providing an understanding of the internal processes that influence self-determination and provide job satisfaction.

2.3.1.3 The Motivator-Hygiene Theory

The Motivator-Hygiene Theory, also known as Herzberger's two-factor model, was developed by Frederick Herzberger (Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Snyderman, B., 1959). They developed a Motivation-Hygiene theory and a two-factor model of work motivation as a result of their research. They found that employees described positive experiences in terms of variables inherent to the job after surveying two hundred engineers and accountants. These factors, which were referred to as motivators, included elements related to accomplishments, including responsibility and growth. The unsatisfactory experiences were referred to as "hygiene" factors at the same time and were not intrinsic to the work itself (Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Snyderman, B., 1959). They then came up with the concept that job satisfaction and discontent were influenced by various variables and could not, therefore, be measured along the same continuum (Stello, 2011). While up until that point, the conventional explanation of job satisfaction saw both satisfaction and

dissatisfaction as extremes on the same continuum (Behling, 1968). For the first time, this theory suggested that a variety of factors influence both job satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Weisberg, 2016). This theory's implication was to improve employees' work motivation and satisfaction (Sutaria, 1980).

According to the Motivation-Hygiene theory, an employee's decision to stay in their current position or leave should be based on how satisfied they are with their work (Herzberg, 1974). Job dissatisfaction follows a particular threshold for the hygiene aspects. The management of hygiene factors considerably lessens employee discomfort and prevents a negative work environment (Alfayad, 2017). They classified hygiene factors as: "Company policy and administration, supervision, relationship with supervisors, work condition, salary, relationship with peers, personal life, relationship with subordinates, status and security" (Smerek, 2007), whereas the motivators were classified as: "achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement, and growth" (ibid). However, as was already noted, this technique does not operate in reverse. Workplace motivation cannot be increased by lowering hygiene-related aspects or vice versa (Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Snyderman, B., 1959). Additionally, they discovered that employees' attitudes affect how they perform their jobs, with positive attitudes having a more significant impact on performance than negative attitudes (ibid). Utilizing the Motivation-Hygiene hypothesis, researchers examine the variables that affect employee job satisfaction and how that affects employee retention (Herzberg, 1974).

For many years since its first publication, the Motivation-Hygiene theory has served as a theoretical framework for many studies on employee retention across different industries (Larkin, 2016); However, despite several studies testing the theory's relevance and applicability to job contexts over time, it attracted many critics. Ewen and his colleagues (Ewen, 1966), stated that in a study they conducted, they could not give

unequivocal support to Herzberg's theory. Smerek and Peterson surveyed two thousand and seven hundred employees in research universities to examine the relationship between employees' characteristics, job characteristics, perceived work environment, and job satisfaction. They concluded that "the results do not support clear delineation between intrinsic and extrinsic dynamics as Herzberg's theory suggests" (Smerek, 2007, p. 248). Others, such as Wall and Stephenson (Wall, 2007), concluded that Herzberg's theory used a methodology that encouraged people to give the desirable answers, resulting in dissatisfaction factors related to external factors instead of internal factors. Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene theory, however, has endured despite all of its detractors because it is simple to understand and appears to be founded on genuine live practices rather than "simply" academic abstractions (Armstrong, Michael & Taylor, Stephen, 2014, pp. 250-251).

2.3.1.4 Person Organization Fit vs. Person Job Fit

An organization is most effective when all its pieces are 'fit' and working together, "the greater the total degree of congruence or fit between the various components, the more effective will be the organization" (Nadler, 1980, p. 45). Employee fit is generally regarded in terms of Person Organization Fit (P-O) and Person Job Fit (P-J) (Park, 2018), and those concepts embody the relationship between the employee and the organization while taking into consideration knowledge, skills, and abilities that the employee introduces to the job (Gabriel, A.S., Diefendorff, J.M., Moran, C.M. & Greguras, G.J., 2014). Person organization fit is defined as "the compatibility between people and organizations" (Kristof, 1996, p. 4); an individual will be more successful in organizations that share their personalities (Kristof-Brown, A. l., Zimmerman, R. d., & Johnson, E. c., 2005). The relationship between a person's characteristics and those of the job or tasks they carry out at work is referred to as a person's job fit (Kristof-Brown, A. l., Zimmerman, R. d., &

Johnson, E. c., 2005, p. 284). There are two principal theories of PJ fit. The first is the demands-abilities fit theory, which holds that the knowledge, skills, and abilities are most pertinent to the job needs. The second refers to the employee's needs and desires being met with their job (Kristof-Brown, A. I., Zimmerman, R. d., & Johnson, E. c., 2005).

Organizations operate to attract, select, and retain their employees. The Attraction-Selection-Attrition (ATA), developed by Schneider (Schneider B. , 1983), suggests that it determines the kinds of people in the organization, resulting in defining the nature of the organization process indicates that a person will prefer a specific organization according to his estimation of congruence between his characteristics and the attributes of the potential organization. *Selection* refers to the organization's formal and informal recruitment procedure (Schneider B. , 1987). The *attrition* process refers to the idea that people will leave the organization if they do not fit into it (Schneider B. G., 1995). The model of ASA suggests that homogeneity may be developed by interactions between employees and the organization (Bretz, 1989), and that similar people are "attracted to and selected by organizations whose goals are similar to their own" (Kristof, 1996, p. 5). According to several research, the ASA framework has an impact on hiring processes and judgments as well as applicant job behavior ((Judge, T.A., & Ferris, G.R., 1992), (Werbel, J.D., & Johnson, D.J., 2001), (Werbel, J.D., & Gilliland, S.W., 1999)). Based on individual interpretations and social constructions, HR practices may influence how employees view the organization (Rousseau, 1994). Additionally, it can influence overall organizational effectiveness and personnel performance (Huselid, 1995). Therefore, the HRM is crucial in putting into practice several techniques that could help to increase retention and decrease turnover.

Job satisfaction, organizational commitments, and intention to remain in the organization are all influenced by job fit (Allen D. G., 2006). It is defined as the degree of compatibility

between individuals and organizations when at least one entity meets the demands of the other, or they have comparable core values, or both (Kristof, 1996, pp. 4-5). In the past, it was assumed that the employee's abilities, such as knowledge or skills, should match with the job, but more recent studies argue that it is the employee's needs, desires (Kristof-Brown, A. I., Zimmerman, R. d., & Johnson, E. c., 2005), and values (Lock, E.A., Shaw, K.N., Saari, L.M., & Latham, G.P., 1981) that should match with the job. A high degree of P-O fit will also need to fulfill one's motivation. In order to promote this motivation, the organization must adopt intrinsic aspects of work motives, which depend on both the organization's and the individual's values requirements (Lim, 2019). For organizations to achieve a better job fit, several criteria should be implemented: a) Job role: the definition of the job in terms of service provided or product being sold. b) Job clarity: the risk involved in the new position. c) Job autonomy: the level of independence the employee must accomplish his job. d) Task-importance: the essential performance tasks to meet job requirements. e) Task-repetitiveness: similar tasks or functions inherent in the job. f) Task variety: the various tasks required for the job (Phillips, Jack. J. & Connell, Adedle. O, 2003, pp. 143-144). Hiring decision-makers assess P-O and P-J while hiring for a position and strongly impact their selection decision (Sekiguchi, Tomoki., & Huber, Vandra. L., 2011). Therefore, employees should perform better according to their match with the organization's attributes, and thus the importance of HR practices arises.

2.3.1.5 Job Embeddedness

Mitchell et al. argued that job embeddedness could be described as “like a net or a web in which an individual can become stuck” (Mitchell T. R., 2001, p. 1104). It was believed that the reasons for leaving contrasted with the reasons for staying until the introduction of this hypothesis, which questioned the prevailing research (Lee T. W., 2014). Job

embeddedness operates within three fundamental dimensions: 1) *Links* – the extent to which people have links with each other. The higher the connections between a person and his web of connections – in the community, work, and so forth, the more he will be bound to the job and organization. 2) *Fit* – the extent to which the person is connected to the job and organization with various aspects of his life. The more he is connected to those aspects, the more likely there will be a “fit” between the person and the organization. The third aspect of job embeddedness is 3) *Sacrifice* – what a person is about to lose while leaving a job. When leaving a job, every person has both material and psychological aspects to benefit from or lose (Mitchell T. R., 2001). According to this theory, employees can be integrated into an organization in various ways, and the more integrated they are, the more “stuck” they are in the organization (Lee T. W., 2014). Research since then has shown a connection between job embeddedness and turnover intention ((Burton, J.P., Holtom, B.C., Sablinski, C.J., Mitchell, T.R., & Lee, T.W., 2010); (Halbesleben, J.R.B., & Wheeler, A.R., 2008)) and even between voluntary turnover ((Felps, W., Mitchell, T.R., Hekman, D.R., Lee, T.W., Holtom, B.C., & Harman, W.S, 2009). Other researchers in a more collectivistic culture, such as India, sought to further Mitchell et al. job embeddedness model by adding the family as another key embeddedness. They defined: 1) family links – the family connections with the workplace; 2) family fit – referring to the compatibility of the family to the organization; and 3) family sacrifice – the potential loss to the family if one of its members will quit (Ramesh, A., & Gelfand, M. J., 2010). Other research looked at coworkers as a job embeddedness force and suggested that employees considering leaving their jobs are communicating their intentions to their coworkers. In response, these coworkers might likewise look for ways to leave and act similarly to those who intend to leave (Felps, W., Mitchell, T.R., Hekman, D.R., Lee, T.W., Holtom, B.C., & Harman, W.S, 2009). Early studies focused mainly on on-the-job aspects of work embeddedness. Still, more recent research has turned to off-the-job elements to better understand its effects on turnover and retention (Holton, Brooks. c., & Darabi, Tiffany, 2018). Over the past years

since the publishing of the original job embeddedness model, to my knowledge, at least one meta-analysis was published by Jiang et al. (Jiang, K., Liu, D., McKay, P., Lee, T., & Mitchell, T., 2012), covering fifty-two different studies on job embeddedness. It provided clear evidence that there is a link between on-the-job and off-the-job embeddedness and plans to leave one's employment. Recent studies continue to develop the job embeddedness model to other different variables, such as work outcomes and performance (e.g. (Ng, 2014)), and individuals embedded themselves (Feldman, D., Ng, T., & Vogel, R., 2012).

One may infer from the literature analysis that employee retention is still a significant problem for any organization interested in maintaining and growing over time. Organizations with an ongoing strategy to entice and inspire employees will have a competitive advantage (Mesch, 2010); the HRM system is critical for the organization to be effective (Pynes, 2013, p. 23). Through the literature review, it is evident that understanding the role and responsibilities of HRM is an incredibly crucial factor in employee retention, and the overview provides the foundation for this research study.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This study employ's an exploratory approach to examine human resource management practices of employee retention in research universities in Israel. The main objectives of this research are as follows:

1. To explore, review, and analyze HRM professionals' beliefs, perceptions, and attitudes about employee turnover and retention in their organizations.
2. To explore, review, and analyze HRM strategies and practices regarding employee retention in their organizations.
3. To understand which retention practices and strategies are perceived to be most effective according to HRM professionals.
4. To outline essential strategies and practices to reduce turnover in HEI.

Qualitative research approaches lead to different goals and questions, whether as an addition to quantitative or independent methods. The areas of application of qualitative research approaches include a) description and interpretation of either new or not-well-researched issues; b) theory generation or development; c) evaluation or advice of policy and action research; and d) research directed at future issues (Bitsch, 2005). Qualitative research, nowadays, “is supported by and dependent upon a line of thought that is orientated towards meaning, context, interpretation, understanding and reflexivity” (Knoblauch, 2005, p. 5). The Grounded theory constructivist turn evolved during the 1990s and adopted an inductive, comparative, and emergent approach regarding Glaser and Strauss's original statement (Charmaz, 2014, p. 12). Katy Charmaz produced a wholly interpretive constructivist text – *Constructing Grounded Theory* (Charmaz, 2014). This methodology “provides a tried-and-true set of procedures for constructing theory from

data” (Corbin, Juliet., & Strauss, Anselm, 2014, p. 46); therefore, it will be used and implemented in this study.

Grounded theory is a process that combines several steps and guidelines, as well as principles and practices. As illustrated in *Figure 1*, the process consists of an unfolding temporal sequence linked together and could lead to theory building.

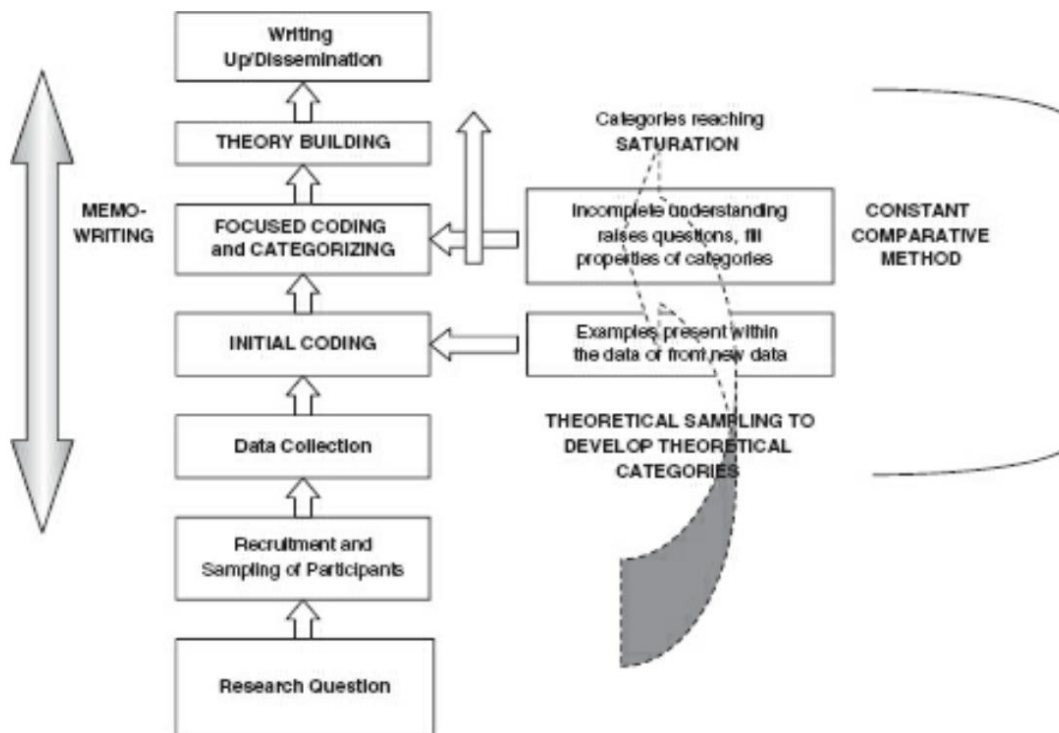


Figure 1. A Visual representation of a grounded theory (Charmaz, 2014, p. 17).

The first step in grounded theory requires gathering rich data that could be collected in diverse ways. As for this research, a series of interviews served as a data poll to be analyzed. The second step involves a coding process, and the coding “links collecting data with developing an emergent theory” (Charmaz, 2014, p. 18). By coding, the researcher takes segments from the data apart, names them in concise terms, analyzes them, and develops abstract ideas (Charmaz, 2014, p. 112). In this process, the theoretical categories emerge to explain the data. In this process, the theoretical categories emerge to explain the

data. The third step requires a process of ‘focused coding’, which is a process of decision-making in which the researcher needs to decide which initial codes make the most analytic sense (Charmaz, 2014, p. 138). The fourth step May require the researcher to acquire initial sampling for the research. The initial sample does not predetermine the coding category but serves only as a departure step for further analyzing the data.

Furthermore, after the initial sampling, theoretical sampling may be required. The purpose of theoretical sampling is to obtain data to explicate the initial sample’s categorization (Charmaz, 2014, p. 197). Although the description hereby may look like a linear process of collecting data, analyzing it, coding, and developing a theory, it is not linear. As illustrated in *Figure 1*, it is more of a circular process whereby data is collected, coded, and analyzed repetitively until saturation, when the theory “emerges” from the data analyzing process.

The grounded theory method described hereby will be utilized to answer the following research questions:

1. What are HRM professionals’ beliefs, perceptions, and attitudes about employee turnover and retention in their organizations?
2. What practices are HRM professionals implementing to reduce turnover and achieve employee retention?
3. What retention practices and strategies are the most effective, according to HRM professionals?
4. What are the main challenges for implementing retention practices?

3.2 Research Design

The research population in this study is human resource management professionals in research universities in Israel (N=9). The Chief Human Resource Officer (CHRO) or deputy director-general for human resources in the sampled organizations was contacted via E-Mail to gain participation in this study. If they expressed interest, the researcher then

established a second E-mail where they offered to be interviewed directly or to provide another professional personnel within the HR department responsible for handling employee turnover and retention. Then a third E-mail was issued whereby the HRM professional was offered a face-to-face interview or via Zoom. Following their request, all the interviews, except one, were held via Zoom. According to Arsel (Arsel, 2017) recommendations, the interview protocol should follow three significant steps: first, it starts with a brief introduction in the lay term, an explanation of the research and the procedure, and an invitation to the interviewees to ask questions about the study and process. Second, the interviewees must be informed about the participation consequences and sign a written informed consent form ([Appendix A](#)). Third, provisional questions should be prepared ([Appendix B](#)). Following these recommendations, each interview was conducted for approximately 45 Minutes, whereas some lasted about an hour.

According to constructivist Grounded theory, the interview process is “of exploration, emergent understanding, legitimation of identity, and validation of experience” (Charmaz, 2014, p. 90). All the interviews were audio-recorded, and notes were taken during the interview to help focus on some relevant issues that emerged or in cases where it was necessary to linger and focus on a specific topic. At the beginning of each interview, the researcher introduced himself and his background to the interviewees, the research topic, and the main research questions. The researcher considered it appropriate to perform due diligence at the very beginning of the interview and presented that he is employed in a managerial position at one of the other universities. On this occasion, it was clarified that the information about the interviewee, the university where he is employed, and the entire interview content would remain confidential. It was also explained to all the interviewees that they are allowed to review the summary of the interview with them after it is transcribed. The interviews were semi-structured, defined as “an interview with the purpose of obtaining descriptions of the life world of the interviewee to interpret the meaning of the described phenomena” (Kvale, S. & Brinkmann, S., 2008, p. 3). Semi-structured interviews have several critical advantages over structured or unstructured interviews. First, they can use the knowledge-producing potentials of dialogues better while giving the interviewer some leeway for following up on whatever

turns are needed or essential to the interviewee. Second, it gives the interviewer a better chance of becoming a knowledge-producing participant than hiding behind the interview guide. Third, the interviewer has an eminent saying in focusing the conversation on issues of significant importance to the study (Brinkmann, 2013, p. 21).

Since all the interviewee's native tongue is Hebrew, all the interviews were also conducted in Hebrew. Communicating in the interviewee's language is of paramount importance for two main reasons: first, the interviewee may not be able to express himself in an unfamiliar language fully, and it can also achieve a good rapport. Second, it could reduce cultural misunderstanding (Tsang, 1998), although that was not the issue here since the researcher also speaks Hebrew as his native tongue. But using the native tongue for the interview is also important since it helps to identify "codes" that may be lost when using a different language (Welch, Catherine & Piekkari, Rebecca, 2006). At the end of each interview, it was transcribed verbatim, translated into English, and began coding following Grounded theory. Each interviewee was encoded under the letter P, with a number accompanying it, representing the organization to which the interviewee belongs. For example: P1, P2, P3,..... P7.

3.3 Data Collection Procedure

The research population in this study was human resource managers in research universities in Israel. Currently, there are nine research universities in Israel scattered throughout the country. The researcher contacted each of the human resource managers in those universities. Seven Chief Human Resource Officers (CHRO) or deputy director-general for human resources, constituting seventy-seven percent of the studied universities, agreed to participate in the study and be interviewed.

Determining the sample size in any research and qualitative research is essential to the research design. The sample size varies in several research types depending on many variables, and Grounded theory is no exception. According to the literature, the

recommended number of interviews for Grounded theory is between twenty to thirty, depending on the sampled population size. Too many interviews could be redundant and counterproductive (Marshall, 2013). In this study, nine research universities (N=9) represent the entire research population among the universities in Israel. The elements that determine the sample size are based on theoretical saturation. The point of saturation could be affected by either the scope of the research questions, the nature of the phenomenon studied, or the ability and knowledge of the researcher (Tomson, 2011).

Saturation in research is often regarded as a point by which there is enough data with no additional new information that could be attained and when further coding is no longer practicable (Guest, G., Bunce, A., & Johnson, L., 2006). Strauss and Corbin suggested that there are several elements to achieve theoretical saturation: “a) no new or relevant data seem to emerge regarding a category, b) the category is well developed in terms of its properties and dimensions demonstrating variation, and, c) the relationships among categories are well established and validated.” (Strauss, A., & Corbin, J., 1998, p. 212). It has also been noted by Guest et al. that data saturation could be achieved by as little as six interviews, depending on the sample size population (Guest, G., Bunce, A., & Johnson, L., 2006). Glaser suggested that saturation is not seeing the same pattern over and over again. It is the conceptualization of comparisons of these incidents which yield different properties of the pattern, until no new properties of the pattern emerge (Glaser, 2001, p. 191). Grounded theorists suggest keeping sampling until the coding categories are saturated and that the logic substitutes the sample size, which may be very small (Charmaz, 2014, p. 214).

There are several recommendations for better achieving data saturation. One is to construct a saturation grid wherein the primary topic is presented vertically and the interviews horizontally. Another way to ensure data saturation is having a second party conduct the coding of the transcripts, and finally, if no added information is obtained in the final analysis, then saturation is obtained (Fusch, Patricia. I. & Ness, Lawrence, R., 2015). Dey argues that instead of referring to data saturation, a more accurate description of the procedure for Grounded theorists should be termed “theoretical sufficiency” (Dey, 1999,

p. 257). At a certain point, it was evident that the issues that arose from the interviews and the reference to them repeated themselves. Many universities face the same difficulties and challenges; some even apply the same methods and practices to retain employees. Although there are quite a few differences between them, at a certain stage, it was clear that it would not be possible to collect additional information that was not provided during the interviews. After reviewing all the interviews and the codes generated, it was determined that no further information on the subject under study could be attained, and therefore it meets the definition of “theoretical sufficiency”.

3.4 Data Analysis

One of the Grounded theory elements that differentiate it and make it unique compared to other qualitative research forms is that research analysis and data collection are interrelated. Once the initial data are collected, the researcher begins the data analysis, and once concepts are derived from the data analysis, they form the basis for additional data collection (Corbin, Juliet., & Strauss, Anselm, 2014, p. 35). The interrelationship between the data collection process and its analysis is illustrated in the following figure:

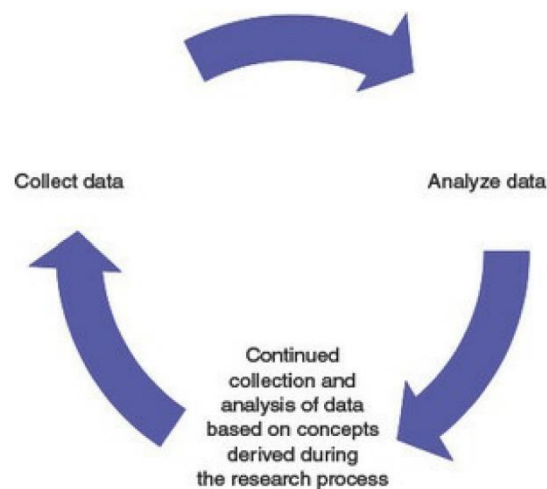


Figure 2. Interrelationship Between Data Collection and Analysis (Corbin, Juliet., & Strauss, Anselm, 2014, p. 37).

Analyzing the data in grounded theory requires coding. Through coding, the researcher can define what is happening in the data and then begins to grapple with what it means. The coding process involves two main phases: a) the initial phase, which is a process of naming words, lines, or segments of the data, followed by b) a selective phase that uses the most significant codes or the more frequent ones to both sort, integrate, synthesize and organize large amounts of data (Charmaz, 2014, p. 113). Through this research, Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) was utilized to help with the coding process. Using computer software is a powerful and helpful tool for managing the data gathered for the research. It is most beneficial in changing codes, grouping them into categories at a higher level of abstraction, and modeling can be done more quickly and easily (Belgrave, L. Linda., & Seide, Kapriskie., 2019, p. 183). The software program used for coding and analysis in this research is MAXQDA. This software is designed to use both qualitative and quantitative as well as mixed-method research. As for this research, it served as an assistive tool for coding the interview transcripts. The initial step required a complete coding process of the entire transcribed interviews. The second step required a more selective process, whereby focused coding occurs. In this step, the researcher highlights the most significant codes and organizes and synthesizes the data. MAXQDA served as the primary tool for highlighting the core codes and visualizing them, thus making the codes and data more accessible and available for analysis.

3.5 Research Design Limitations

The research data for this study was collected from human resource managers in research universities in Israel. Despite the high willingness of those managers to participate in this study and the apparent desire to provide reliable information about their practices for employee retention, it should be borne in mind that the same managers also serve

indirectly or unknowingly as the gatekeepers of the same organization they represent. In different organizations, the most relevant gatekeeper resides at the organization's top (Morrill, Calvin., Buller, David. B., Buller, Mery. Klein., & Larkey, Linda. L., 1999). One of the importance of gatekeepers is that they are 'switchmen' that can turn on and off the access to the organization's valued things (Corra, Mamadi., & Willer, David., 2002). In social science, a gatekeeper is typically defined as either individuals or groups that act to intermediate between the researcher and the participant/s. Researchers in an organization may have a problem maintaining data without physical or social access. Physical access does not ensure that the researcher will get social access to the organization (Clarck, 2010), hence the importance of the gatekeepers to mediate the organization's information access. Maximizing the possibility of granting access to data is required for the study and is essential to persuade the gatekeeper of the social value of the study (Wasseenaar, D. R., & Singh, S., 2016). There are three 'ideal type' mechanisms to support the engagement of gatekeepers: a) political representation – since the gatekeeper's purpose and interests exist externally to the research, the researcher engagement was perceived to validate and recognize the work of the gatekeeper; b) civic and moral responsibility to engage – gatekeepers are more likely to be engaged if they feel moral commitment, especially when the study is resonated with the same area of interest; c) identification of good practice and facilitation of change – the information that is generated from the study is perceived as beneficial to the gatekeeper (Clarck, 2010).

Human resource managers in this study serve as gatekeepers not only for the values and norms of their organizations but also need to defend their actions and strategies regarding employee turnover and retention practices in their organizations. Gatekeepers' role is to “represent their aims and interest” (Clarck, 2010, p. 491). But, if the information gathered in the study is perceived as something that can be useful to the gatekeepers, they are likely to be more engaged and cooperate (Clarck, 2010). Therefore, the researcher immediately at the beginning of the interview emphasized the importance of the study and its implications. The interviewees were also explained that the study results would be presented to them and that they would be able to make use of the study results.

The researcher is an active part of the study. The knowledge of a researcher on the given area may help the researcher to provide some insights that allow bypassing some unnecessary data presented during the interview and to formulate questions that could guide the interview more effectively (Tomson, 2011). In this case, the researcher has worked in the higher education system in Israel for about twenty-five years, in two of its research universities and in one college. Therefore, the researcher has an in-depth knowledge of the organizational structure of the institutions as well as some of the main processes and changes in the higher education system in Israel in recent years. This knowledge allowed the researcher to focus the interview on the research questions and focus the interviewee on issues of paramount importance for understanding employee retention practices in their organizations. But prior experience and knowledge on the subject may also hinder the researcher, causing the researcher to ignore or put aside some insights that may be important for the study (Tomson, 2011). That is why the researcher is careful not to involve his knowledge when it comes to the research questions and allows the interviewees to respond freely and fully on the issues within their areas of responsibility in the organizations they represent.

It should be noted that even though the researcher works in the higher education system in Israel, he is not, and was not, part of the human resources system in these organizations but held other managerial positions. Therefore, on the one hand, he has a deep familiarity with the organization's structures but not with human resources activities or with the practices performed by them. Strauss & Corbin suggests that:

“Because these early concepts have not evolved from “real” data, in the researcher carries them with him or her into the field, then they must be considered provisional and discarded as data begin to come in. Nevertheless, early concepts often provide a departure point from which to begin data collection...” (Strauss, A., & Corbin, J., 1998, p. 205)

Following Strauss & Corbin's recommendations, the researcher used his prior knowledge only as a starting point to better understand the subject under study and to focus the

interviewees on the research questions. Instead, the researcher's previous knowledge of the research subject helped to focus the questions and enable compelling interviews. In this way, it was possible to shorten some of the explanations about the background processes or processes and policy areas relevant to all higher education institutions in Israel and focus on the strategies and research questions relevant to that organization. The fact that the researcher had a background and prior familiarity with the higher education system in Israel helped the human resources managers feel during the interview as "partners" in the problem and not just as part of an interview process between the researcher and the researched.

3.6 Conclusion

This study employ's an exploratory approach to examine human resource management practices of employee retention in research universities in Israel. The researcher applied Charmaz's (Charmaz, 2014) Grounded theory as the guiding theoretical framework in this study. All research universities in Israel received an application to take part in this study. Seven of the nine universities, representing approximately seventy-seven percent, agreed to participate in the research and share the processes and practices they implement to retain employees in their institutions. All study participants received detailed explanations of its goals and the interview procedure. They were asked to sign a consent form for the study. Although some of the interviewees expressed apprehension about signing the research consent form, in the end, they all agreed to research, and thus it was possible to continue and progress in the research. Then the information and data collected from the interviewees were transcribed verbatim and translated into English. After collecting the data from the interviewees, they processed and coded according to the theory, using MAXQDA software, a Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS). The software enabled fast and effective processing of the collected data, after which the data analysis phase began, which will be detailed in chapter four.

CHAPTER IV: RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This study explores human resource management strategies and practices of employee retention in research universities in Israel. This chapter reports the results of the interviews with eight participants from seven universities, representing about seventy seven percent of the research universities in Israel (N=9). Following Charmaz grounded theory (Charmaz, 2014), all the interviews were translated into English, transcribed verbatim, and went through a process of coding to locate critical concepts and themes. The method of coding the interviews brought up several basic concepts; these enabled a process of focusing on core conceptual categories, which yielded four main theoretical categories. Relevant quotations from the HR representatives have been embedded.

4.2 Universities and Participants Profiles

Seven of the nine research universities in Israel participated in the study. The universities that took part in the study are (in alphabetical order):

<i>University</i>	Year of establishment	Number of Administrative Staff	Number of Students
<i>Ariel University</i>	1986 (as a college), 2012 (as a university)	810	13,541
<i>Bar-Ilan University</i>	1955	882	19,819

<i>Ben Gurion University of the Negev</i>	1969	1,253	17,820
<i>Hebrew University of Jerusalem</i>	1925	1,750	20,898
<i>Tel-Aviv University</i>	1956	1,847	26,570
<i>The Technion – Israel Institute for Technology</i>	1924	1,218	13,787
<i>Weizmann Institute of Science</i>	1949	952	1,215

- [Council for Higher Education in Israel website.](#)

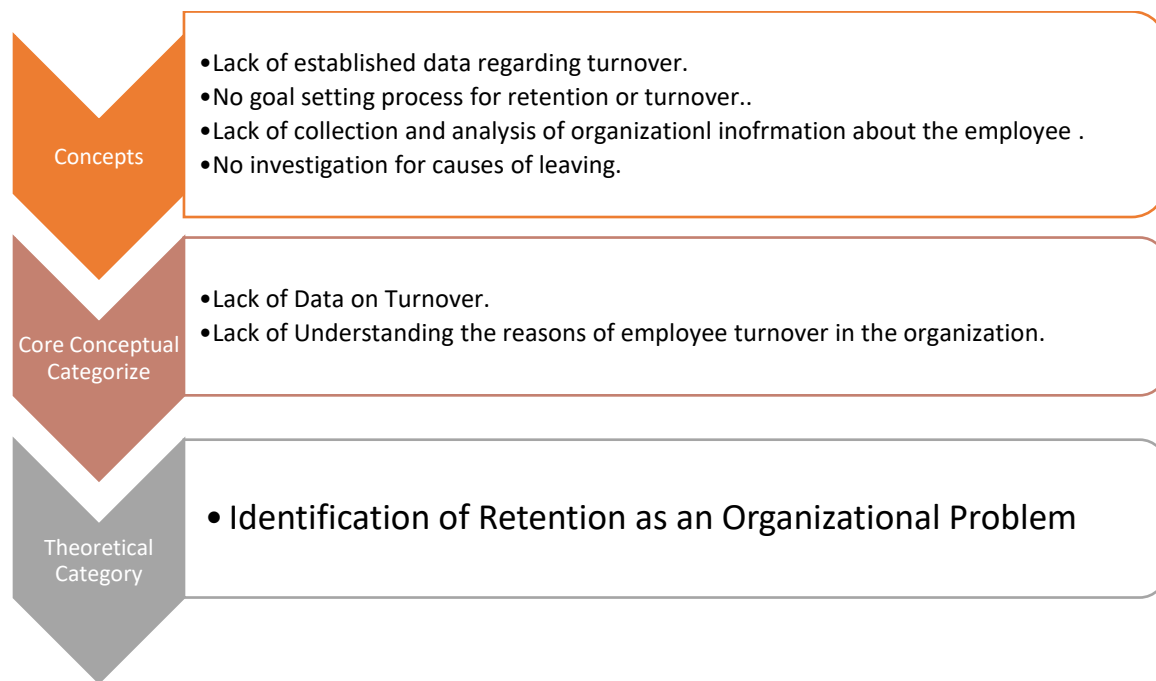
Each of these universities was represented by a senior representative from the Human Resources Division. In five of the seven universities, the institution's Vice President of Human Resources took part in the research, and in the other two, two deputies were selected. One serves as the head of the recruitment director, and the other as the human resources director of the university's administrative staff. One university chose to send two participants, the vice president of human resources and the recruiting director. Five representatives were male, and three representatives were female. All the representatives are in their mid-fifties. All of them have academic degrees, two of them have bachelor's degrees in the fields of social sciences, and the remaining five also have master's degrees in the areas of social sciences and management. Maintaining the confidentiality of the participants and the universities was achieved by assigning a code representing each interviewee. The letter P was attached to each interviewee, followed by a number representing the university they came from.

4.3 Reporting of the Data

Grounded theory coding is a process of defining the data. It requires categorizing data segments with short names that simultaneously summarize the data (Charmaz, 2014, p. 111). According to Charmaz's Grounded theory coding process, coding the data involves three significant steps. The first is the initial coding, where each line or term is coded. These codes are provisional and aim to remain open to other analytic possibilities. Those codes may be reworded at this stage to improve their fit to the data (Charmaz, 2014, pp. 116-118). The second is the focused coding process, which is a higher level of abstraction than the initial coding used for synchronizing large segments of data (Belgrave, L. Linda., & Seide, Kapriskie., 2019). The third step is theoretical coding, which involves a process that requires a decision about the initial data, and whether they make the most logical sense (Charmaz, 2014, p. 138).

The data in this study were collected to explore human resource management practices of employee retention in research universities in Israel. All the collected interviews underwent a coding procedure under the Grounded theory method. The coding process produced ninety-six initial coding from the transcripts of the interviews. Out of the initial coding, refining the data made more codes, by which they also compared with the data and with other initial codes, thus producing twenty-one focused codes. According to Charmaz, one should raise the question, “what kinds of theoretical categories do these codes indicate?” (Charmaz, 2014, p. 144). Thus, the theoretical coding process produced four core conceptual categories that were the basis for the theoretical framework. The data collected from the participants yielded dozens of concepts, and after a process of deduction, they were compiled and cataloged into several main themes. Those themes constituted eight core conceptual categories and four main theoretical categories listed below.

4.3.1 Identification of Retention as an Organizational Problem



Based on the data findings, A phenomenon was evident according to which about one hundred percent of the respondents admitted that they have a problem with employee retention, but about fifty percent claimed that it is not a profoundly severe problem. It is evident that some interviewees did not feel comfortable with the question of whether they are required to deal with employee turnover, and their intuitive answer was - "No". Even when asked about the turnover rate of employees in their organization, about twenty percent gave a quick response, albeit based on estimation only, while the rest were hesitant to answer this question. They were acting defensively, and only after being asked several indirect questions did they admit that they were dealing with the problem of employee turnover to one degree or another. About a third of them did not recognize the phenomenon of turnover as a problem since, according to them, it was not very serious, and therefore there was no point in defining it as a problem in the organization. As P7 pointed out:

P7: “First, what is employee turnover? I'm used to having students drop out and I don't think we're in a situation where employees drop out”.

As can be seen, the answer is intuitive and defensive and tries to deny that there is a problem with employee retention. As P4 noted:

P4: “We don't have a retention problem...(but) we had a lot of turnovers after the Covid pandemic.”

On an intuitive level, there was a tendency not to admit the existence of the problem at all; however, as the interview progressed, it was possible to understand that the problem is mainly in fear of defining the phenomenon of employee turnover as an organizational problem. All the participants testified that this phenomenon either started or intensified significantly almost immediately during or after the Covid-19 pandemic:

P1: “I can say that before the Corona pandemic, there was no problem at our university. The word “turnover” was unknown. I mean, for me it is a derogatory word, because the average employee at our university works for 35 years and no one wants to leave their position or the university.”

P2: “...(the problem) started during the Corona pandemic, but it was just the trigger. ...following the pandemic, many organizations from the private sector offered extremely attractive working conditions, and that contributed to the problem.”

P3: “In the last year, everything that happens due to the corona is simply a different world both in terms of recruitment and in terms of turnover.”

P6: “This is not a problematic phenomenon because it exists in every organization and the question is what its doses are. And so the answer is "we

have such a phenomenon", I would undoubtedly say that it has challenged us more in recent years because the market is more challenging and also because as the number of our employees in the institution decreases, the number of young employees increases and their mentality in style is different from the old average, as I call it.”

P7: “There is more of a feeling of employees leaving, more employees are asking to leave, and many candidates are very picky in terms of hiring. It seems to me that it is a generational thing and also because we are simply after the corona”.

But even though all the participants admitted that the problem of employee turnover in their organizations began or intensified immediately after the Corona pandemic, none of them made accurate measurements to examine the extent of the phenomenon. Their assessments regarding the scope of the phenomenon were mainly based on the discourse that developed among the employees in their organization, or sometimes through employees contacting them directly or through their managers. In addition, although all the participants recognized the importance of employee retention in their organization, they did not define any goal for employee turnover.

P2: “I can’t give a number (for turnover – A.H.). But for years I have been claiming that the lack of mobility in positions is the main problem of this organization.”

P5: “We check it all the time (turnover rate – A.H.) ... we are not talking about a mass departure of work, but if every year it is a low percentage, this year we felt that there was an increase. I associate it with the Corona pandemic”.

P3: "... I can't tell you that without checking. But I'm not talking about big numbers, but compared to what we're used to, it's a lot... Both in terms of the quality of those who leave and in terms of the "noises" we hear from the employees, this made us "open our eyes" to the need to retain employees."

P1: "Let's say we had some 0% turnover for almost 100 years, and suddenly we're already seeing a turnover of 25 employees per year, which is a significant increase for us."

P6: "I don't remember by heart, but I can estimate it... I think it is about five percent."

P7: "...we do not have an exact figure (of employee turnover – A.H.). We do feel that turnover rate increased and that it is also accompanied by greater difficulty in recruitment, and then a new situation arises where there are very large loads on the system and on the employees who remain in the system. Today this phenomenon is cross-professional, starting with junior positions and continuing in more senior positions."

As seen from the data, almost all the interviewees could not answer a straightforward question concerning the extent of the phenomenon in their organization. Ostensibly, as senior HR managers in the organization, they are supposed to know the data and the importance of the problem; however, some of them experience a kind of denial or are simply dealing with a new phenomenon and do not know how to identify and deal with it. In addition, about half of the interviewees noted that they could not collect and receive information about organizational processes regarding their employees. It seems as if they cannot get a complete overview of the personal situation of their employees; thus, they cannot foresee their employee's satisfaction status. With no data regarding employee satisfaction, they often feel that they are "fighting windmills" and cannot predict turnover.

P3: “Unfortunately, we don't have something that should have existed 15 years ago, which is an organizational survey. In an organizational survey you can see trends, and those trends can turn on a red light and then as human resources you can act and change bad trends. Unfortunately, until now we haven't had anything like this, and I believe that next year we will conduct such a survey. What is important is the trends, and not only one survey.”

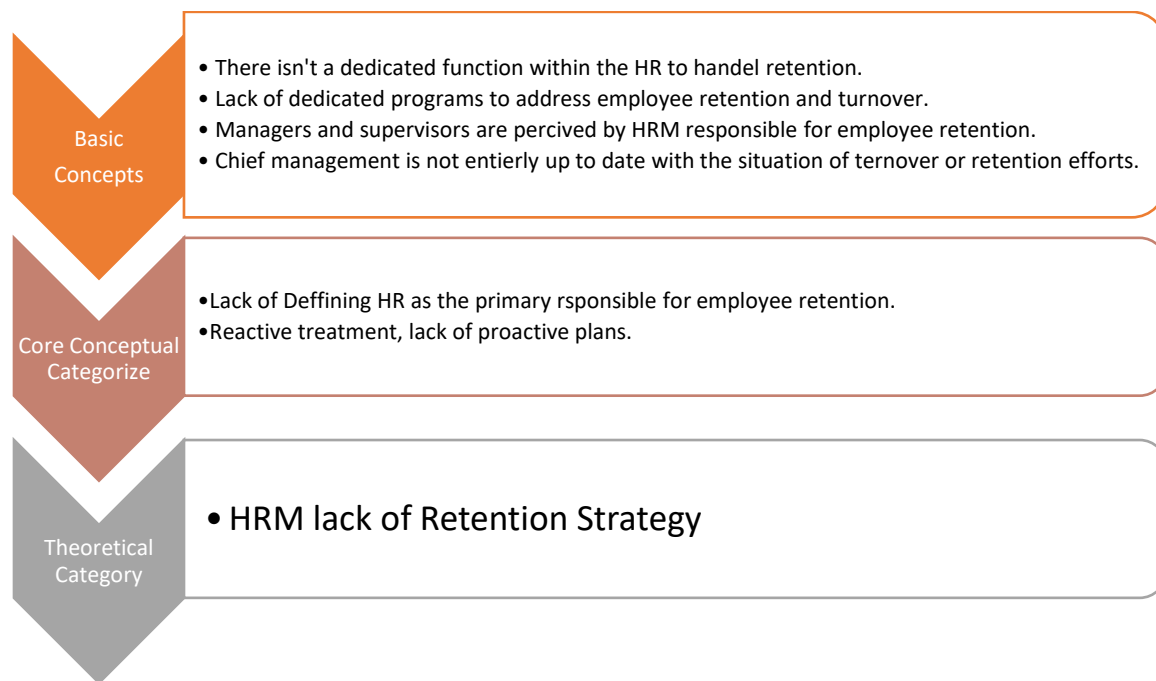
Others, on the other end, claimed that although they have sufficient data regarding their employees, they do not have the right technology to process this data into an organizational work plan. As well explained by VP HRM – P2:

P2: “... we need to go through a phase in terms of working with DATA. We don't work with DATA almost at all, and our intention is to have systems that integrate BI and AI that can tell us “This employee – “pay attention to him”. He didn't get promoted; he did get promoted. He needed to be checked. He didn't learn, he did learn. He didn't get paid; he did get paid”. We have this information and data; we just need to know how to make much more use of DATA in an automatic way and not to wait for things to happen by themselves.”

Data collection and analysis are necessary to set turnover and retention goals. Without setting those goals, they cannot measure their success or failure to retain their employees. Surprisingly, all the universities that participated in this study did not set clear goals on turnover or employee retention. Some related it to the fact that this is a new phenomenon in their organization, and they did not experience it in the past. Others did not think that the phenomenon was still acute enough at this time to be measured. It is clear from all the interviews that the phenomenon of employee turnover caught most universities by "surprise". As shown, most of them testified that they had not experienced a significant turnover until the Corona pandemic, that is, during the last three years. The fact that the

change has begun to gather momentum in recent years has already started to be reflected in the various retention activities that those universities carry out. Those activities will be discussed and elaborated hereby.

4.3.2 HRM lack of Retention Strategy



According to the findings in this study, it is evident that none of the universities that participated in the study has a designated employee responsible for handling employee turnover and retention. Although for all of them, the issue of employee turnover and retention is under the responsibility of human resources, no single official with official authorization, obligations, or goals has been defined. Usually, the responsibility on the subject converges into two central figures or bodies. *The first* is the training department, responsible for implementing various training programs perceived as a tool for employee retention. These are usually training programs supposed to produce organizational engagement, and they may be internal or external. Human resources personnel or other

internal university professionals generally conduct internal training, whereas external training is usually carried out by summoning external professionals. There are other additional programs, for example, those where the employees are sent to studies and training outside the university and even enrichment studies at universities abroad. The purpose of this training is, as mentioned, to create organizational engagement by creating a sense of belonging to the organization and a sense of appreciation by and to the organization.

P2: "...within Erasmus project over one hundred and twenty administrative employees went for a week of studies at another university outside the country, at the expense of the university and on its behalf. These are the kind of things that strengthen the engagement."

P1: "...in the upcoming year we are going to issue a "call" for employees to study a master's degree that is dedicated to our university employees. This is a great tool for engagement and retention."

P3: "The second issue that retain employees is 'employee's development'. Employees want to feel that they are developing, so training programs are built for them. I am bothered by the fact that there are populations for whom I am unable to build programs. Although employee's retention is not the main target of these trainings, ... it makes them better and satisfied employees. I know that as a result a satisfied employee is also an employee who stays at work."

P5: "We have an annual training program that is open to all employees. The program includes both professional content such as Excel or other software and soft skills, such as interpersonal communication, personal skills and so on. These courses are open to everyone, including even our cleaning staff. This activity is at the expense of working hours and at no cost. Beyond that, an employee who needs some kind of professional training, we are very generous

with this, and we send employees, upon the recommendation of their manager of course, to specialize in the field they need.”

The organization perceives training as a kind of “reward” they give their employees. On the one hand, they enable professional enrichment and empowerment; on the other hand, they create reciprocal relationships between the employees and the organization, thus raising the level of organizational engagement and commitment. However, when the HR managers were asked if they were examining this thesis regarding the effectiveness of organizational training, the answer was negative. They sometimes conduct a type of satisfaction survey on the training itself, but they do not examine whether the training introduced the goal of organizational engagement or personal empowerment to the employees.

P5: “Every action we do, we ask for feedback from the participants via an app, and that's how we check the satisfaction level of the activity or the training. We also hold lessons learned sessions, but not the connection between the training to retention.”

P3: “After each training we are given feedback. How relevant the training was and how relevant the lecturer was, but this is mainly to improve ourselves for the next time. Unfortunately, we don't have something that should have existed 15 years ago, which is an organizational survey.”

P7: “We do not check the data. Management is something that develops over time, and we don't check it every moment, in my opinion, it is not measurable at all. We have difficulty analyzing the data every moment and creating one index or another, even if we will try to do it, I'm not sure I could.”

When the HR managers were asked whether selecting employees who participate in these training is related to employee retention, the answer was also negative. The training is usually offered to all employees or a dedicated group of employees, and the human resources department has no real influence on who participates. Sometimes there are situations where dedicated training is given for specific job holders, but these are usually dedicated training for the field of occupation and not in a targeted way to create organizational engagement. Beyond that, it turned out that none of the universities checked the effectiveness of these general training and their manager's training regarding employee retention. That is, it is possible that they hold activities and training that are important or even beneficial to the employee or the organization, but it is not possible to know for sure because, as mentioned, they do not examine the effectiveness of these activities.

P6: “We are not strong in this at all (checking effectiveness – A.H.). Most of the soft elements in organizations are not measurable. But there are still two or three parameters that I can look at. One is the manager’s satisfaction with those trainings, but it is not directly related to employee retention. But at least one can know if the workshops are really what they need. Second parameter, this is when I talk to employees and understand from them what their gaps are, what they lack and then I pour the content they need, and then I know I am in the direction of the employee’s problems. Whether this process was helpful or not, I did not measure and I think it requires multi-year follow-up. We do not conduct this even though we are a research institute.”

They do not perform an indirect test and measurement to examine these activities. The impression was that only after being asked about their various activities' effectiveness was there an understanding that they were missing something. Some of them shifted uncomfortably in their chairs, and some were satisfied with the fact that they provided

feedback on the training activities or that the employees updated them if this or that training was not good enough.

The second figure or body to which organizational employee retention is attributed is usually either the recruitment department or one of the senior HR managers in the HR departments. However, these managers typically have broad areas of responsibility and administration as part of their work in the human resources department, and they do not have a dedicated specialization for handling employee turnover. This fact means that no single designated factor focuses on the issue and can get a complete and authentic overview of the status of employee retention in the organization. From the point of view of those HR managers, the activities they carry out are intended to raise the level of employee satisfaction and as a result, to achieve a better retention of employees in the organization. The activities are done sporadically and unintentionally to produce employee retention.

Another issue that arose as part of the study was the question of responsibility for employee retention. On the one hand, all the interviewees claimed that the human resources department has responsibility for retaining employees in the organization. On the other hand, about fifty percent of the institutions argued that the direct managers or supervisors of the employee also have direct responsibility for the desire of an employee to end his work in the organization, and the rest claimed that those managers have some responsibility. As P1 explained:

P1: “Ok in the end employee retention starts with the manager. This is not an HR issue (My highlight – A.H.). It is not. Some managers wrote me some email regarding this employee or that and that he wants to resign, please do something. Human resources will then work to achieve retention... It is okay to decide that managers are personally responsible... (for retention – A.H.)”

P2: “But my point of view is that in the end, the person who influences the employee desire to leave the organization the most is his direct manager, which is why we invest quite a bit in training and also giving tools to managers.”

Some HR managers have not removed their responsibility for employee retention and even know how to explain in detail the "hierarchy" regarding the responsibility for retaining employees in their organization.

P6: “The direct responsibility as I see it is divided into three vertices. One is the direct manager, the second is the sectoral human resources manager who reports to me and the third is myself. Now there are many factors in my HR department that influence this issue, but they are not responsible. The director of learning and organizational development is influential in the aspect of how well it develops the people, how well it trains them, how well it consolidates them. The welfare director how much she “pampers” them, the social worker how much she supports them and so on. But the direct responsibility is myself and the human resources management.”

P7: “There is no one factor (responsible for retention – A.H.); the responsibility is divided into many factors. The individual employee is handled by a social worker, continued through the human resources department, and then we can identify if there is a personal difficulty for a certain employee. But this activity is not centralized in one place and we will not give it a collective solution.”

The direct managers are the primary channel that is aware of the employee's intention to leave, so in terms of human resources, they are also the ones who should provide a personal and individual response to the employee.

P3: “Satisfaction can be achieved by good managers; it is the number one or two factor in employee satisfaction and retention.”

P2: “We increase opportunities for managers and units to improve the conditions of their employees at the unit level, because they have a responsibility (for retention – A.H.)”

P7: “The source of employee satisfaction is the satisfaction of their managers. An employee doesn’t stay at work because of ice cream. So, we invest in the development of managers, sometimes they don't always have enough management experience and they usually don't choose their staff. So, we invest in consulting and development of units and managers themselves. As part of the personal consulting, we also mentor academic staff who function in management positions.”

Their intervention as the human resources department in the organization almost always begins after the direct manager requests their intervention or the employee himself. But although the human resources department perceives employee retention as at least a mutual task with the employee’s direct managers, this insight has been neither formally defined nor communicated by the HR departments to the managers of their institutions. When no single known entity can include all aspects of the phenomenon and responsibility is distributed over many elements in the organization, it is challenging to address the problem inclusively and holistically.

Another issue that arose from the research concerned the organizations' degree of proactiveness in carrying out employee retention processes. It can be clearly said that all the participants in the study admitted that they did not implement a sufficiently proactive approach to achieve employee retention. It was well described by P2, who claimed:

P2: “... we need to be much more active and proactive. It is almost non-existent at the moment in the university in this regard.”

Most of them maintain a series of employee retention practices, which will be elaborated through general actions that are not explicitly intended for employee retention. All the institution's representatives explained, for example, that they hold various training systems and courses for managers and employees and attributed this as a tool to retain employees. However, none of the institutions have dedicated training or actions designed to keep employees in the organization; they incorporate relevant content into the training they hold for managers.

P4: “We are trying to create a dialogue between us as human resources, and with the managers, to create tools for a plan that, let's say, gives a little more attention and treatment (to retention issues – A.H.)”

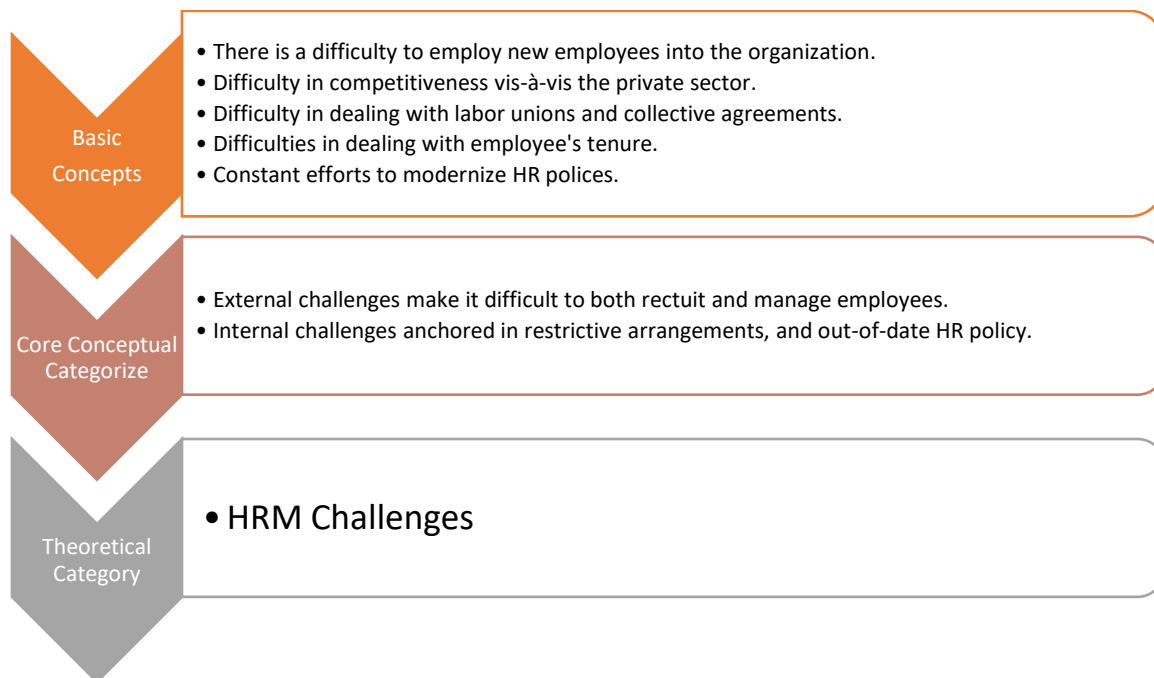
This fact is surprising because about seventy percent of the interviewees claimed that the employees' direct managers directly influenced the employee's desire to terminate their work at the institution. As was described by P1:

P1: “ I will give you an example from today, I met with the supervisor of a certain unit, and I asked an organizational consultant to come in and do some work there because I recognized a desire for workers to resign from that unit due to the attitude of his supervisor.”

Some institutions chose to integrate the issue of employee retention into their training programs for managers, but with some exception of one university, managers were not given real and effective tools to enable them to meet this task. This behavior corresponds well with the fact that until a few years ago, those same universities were not required to deal significantly with employee retention. The fact that human resource managers

attribute to the courses and training programs they hold for managers and employees the ability to help them in the task of retaining employees in the organization is entirely unfounded. While it is possible that these courses do improve the organization's ability to retain employees, it is equally likely that they do not. The fact that no in-depth data-based examination is performed does not allow the tool of training or courses to be characterized as a fundamental organizational tool for employee retention in the organization.

4.3.3 HRM Challenges



One of the main themes that stood out throughout the interviews was the challenges that human resources departments face today. In general, the challenges faced by human resources can be divided into internal challenges and external challenges.

Internal Challenges:

The internal challenges of the HR management in the examined organizations focus on three key elements: a) Collective agreements and the labor union. b) The tenure mechanism. c) Modernizing HR policies.

a. Collective agreements:

All the universities in this study are subject to collective agreements with the representative organization of the administrative staff - the Histadrut. Collective agreements are complex and may differ from university to university, but it is possible to state several principles that are common to all these agreements. a) It is challenging to recruit new employees with individual contracts, although some institutions have made changes in recent years. This kind of recruitment usually requires the agreement of the local workers union. Because of this, b) it is not easy to offer or pay different salary levels to the hired employees; most salary levels are paid according to fixed salary tables. This fact is reflected in recruitment related to the administrative staff, where during the last few years, there has been little differentiation in salary in certain positions, mainly in IT. c) It is challenging and, in some universities, not even possible to change the forms of employment without changing the collective agreements, that is, without the consent of the national labor organization – the Histadrut. In all these universities, the local workers union acts as a representative of the national workers union - the Histadrut, and therefore de facto supervises and enforces the collective agreement at that university. From the point of view of the human resources management in the examined organizations, these limitations make it difficult for them to retain employees. The process begins with their lack of flexibility when recruiting for a job, continues with the wage offer given to the candidate, and ends with the inability to reward the candidate with various salary components.

In addition to the collective agreements, all university employees participating in the study are unionized within a local workers union subordinate to the national labor organization -

the Histadrut. All the universities² mentioned that the collective agreements restrict them and make it difficult for them to retain their employees. One of the main problems is that due to these agreements, the worker's organizations usually do not agree to accept employees in personal contracts, since by doing so, their collective power is weakened because these employees are not organized within the framework of the local and national worker's union.

P4: "... because of my collective agreement every individual contract, I must reach agreements with the union, and it is very complex."

P1: "I can't always operate freely because the regulation doesn't allow me. I call it a regulatory budget constraint... Sometimes the limitations are because of the worker's union because I have to respect collective agreements."

P7: "In the end, the collective agreement dictates how to conduct ourselves, how to advertise a position, what are the salary limits, etc. Our collective agreement is attached to the wages in the public sector, and this is problematic. The workers union is not ready to discuss the integration of workers in individual contracts and the collective agreements create a very rigid system and which is a very big limitation to us."

However, the problem is not only in the inability to take in workers based on a personal contract. The collective agreements and the regulations of the salary commissioner in the Treasury limit the ability of the universities to take in people at a higher salary rate compared to the private sector. All universities maintain a salary scale, and except for one university³, to advance in the salary level, the employee is required to move in the organizational hierarchy to more senior positions. The lower the rank, the lower the salary, and vice versa. This problem is intensified by the fact that in these universities, except for

² Except for one university that is less old and therefore has less rigid salary agreements compared to the old universities.

³ At this university, all employees without exception can reach the maximum salary level.

one, there is a mechanism for tenure-track positions. When a managerial or senior position is occupied for many years, it creates a kind of organizational "traffic jam" that does not allow employees of lower ranks to advance in the organization and, therefore, not to grow significantly in terms of salary. Employees are usually admitted to the university at a low wage compared to the average in the private sector. So, it turns out that the wage is low at the beginning of the employee's career, and it increases over time through the employee's seniority and progress in the organizational rank structure.

P2: "... the salary levels for employment in universities in the administrative staffs are not high. Mainly in the entry levels in the first stages, in the first years."

P5: "We still have difficulty with the entry-level jobs and the low salary levels. In the last agreement with the worker's union we reached, each employee could stay in the same rank for up to ten years, and to advance in salary the employee must move to a more senior position."

As the employee advanced to a higher position, he could receive a higher salary. It means that those universities have difficulty recruiting senior and experienced employees due to low entry salary levels. Although all the interviewees claimed that, except for wages, they have excellent ancillary employment conditions (for example, the number of vacation days and sick leave, welfare activities, etc.), the salary component still constitutes a significant obstacle in recruiting quality employees. According to them, while in the past the ancillary terms of employment were attractive enough, today they are not satisfactory, and the main requirements of job applicants concern the issue of salary.

P5: "In terms of other conditions and beneficients, what we give to our employees does not fall short of what is accepted in private companies, we

have much better conditions than what is required by law. For example, we give 16 days of vacation a year, and after two years of work this increases to 22 days of vacation a year. Sick leave is paid from day one and after two years they get 30 days a year. We give a training fund after a year in the basic positions and there are positions from day one.”

As mentioned, even though all universities provide a wide range of ancillary employment conditions, salary is significant in the candidate's decision whether to start working at the university or not. As P3 explained well:

P3: “But when someone new comes in from the outside, he doesn't see that (the ancillary conditions – A.H.), what he sees is the bottom line of his paycheck, and the bottom line is that the paycheck is not competitive compared to the private sector.”

Even this advantage that existed in the past no longer manifested significantly. The outcome is difficulty in their ability to retain and recruit new employees. It is evident that all human resource managers attach the utmost importance to their ability to provide competitive wages vis-à-vis the private sector, and as long as they cannot do this freely, they will continue to encounter difficulties in their ability to retain employees. However, one of the main components of working at a university in Israel that they can offer - employment stability- is not a sufficient intermediary, and they fail to leverage this tool more to recruit and retain employees. The value of job security may no longer be strong enough as it was in the past, but it is still one of the elements that may constitute a competitive advantage vis-à-vis the private sector, and this competitive advantage does not translate well in the process of locating and recruiting new employees or in retaining old employees.

b. Tenure:

In most of the research universities in Israel, there is a mechanism for granting job tenure not only to the academic staff members but also to the administrative staff, although with specific differences between the universities. At this stage, the obvious question arises, why is it necessary to retain employees when there is a mechanism of tenure track positions? *First*, because not all the administrative staff positions are under a tenure framework, there are differences between the universities in this regard. *Secondly*, a significant part of the positions, especially in specific fields, are under personal contracts and therefore do not grant tenure. *Thirdly*, job tenure is a tool the university provides to its employees, not vice versa. The employees do not give tenure to the university, if they are satisfied, they will stay at work, and if not, they may leave it.

About eighty percent of the participants in this study claimed that today the tenure mechanism for administrative staff makes it difficult for them to retain employees in two main ways. First, it allows the retention of employees, but not necessarily for those that the institution wishes to keep, and since they have tenure at work, the institution cannot fire them. Second, it does not allow for occupational flexibility, and the inability to fire people creates a "jam" of positions and makes it impossible to hire new quality employees.

P1: "If the employee already has tenure and works well, then I have no problem, but if the employee already has tenure and is not working well, then I have a problem with that. You know, it has its pros and cons. Tenure encourages people to remain mediocre. In our generation today there is no place for tenure. Employees should strive for excellence and trust themselves to move forward. Tenure at work leaves me with employees that I don't really want to keep, and this helps me only a little in terms of good employees that I want to keep in the organization. But at the critical mass good employees are not interested in tenure and it is not their considerations."

P2: “First, in terms of employees, the concept of tenure today is much weaker than before. Basically, without a budget pension, the element of tenure does not have much meaning, and yet, as surprising as it is, an employee who receives his tenure letter psychologically it works very, very hard on him and not necessarily for good. There are those who actually work worse after they get their tenure, although apparently there shouldn't be a difference, but probably psychologically it's stronger than I would expect. I would not like the term tenure to be heard anymore.”

P3: “I think that tenure does much more harm to the employees than to the organization itself. Because it is a “prison” for employees and they stay in places that are not good for them because of tenure, and they may suffer at work for years and it also takes a toll on them the need to develop. Secondly, there are people who fight the system from their first day to their last day, even though they have tenure and have job security, so the personality issue here is critical. I think the management of the employees needs to change, I have no problem with tenure as a statement, if I needed to determine on tenure from scratch, I really wouldn't allow tenure here.”

P4: “Sometimes the problem with employee satisfaction is due to personal problems between employees and managers, but I am limited, because there are managers with tenure and employees with tenure. It's not like in a private sector, I can't fire them... In addition, (what needs to be changed are: – A.H.) recruitment budgets and cancellation of the issue of tenure.”

As it appears from the statements of the human resources managers, they are precisely the ones who claim that the tenure mechanism in their universities does not help them retain employees but only makes their work more difficult. Tenure enables the retention of employees who are not always looking for a promotion at work, thus preserving mediocrity. At the same time, most of the high-quality employees that the institutions want

do not consider job tenure as a factor that might convince them to work at the university. Only one HR manager thought the tenure track position in his organization to be a practical tool for employee retention:

P6: "...unlike quite a few people, I don't really agree with the statement that job tenure is a hindrance. On the one hand, it reduces our administrative flexibility, but on the other hand, it creates stability for us. A person who receives tenure has a kind of psychological contract with the organization according to which "I am permanent" and therefore I should not miss this "golden share". And if I'm in an occupational or personal crisis, the tenure creates occupational stability that the organizations enjoy even if they don't understand it."

This testimony was unusual compared to the other HR managers interviewed. Most of them claimed that the job tenure mechanism makes it difficult for them in terms of their managerial flexibility, and even though it creates systemic stability for the organization, it causes many other problems. In this case, it is evident that the organizational climate of this institution makes it possible to accommodate in a better way with tenure track employees, or they have a good filtering system for recruiting new employees. One way or another, it is evident that the job tenure mechanism in universities is a tool that, according to most of the respondents, currently poses a difficulty in retaining their employees. Beyond that, it significantly prevents intra-organizational mobility and thus constitutes an additional difficulty in maintaining employees in the organization.

c. Modernizing HR policies:

Some claimed that they have difficulty formulating a coping strategy because they lack the necessary information about the career development paths of the employees in their institutions or that the data does exist. Furthermore, they have difficulty analyzing it into operative and strategic plans. The HR manager's recognition of the emerging problem in their ability to retain and recruit new employees led them to understand that a policy change was required to deal with these gaps.

P2: "but we need to go through a phase in terms of working with DATA. We don't work with DATA almost at all. Our intention is to have systems that integrate BI and AI that can tell us "this employee, pay attention to him. He didn't get promoted; he did get promoted. He needed to be checked. He didn't learn, he did learn. He didn't get paid; he did get paid" and so forth. We have this information and data; we just need to know how to make much more use of it in an automatic way and not waiting for things to arrive. We need to be much more active and proactive. It is almost non-existent at the moment in the university in this regard."

P1: "... we come and say, "let's also look at the meaning", and we are currently in the development of what is called career management process, which we did not have. There wasn't such vision or goal. This is a goal for the coming work year that we started last year, and we are currently working on a career portal ... We also took on an external company to help with this process. This whole project is part of a strategic plan to build career management here, to redefine roles, and to create a hierarchical structure."

Others HR managers claimed that they realized they were required to address these issues within their annual work plans, both budgetary and operationally.

P3: “This is the first time in a work plan that I have an employee retention issue. We need to work on it during this year as part of our goals and procedure, and we need to learn it from others, how we can work and what we do better, and build an orderly procedure in the hope that next year we can start working with it.”

P1: “We came and said (to the management – A.H.) that we have a “super” strategic plan. We explained that we have two new difficulties today due to the corona virus. One difficulty is in recruitment and the other one is dropout. These are things that we have not faced in the past, which is why we came up with a new strategic plan called 21 22 23 (years – A.H.), that includes new collective agreements designed to enable us to both recruit and retain our employees. it also should provide an answer to the salary issue.”

Producing an overall strategic plan for the organization must require data collection regarding the phenomenon's scope or the effectiveness of the actions performed today. Some managers integrated several solutions to the current situation within this year's annual work plans. However, it is evident that none of them formulated a complete and broad strategy to provide a comprehensive solution to the problem, but it is about providing specific solutions that may alleviate the situation and give more tools to the human resources department to deal with it. Either way, all the universities participating in the study understood the need to address the problem of retaining and recruiting employees within their annual work plans. Others, as mentioned, admitted that they are still required to study the subject to understand which solutions can even be integrated into their annual work plans. Without this information, their ability to produce a strategic and practical work plan for the organization is questionable.

External Challenges:

The external challenges HRM faces are focused on two main issues: a) Difficulty recruiting new employees compared to the past. b) Difficulty in being able to give competitive salaries compared to the private sector.

a. Recruiting difficulties:

It is evident that all the universities reported that they experienced significant difficulty in recruiting employees, which they hardly experienced at all in the past, and it appeared in recent years.

P1: “One major difficulty we are experiencing is recruitment.”

P5: “My difficulty is mainly in recruiting at the entry-level positions, but also in more senior positions.”

P4: “...this is reflected in the difficulty of recruiting mainly in the worlds of IT people, of people with PHD, and then it takes me a very long time to recruit them.”

P3: “We have a lot of difficulty recruiting IT people, construction people, all these technology people are our bottleneck.”

P2: “Lately we are starting to feel more and more in trouble and therefore we are starting to act reactively in all kinds of activities to improve our situation. This is the first time that the university has encountered this situation, we are having trouble recruiting employees and also that employees explain to us that it is difficult for them to stay.”

P7: “There are difficulties mainly in the fields of engineering and computing and it is difficult to recruit them because of the competition with the private sector and we are constantly trying to produce creative solutions, but the difficulty exists in recruiting all positions. There is an "inner world" and there is an "outer world" and most jobs remain within the "inner world" (positions that are advertised and occupied only within the university - A.H.).”

As can be understood from the above, in recent years, the human resources departments of these institutions have experienced great difficulty recruiting employees, a relatively new phenomenon that they did not have to deal with in the past. Most of them blamed the difficulty in recruiting on their inability to handle the salaries customary in the private sector. The salary levels used in universities have not changed significantly over the past few years in most administrative positions, yet relatively speaking, there was no recruitment difficulty in the past. When asked why a change has made it difficult for them to recruit employees in recent years, about half attributed it to the Corona pandemic without explaining why they think so. The other half explained that in recent years there had been a significant increase in the salary scales used in the private sector, especially in high-tech professions. As P5 explained, they held a survey designed to produce a salary scale used in the private sector to try and adjust themselves as much as possible to this scale.

P5: “We take in a lot of industrial and management engineers specializing in information systems and we did a market survey to see how much employees earn elsewhere, and we built an outline so we could compete with that. We may not be able to compete with the big companies, but we were able to provide some solutions.”

Although salaries are sometimes lower than customary in the private sector, the universities tried to provide employment benefits to keep them attractive compared to the private sector. Thus, in most positions, there is a path to obtaining tenure after several years. In

addition, each employee is entitled to several vacations and sick days beyond what is customary in the private sector. Additional welfare activities, convenient working hours, and salary promotion options over time were usually sufficient to recruit quality employees. All these actions and others were designed not only to help them retain their employees but also to help them with recruiting new employees.

b. *Competitive Salary:*

All HR managers, without exception, stated that the salary component is critical to allow them to recruit and retain their employees. The topic of salary came up in every one of the interviews, and it was clear that the HR management felt it was one of the main difficulties they face when it comes to their ability to retain employees.

P4: “In general, the salary structure needs to be changed and made more differential, and a regulation that gives more freedom to the CEO or VP of Human Resources to make decisions... Today we are working on changing the salary structure, and the idea is to create a more differential salary mechanism together with the Histadrut and the Treasury.”

P5: “The problem (of retention – A.H.) is with the salary, but I also think in our location... I think it depends on both the salary and the length of the working day. We are not considered civil servants, so we do not have the benefits that civil servants have...”

P3: “But the departures I'm talking about with you are departures on the background of a much more attractive salary in the private sector. There is much better salary offers in the economy today compared to what the public sector gives. I know this is a problem everyone faces, and I hear it from other employers as well. Today it is a market for employees, and this market is so aggressive, and we are unfortunately very weak... We are limited by the salary

commissioner at the Treasury. Today there are buds of understanding that the situation cannot continue as it was until now.”

P2: “At the moment, the labor market demands exceed the supply in a way that seems quite significant to me; the salary levels for employment in universities in the administrative staff are not high. Mainly in the entry levels and in the first years.”

P1: “promoting the salary is the answer... We are in negotiations with the workers union, a new agreement with them should give us a solution with some sectors... The most significant tool is the change of the Collective agreement with the worker’s union that will give us the possibility to increase salary. Second, it will give us a chance for promotion according to responsibility and performance.”

The salary issue not only makes it difficult for the institutions to retain their employees, but it also does not allow them to compete with the private sector, and therefore they are facing a real difficulty in their ability to recruit new and quality employees.

P1: “One main difficulty we are facing is recruitment, and second is a dropout. These are things that we have not faced in the past, which is why we came up with a first strategic plan ... (it should help us to achieve – A.H.) new collective agreements designed to enable us to recruit and retain employees. It provides an answer to the salary issue.”

P2: “This is the first time that the university has encountered this situation, we are having trouble recruiting employees, and also that employees explain to us that we are not competitive enough.”

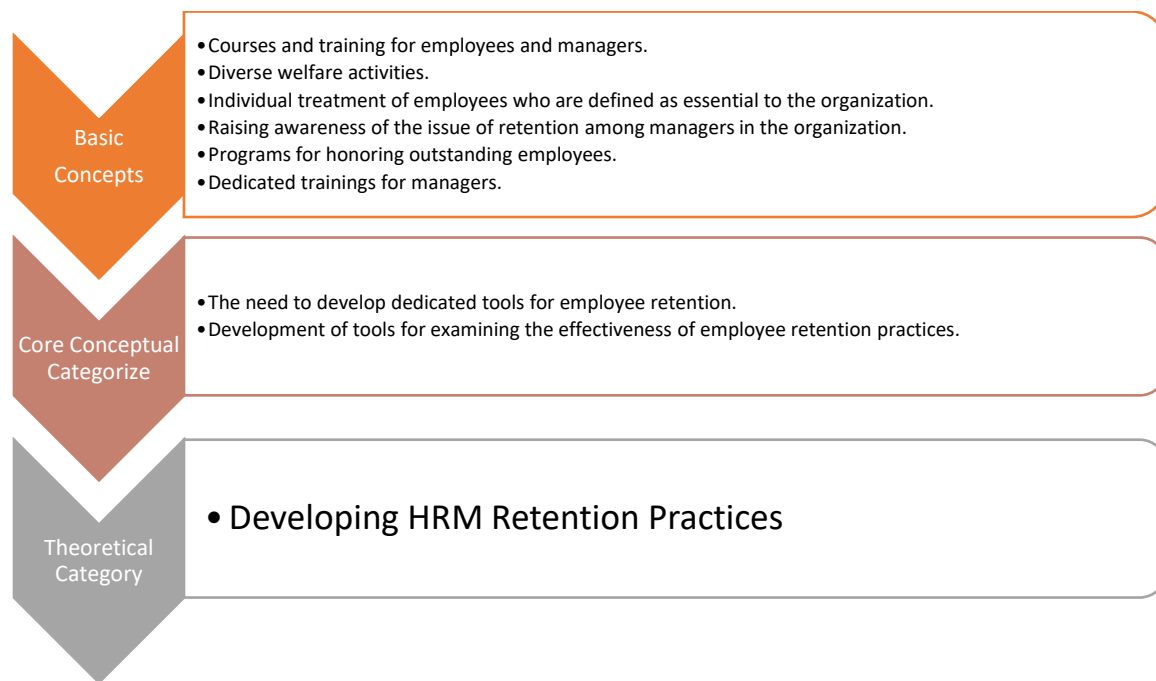
P3: “We have a lot of dialogue with the worker’s union, especially now that we have difficulty recruiting because of the wages the public sector pays. There is cooperation on the issue of personal contracts. We are trying to achieve differentiation in wages, and this is a very important thing. In the public sector, there is deliberately no differentiation of wages, and this is a very significant factor in the departure of good employees.”

P4: “...because I cannot compete with the private sector. There are waves and periods (in terms of staff recruitment – A.H.). But if we take the corona period, for example, and employees were looking for job security, we had a flood of resumes in the fields of computing. Today... we are having difficulty recruiting mainly in the fields of computing. We wanted to hire some positions...but some candidates wanted a salary like that of the university CEO or close to it, these are not salaries I can even pay.”

P5: “... we are considering bringing forward a change to the wage agreement because we understand that there is a problem here compared to the private sector, and this is also one of the reasons we have difficulty in recruiting.”

The difficulty in recruiting new employees is due to the inability to compete with the private sector regarding salary. The limitations on the compensation are usually not due to the failure of the universities to pay but primarily due to binding labor agreements and regulations of the salary commissioner in the Treasury, which do not allow them a free hand when determining the salary rates given to employees. The salary limit is also a limitation regarding the ability to recruit quality employees in high demand in the job market.

4.3.4 Developing HRM retention practices



All the universities that participated in the study presented a wide range of practices they employ concerning their employees and managers. Although these practices span a variety of activities, it is evident that none of them were initially planned and intended originally to implement a policy of employee retention. A significant part of the activities has occurred over the past years, and they undergo adjustment or special treatment to address employee retention casually. In principle, these practices focus on several principal areas: a) general and professional training for both employees and managers. b) Organizational and individual welfare activities. c) Actions designated to create organizational engagement d) Individual accompaniment and personal and individual counseling for both employees and managers.

As mentioned, most of the activities defined by the human resources managers as practices for retaining employees in the organization are not intended initially for retention. These

are activities carried out routinely in the organization, and in recent years an attempt has been made to increase or adjust them. The corporate training programs are designed to provide an organizational solution to enrich and advance the professional knowledge of the employees and managers.

P3: “Even in the past we did all kinds of activities, but we didn't give them the title of "employee retention". As an HR professional, you know that employee satisfaction will keep them on the job... So, we do executive development courses, although we don't do it specifically as retention practices, that is part of the goals indirectly. The second issue that keeps employees in the organization is employee development. Employees want to feel that they are developing, so training programs are built for them...but as I have said, employee retention is not the main reason, the main reason is my desire to develop employees and make them better in their job.”

This motive was repeated in one way or another in all the universities. They do have extensive corporate training programs for employees, but their primary purpose was never to implement a direct employee retention policy. However, as P3 explained, the main goal of the corporate training programs is to create employees who are satisfied with their work, based on the assumption that the happier they are, the less they will strive to leave their workplace.

P5: “We hold many activities to support employees. We have an annual training program that is open to all our employees. The program includes both professional contents, such as Excel and soft skills, such as interpersonal communication, personal skills and so on. These courses are open to everyone, including even our cleaning staff. This activity is at the expense of working hours and at with no cost to the employee. Beyond that, an employee who needs some kind of professional training, we are very generous with this, and

we send employees, on the recommendation of a manager of course, to specialize in the field they need.”

In this case, the corporate training program was also presented as a dedicated tool for employee retention, even though nothing specific in its content might influence the potential employee's desire to drop out of the organization. The fact that an employee can enrich his knowledge through the organizational training program is, for human resource managers, an effective tool for employee retention. However, none of the universities check whether there is a direct or indirect relationship between the corporate training program they implement and the fact that the employee stays at the organization or even they are satisfied within the organization.

The various welfare activities carried out in the organization throughout the year were also designed to create a supportive work environment for the employees, aiming to keep them satisfied. These activities may be aimed at all employees or assist single employees.

P2: “There is support in case of need, let's say for welfare needs, for those who have financial difficulties, we have all kinds of assistance. We are implementing activities that strengthen the employees during the working day, from half an hour of Zumba class to a voucher for coffee and pastries on the day back from vacation and before the holidays ... in the last holiday, the CEO and I went through all the offices and handed out a small gift to the employees personally for that purpose. That's the kind of thing we do. It's not a ‘happy hour’ yet, but we're close.”

P1: “For example, I'm going in this February, it's still forbidden to publish, to issue a "call" for employees to apply to study a master's degree for our employees of the XXXXX (name of the university – A.H.), most of the funding

will come from us. It is a tool for engagement and retention. All kinds of training and welfare programs that we plan to do this year are retention oriented. For example, this year we will cancel the main employee event in the current format and create several events in one place. You know, to take such a budget and to spread it into several activities, will help to even more to improve engagement in my opinion. We are talking about our branding as well as a tool, we work with an external consultant, it is not enough.”

Some of the activities designed to create organizational engagement also seek to connect the "second circle" of the employee, that is, through his family. The connection of the employee and his family to the organization is intended to create organizational engagement and a supportive work environment.

P5: “Also, ... we held a "Parents' Day" where we invited the parents of the employees out of a desire to see the background of the employee and to connect the parents to what their children are doing at the university. We held a very impressive event. Employees who have very elderly parents also came and we prepared transportation for them, and each employee accompanied them. It was a very successful activity, and it really connected both the employees and their families, and it raised the level of pride of the families in our institution, and from our point of view it created engagement between the employees and the organization.”

Other welfare activities are designed to help employees in financial or personal distress. Activities of this type are carried out by all universities to one degree or another and are intended to create an infrastructure of organizational well-being. Here too, the goal is twofold, on the one hand, to allow the employees to work in a relaxed manner and without "disruptions" that could affect their work productivity, and on the other hand, to increase the level of job satisfaction.

P5: “For example, we offer assistance of an organizational consultant to managers, so they could give special treatment when one of his employees has a financial problem, and then we find creative solutions to try and raise their salary a little. We also offered personal help, we have a social worker, and she helps and gives support with personal and family problems.”

One of the welfare channels they use is carried out through the employees' direct managers. On the one hand, this empowers the direct managers and gives them tools to retain their employees; on the other hand; they succeed in helping the employees individually and personally. The attempt to empower the direct managers is expressed in additional ways by providing management tools that will allow them to retain their employees effectively.

P2: “What we are doing is that we are increasing activities to strengthen organizational engagement; we have been paying a lot of attention lately to activities of all kinds. We increase opportunities for managers and units to improve the conditions of their employees at the unit level. Like going on to an attractive course, like approving some kind of unusual permission to work from home in some cases, encouraging missions to go abroad.”

P4: “I can say that this year we did a survey that showed a certain decrease (in turnover – A.H.) but not in all units. What we do is reflect the numbers to the managers. We sit with them and try to build some kind of development plan. Sometimes the dissatisfaction (of their employees – A.H) comes from overload and lack of standards and I have almost no tools to deal with it. We are trying to create a dialogue with us - human resources and with the managers, to create tools for a plan that, let's say, gives a little more attention and personal treatment to the employees.”

In addition to the tools granted to managers, as explained above, about eighty percent of the universities explained that they also support their managers and empower them through scholarships and designated training.

P1: “As far as the managers are concerned, we give them tools through retention workshops and work sessions and meetings.”

P3: “We give our employees a lot of professional training to develop them on a professional level because, in my opinion, this is the number one factor in employee satisfaction. The second thing is tools like soft skills for managers because, by proper management, I have a more satisfied employee and an employee who will stay in the system for a long.”

P6: “...the second element is the training of managers, and the training of managers is partly to teach them to deal with the direct management of employees and to retain them. I think that within personal management, I would add to you as the editor of this study that the emotional dimension is important. I mean, in the past, it was more of a task mentoring process, and today it's not just telling the employee what to do, setting goals for him, it's actually connecting to his emotional circle.”

The empowerment of the various levels of management in the universities is intended to support the efforts of the organization and its human resources department to retain the employees in the organization. There is a clear understanding that the human resources department cannot be everywhere in the organization and to provide a solution to each employee's difficulty. Employee retention becomes a de facto task for the direct management levels of the employees. The better tools they have to deal with employee

retention, the more successful and effective they will be in their task, although this mission was not entrusted to them in the first place.

CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

Within the Grounded theory, the theory should emerge from the data themselves. The preliminary research questions were:

1. What are HRM professionals' beliefs, perceptions, and attitudes about employee turnover and retention in their organizations?
2. What practices are HRM professionals implementing to reduce turnover and achieve employee retention?
3. According to HRM professionals, what retention practices and strategies are the most effective?
4. What are the main challenges for implementing retention practices?

The research aimed to study employee retention practices and perceptions in research universities in Israel. One of the initial main issues that came up as part of the research was the issue of job tenure. In Israel, job tenure is given to faculty members employed at the university and some of the administrative staff employed at the universities. Although the tenure track is not absolute and is not granted to all employees working at those universities, it was supposed to be a significant factor in employee retention. Therefore, the obvious question is why there is a need for employee retention processes when the employees themselves are on the path to tenure at the university. Despite this mechanism, all the universities that participated in this study testified that they deal with employee retention to one degree or another.

However, the phenomenon of employee turnover was marginal over the past years, and therefore the universities were not required to develop complex employee retention processes and settled with enrichment or welfare activities. In recent years, and even more so since the Corona pandemic, there has been a significant increase in administrative staff employees leaving the university in favor of other jobs offered to them in the private sector. Although we are talking about low turnover percentages, in practice, this represents an increase of tens of percent compared to previous years, when the rates aspired to zero. Added to this problem is another significant problem of difficulty in recruiting new employees to the institutions.

Nevertheless, as mentioned, new challenges have appeared in recent times, which may affect the ability of those universities to function. On the one hand, a recent phenomenon of employee turnover began to arise; on the other hand, institutions are experiencing significant difficulties recruiting new employees. These two phenomena, which began to evolve at the same time, brought the universities to the recognition that they were facing a major problem they had not had to deal with in the past. Some made immediate adjustments to some of their work plans to provide solutions to these problems, and others are still working on work plans that should deal with such challenges soon.

The results of this study showed four theoretical categories that emerged from the data. These categories include a) Identification of retention as an organizational problem. b) HRM lack of retention strategy. c) HRM challenges. d) Developing HRM retention practices. As will be discussed, these categories that emerged from the research indicate a failure in managing the issue of employee retention, starting with a lack of complete identification of the problem of employee retention in the organization, continuing with the lack of an overall strategy and ending with employee retention practices and the many challenges faced by human resources departments.

5.2 Identification of Retention as an Organizational Problem

The first dominant theme that emerged from the findings is that HRM is facing a threefold problem: a) There is a lack of data regarding employee turnover in the institutions; b) There is not a significant investigation regarding the circumstances of the employees turnover; c) While the institutions have specific knowledge and data regarding their “employee’s organizational lifecycle”, they do not have either the tools or the ability to translate this data into concrete information or an action plan.

When the human resources department does not collect data on employee turnover in its organization, or the data collection is partial and inaccurate, it has difficulty understanding the extent of the problem with which it is dealing. This fact is reflected in the ambivalence the HR managers presented during the interviews. Some claimed that they did not have a real problem of employee turnover in the organization, but after a little investigation, it became clear that they had such a problem, and they even began to deal with it. That is, there is a phenomenon of denial of the problem and, at the same time, awareness of its existence in the organization. It is possible that the statements denying the problem were said as a defensive answer, namely, not to present the organization negatively. As the conversation developed, these objections weakened, and thus it was possible to understand that the problem exists to a certain extent and that they are beginning to deal with it. The lack of data on processes of employee turnover makes it difficult for human resources managers to understand the dimensions of the phenomenon (none of the participants knew how to specify the exact turnover percentage). Therefore they also have difficulty mobilizing the resources required to deal with it. When you do not understand what you are "fighting" against, you also do not know how to "defend yourself".

Moreover, even in institutions with some data-monitoring process, there is no regulated process for analyzing the reasons for leaving the organization. Everyone understands, not always based on facts, that the reason is either a low salary compared to the private sector or difficulties with the employee's direct manager. However, as mentioned, there is no routine process for investigating the employees who wish to end their work; therefore, there is no specific process to retain them in the organization. The answer that repeated itself was that once the employee has already decided to leave and has given a letter of advance notice of resignation, from that moment on, nothing can be done to change his mind, except on the issue of the salary increase. In academic institutions dedicated to research, there is no research or effective data collection regarding why employees leave. There are no follow-up and control processes, no analysis of the operations of handling employees who wish to terminate their employment, and no method of learning lessons. All the work plans and actions carried out by those HR managers are based on feelings, personal insights or assumptions that have not been tested.

To summarize the issue, there is a failure among human resource managers in two main ways. The first is the inability to recognize the scope and dimensions of the problem they are facing in the context of employee turnover. The second is their inability to monitor the reasons accurately and methodically for the turnover. A parable is like a case when a person is dealing with headaches but prefers to take a pain reliever pill instead of treating the cause of that pain. Those HR managers make great efforts to eradicate or reduce employee turnover. However, their actions and practices on employee retention are partially or entirely based on feeling instead than data. Data collection is necessary to enable the process of processing information and finding ways to deal with it. As long as they do not have the complete organizational picture regarding the occupational status of their employees, they have no real possibility of building a strategic plan that can effectively respond to those problems.

5.3 HRM lack of retention strategy

The second dominant theme that emerged is that HRM lacks a retention strategy. First, they do not have a department or a dedicated employee who is supposed to monitor the problem and examine it. The data reaching the human resources departments are based on the following methods. Either the employee himself already submits a letter of advance notice of resignation, or the employee's direct supervisor warns that the employee wishes to end his job. The human resources department does not have a system that may monitor employees at risk of leaving the organization, and only twenty percent of the organizations testified that they conduct satisfaction surveys, but not every year. One of the main problems that come up again is the lack of accurate information about the organizational situation and the lack of tools of the human resources department to monitor the status.

The phenomenon of employee turnover in the organization is relatively new, and because HR managers have no fundamental tools to monitor the extent of the problem, they have difficulty creating strategies to deal with it. In one way or another, all of them explained that they maintain a full range of practices to retain employees. Some of these practices have been in place throughout the years as part of the organizational strategy to keep employees' well-being. In a limited number of institutions, new practices have been added to retain employees indirectly. However, none of the organizations has yet prepared a systematic strategic plan to deal with the problem.

About fifty percent of the institutions claimed they are working on a strategic plan and intend to submit it next year for their manager's approval. On the one hand, they define a problem, but on the other hand, they have not yet come to the understanding that it is necessary to formulate a strategic plan at the organizational level to deal with it. Providing a one-off solution through workshops, annual training programs, etc. is not a strategic plan that mobilizes all the organization's resources to face the challenge.

Most of the actions taken by institutions today to deal with the issue of employee retention are reactive and not proactive. The human resources managers admitted that since they do not have a course of action to deal with or a strategic plan, most of their activity to retain employees is reactive. If there is a specific problem with one of the employees, they invite him for a personal conversation and try to solve the problem if possible. However, they do not know how to identify and deal with employees or departments in advance when the problem is more acute unless one of the direct managers addresses them. The problem that arises from the lack of data again makes it difficult for them to deal with it because if there is no information, there is no ability to identify the problem, and one cannot actively offer solutions. In addition, about twenty percent of the human resources managers claimed that the employees' direct managers bear the ultimate responsibility for retaining their employees. "Supervisory relationships are unique levers that deeply impact employee's stay/leave decisions. Some employees stay for supervisors, some leave because of them, and some just avoid them." (Finnegan, 2010, p. 13). This apparent recognition could have been of supreme significance for human resource managers if they knew how to channel it to their needs. If the employees' direct managers are the main factor in retaining the employees and not the human resources in the organization, then they must be utilized to deal with the problem. First, an action mechanism must be created to allow them to transmit real-time information about the difficulty of retaining employees to the human resources departments. Second, they must be given tools to deal with the phenomenon of turnover and retention to respond to it. Without dedicated tools, one cannot expect an effective result. Strategic issues "serve as vehicles for translating individuals' concerns into organizational action. By framing an individual's issue as an organizational strategic issue, individual increase the chances that their personal agendas will become operational" (Dutton, J.E, & Ducan, R.B., 1987). In other words, for the problem of employee retention in the organization to receive the proper consideration from the management of the university, it must be defined as a strategic problem. Its definition as a strategic problem

must be expressed through the human resources department entrusted with employee retention in the organization. As long as they do not define the problem in this way and flood it to their management, their ability to get resources and organizational attention to deal with the situation is deficient.

5.4 HRM challenges

The third dominant theme that arose was HRM challenges. The challenges that HR managers face can be classified into internal and external challenges. As far as the internal challenges are concerned, two main ones can be identified. The first deals with the worker's union and the job tenure mechanism. The second is the human resources policy.

There is a local worker's union in all the institutions participating in the study. The local workers union operates and is represented under the national worker's organization - the Histadrut. Although the organizational agreements between the Histadrut and the institutions differ from organization to organization, they still have common elements. The local workers union operates, among other things, to protect the workers from the management. Most employees, except for one institution, have a mechanism of job tenure that the workers union protects and tries to prevent changes that would undermine the tenure mechanism. Ostensibly, tenure creates a mechanism to retain employees, but from the point of view of human resources managers, it makes their tasks very difficult. For them, employees who are good at their jobs do not attach significant importance to the tenure mechanism, and if they receive an attractive offer from another workplace, they will not hesitate to consider it.

On the other hand, it prevents them as a human resource from terminating the employment of inefficient employees and thus does not allow them to recruit quality employees. Beyond that, once the institution is forced to retain an unproductive employee, it is sometimes required to recruit another employee to perform the same job. In this way, operating costs increase significantly without being able to become more efficient. Although about forty percent of the human resources managers testified that in recent years the worker's union has shown a little more flexibility and is willing to discuss processes for terminating the employment of inefficient employees, these are slow processes that cannot deal effectively with the changes in the employment market.

The other internal challenge that the universities face is the human resources policy, with an emphasis on the salary policy. Most institutions are financially subordinate to the salary commissioner in the Ministry of Finance, and therefore to a certain extent, all the salary restrictions that exist for the public sector apply to them. The fact that the institutions cannot be competitive with the private sector in terms of salary is considered the main reason for their inability to retain their employees and recruit new quality ones. Admittedly, some of them manage to manipulate and find creative one-off solutions to provide a higher salary, but these are one-off solutions and are not part of an overall corporate policy. In the last two years, about half of the organizations have succeeded in introducing new wage agreements for some sectors, in the field of engineers and IT workers, thus improving their ability to be competitive in terms of salary. However, these are the initial buds of processes that have not yet matured for all sectors. However, the internal challenges faced by HR departments are not only about tenure or the ability to provide competitive wages. It is evident that since they do not have a systematic strategic plan, they do not have a work plan to deal with employee retention processes. The activities they carry out in order to retain employees are mainly concentrated in the field of employee training and personal and organizational welfare activities. However, there are a series of activities that help

retain employees in the organization, such as 1) organizational branding - the ability of the organization to market what it has to offer as an organization to potential and existing employees; 2) organizational attractiveness - for example branding the organization as a fun place to work; 3) Involvement of talents - that is, creating activities for an emotional or rational connection between the individual and the organization (Zhang, 2017). These are a small part of the range of possibilities and activities that human resources departments can operate right now, even before a broad strategic plan has been formulated to deal with employee attrition. However, the vast majority of them, about ninety percent, define the problem of employee attrition as being due to low wages, and therefore they direct most of their attempts to deal with the issue of wages. Their inability to address the problem of employee retention through a series of organizational strategies and practices further limits their ability to respond effectively to the situation.

Three main challenges faced by the institutions can be identified in terms of the external challenges faced by the institutions. The first was the national worker's organization - the Histadrut and the Commissioner of Wages at the Treasury. The second is their ability to cope with employment conditions and wages in the private sector. The third is the ability to be attractive compared to the private sector, emphasizing the hi-tech field in recruiting new personnel to the institutions.

As for the first challenge, it is evident that all the institutions are not satisfied with the limitations imposed on them by the commissioner of wages in the Treasury and the Histadrut. All HR managers testified that these limitations do not correspond to the spirit of the times we live in, and this conduct harms the occupational flexibility required to meet the challenges of the Israeli academy. Some claimed that considering the corona pandemic and the changes in the employment market in recent years, a golden opportunity was created to change and reach new collective labor agreements that could respond to the new

challenges. According to them, this is a window of opportunity for the next year or two, and if the Ministry of Finance and the Histadrut did not know how to take advantage of this window of opportunity, there would be no real change in the situation, and the occupational structure of the higher education institutions in Israel. These changes will help them deal with the second major challenge - the terms of employment vis-à-vis the private sector.

The situation today does not allow them to change the structure and mechanism of their wages and terms of employment due to binding arrangements. A change in the arrangements and restrictions vis-à-vis the commissioner of wages in the Treasury and the Histadrut will allow them to update their terms of employment and thus enable them to have better ability vis-à-vis the private sector in recruiting employees. These limitations place them in front of the third challenge: their ability to deal with the high-tech industry. They are the number one factor that makes it difficult for them to recruit employees, especially in IT and engineers. The high-tech sector offers the highest employment conditions and wages, and academic institutions find it difficult to cope with them. However, this situation and the understanding of its complexity both by the human resources managers and by the worker's unions in those organizations resulted in almost eighty percent of them being able to create differentiation in terms of salary for professions in computing and high-tech. In this way, they recruit computer engineers, for example, within the framework of personal employment contracts and not under the salary scales used in the public sector. Thus, they manage to a certain extent to deal with the challenges of recruiting employees, although the challenges facing the competition in the private sector have not yet been reduced to a level that will completely solve the problem.

In conclusion, HR managers must deal with internal and external organizational difficulties. Unlike the private sector, which has broad freedom of action to manage its

hiring and job retention policies, the universities are limited by internal and external regulations. They are forced to develop creative methods to recruit employees and will be pushed even more to develop these methods to retain them.

5.5 Developing HRM retention practices.

The last theme from the data is the development of retention practices. One of the most striking things that emerged from the interviews is that almost none of the universities implemented a dedicated program to deal with the issue of employee retention. Most of their programs focus on the organizational and personal levels. Except for a few examples, all continued to maintain their usual plans and, if necessary, expanded them.

All universities have an annual training program at the organizational level that combines professional content and soft skills. Every employee can register for the yearly training program, usually on the recommendation of the direct manager, and enrich his personal or professional knowledge. All the interviewees saw this activity as a tool for retaining employees; therefore, they are also gradually working on perfecting and expanding it. However, as mentioned earlier, none of them examines the effectiveness of these programs in terms of employee retention. They check the lecturers' effectiveness in those courses, their relevance, and the level of interest in the course, but not its effects over time. In other cases, they allow the employees, again on the direct manager's recommendation, to go to more complex professional training or academic studies with specific funding from the university. However, even in this case, they do not test the effectiveness of this tool as a tool for employee retention. Here, too, the starting point is that the more satisfied the employee is with the level of the organization's investment in him, the less he will want to leave the organization. None of the human resources managers examined whether the same employee who received specific professional training

continued to work there for some period, although there is a straightforward way to review it. As can be seen, the problem of the organization's inability to check the effectiveness of its activities to retain employees arises again. Time, thought, and financial resources are invested in these activities. However, the control processes are mainly about checking the employee's satisfaction with the course or the training program itself and not checking its effectiveness in the context of employee retention. All universities accurately record their employees' participation in these training programs; however, none check whether they are effective in employee retention. This is available information that exists in the systems of the human resources departments; however, this information is not used at all to check the effectiveness of employee retention.

In addition, the organizations hold a series of activities designed to generate organizational engagement. Here we are talking about organizational-level activities designed to connect the employees and the organization and associate them with each other to create engagement. Among the activities mentioned is an annual employee event that usually includes a ceremony to recognize outstanding employees. Joint actions to mark holidays or significant events during the year. Engagement activities of employees with their children and even employees with their parents. A combination of summer camps for children of workers during the annual school vacation. All these activities are designed to increase the employees' satisfaction level and deepen the level of engagement between them and the organization.

Other activities the institutions consider as a tool for employee retention are welfare activities on a personal level with employees. In this case, the institutions also operate various welfare services either by designated officials in the organization or external organizational parties. The goal in this context is to allow the employee to perform his role in the best conceivable way, even during difficult personal periods that may make it difficult for the individual's daily functioning, emphasizing his functioning at work. The

more the employee is not preoccupied with his problems, the better he will be able to function at work.

HRM stated that the targeted activity for managers in the organization is a necessary tool to assist in employee retention processes. But they also explained that they do not have a dedicated training program for managers. As part of the enrichment programs for managers in the organization, thirty percent of the human resources managers claimed that they also incorporate content to deal with employee turnover. However, they did not direct a dedicated training program on the subject. About eighty percent of the human resources managers indicated that they provide specific tools to the middle and direct managers to deal with employee retention. Among the accepted tools for employee retention is the personal manager's ability to reward employees for their exceptional effort. Some institutions allow direct managers to slightly improve the salary conditions of their employees, although to a limited extent. One of the new tools that have developed since the corona pandemic is the issue of working from home. During the corona pandemic, these institutions moved to operate partially or entirely from home. After the pandemic ended, there was a demand among employees to continue to preserve at least part of their working time from home. This demand intensified because a significant portion of the private sector, especially among high-tech companies, continued to allow employees to work from home. Thus, about seventy percent of the institutions decided to do a certain degree of work from home when the direct manager can use this tool to reward his employees. Although there are already preliminary studies on the effectiveness of working from home both in increasing productivity and reducing employee attrition (Bloom, N., Liang, J., Roberts, J. & Ying, J.Z., 2015) (Barrero, M.J., Bloom, N., & Davis, J.S., 2021), universities are not in a hurry to adopt this tool. And to a certain extent, this fear is justified. If they cannot test the effectiveness of their actions within the framework of work within the university, it is evident that they will have even more difficulty in testing the effectiveness of working from

home. In this context, too, the universities are adopting the practice of working from home as a constraint imposed on them since the time of the Corona pandemic. That is, even in this case, they operate a policy of reaction instead of a proactive approach that will leverage this tool vis-a-vis the private sector.

In conclusion, most institutions continue their usual practices for retaining employees. They made a few adjustments but did not fundamentally change anything. Moreover, the current and new activities they carry out to maintain employees are not being measured for effectiveness at all. None of the HR managers knew precisely which of the tools he was using was the most effective in terms of his ability to retain employees and which of the tools was not effective in this regard. The general feeling is that HR managers realize they are required to deal with a new problem they have not faced before. However, since they are not sufficiently aware of the depth and scope of the phenomenon, they have not yet learned how to formulate a comprehensive plan to deal with it. They use the same tools and practices routinely and do not make the necessary adjustments to deal with the phenomenon of employee turnover at a sufficient rate.

CHAPTER VI: SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Summary

This research study explored human resource management strategies, perceptions, and practices of employee retention in Israeli research universities. As of today, as far as is known, no in-depth research has been done on the phenomenon of employee retention among research universities in Israel. Therefore, there is limited knowledge regarding the processes, concepts, activities, and practices of HR departments in the universities related to employee retention. This study attempts for the first time to examine HRM's processes, challenges, and policies regarding their ability to retain employees in the universities where they operate. This research also tries to close the gap regarding the information and data in the context of employee retention practices in universities in Israel. This chapter will examine the effects and implications of this study as well as the recommendations for further research. As emerged from the participants in this study, it is evident that the issue of employee retention is only a small part of a much broader problem of their competitiveness vis-à-vis the private sector. Employee retention processes begin in the first stages of hiring the employee and are supposed to continue throughout his entire working life in the organization. This challenge is a critical task in the ability of HRM to make the organization competitive in other universities and the public and private sectors.

The results of this study showed significant themes that emerged through the data. The first is the identification of retention as an organizational problem. The second is lacking retention strategy by the HRM. The third is the HRM challenges. The fourth is the development of retention practices. Additionally, several cores' conceptual categories were identified and discussed. All these themes indicate a problem with employee retention in

universities. However, this problem is only a part of a more complex situation concerning the ability of those universities to be competitive in other sectors when it comes to recruiting and retaining employees.

Four main hypotheses were raised in this study:

H1: The HRM in the universities does not have a systematic strategic plan that deals with employee retention. They act reactively rather than proactively.

As can be seen from the findings in the study, this hypothesis was confirmed entirely. None of the universities that participated in the study had a structured strategy to deal with the problem of employee retention. Part of this is because this is a relatively new phenomenon that has begun to gain momentum in recent years, and part is due to an inability to understand that the employment market has changed, and that job tenure is no longer an exclusive tool for retaining employees.

H2: Since there is no systematic strategic plan for employee retention, HRM implements practices without a preliminary plan or checking applicability or success.

As can be seen from the findings in the study, this hypothesis was confirmed entirely. None of the universities that participated in the study performed an effectiveness test for actions taken to retain employees. Most of the actions are aimed at generating satisfaction from the workplace through measures such as training and workshops, welfare activities, and the like. However, the success of these operations has never been examined in terms of employee retention.

H3: The universities do not set quantitative goals for employee turnover; therefore, they cannot test compliance with success or failure goals.

As can be seen from the research findings, none of the universities that participated in the study set quantitative and measurable goals for the issue of employee turnover. In the absence of goals of this type, HR managers cannot examine whether their actions to retain employees have achieved their goals.

H4: HRM does not have a dedicated program for treating the various populations under their responsibility, i.e., administrative or technical personnel.

As can be seen from the research findings, about half of the universities that participated in the research concluded that they are required to retain employees with different occupational characteristics from each other. For example, they were able to create different avenues of employment that are not within the framework of the collective agreements but employment through a personal contract. In this way, they manage to retain better populations in high demand in the employment market, such as engineers, IT professionals, etc.

6.2 Implications

The study brought up a series of difficulties and challenges that the universities face regarding their ability to retain administrative employees. Addressing these challenges must motivate the universities to act in three significant channels: a) defining HRM as a strategic leader of employee turnover and retention. b) Employee retention and continuous as a holistic approach. c) using universities' distinctive values to achieve employee retention.

a. Defining HRM as a strategic leader of employee turnover and retention.

One of the unique concepts that emerged from the study indirectly is that the HRM in those organizations is not necessarily considered a strategic partner. Truss and Gratton noted, "We should perhaps regard SHRM as an overarching concept that links the management

and development of people within the organization to the business as a whole and its environment, while HRM could be viewed as an organizing activity that takes place under this umbrella.” (Truss, C., and Gratton, L., 1994). As it emerged from the data, none of the organizations at this stage has a broad and comprehensive strategic concept related to employee turnover. “Strategic management deals with both ends and means. As an end, it describes a vision of what something will look like in the future.” (Armstrong, Michael & Taylor, Stephen, 2014, p. 26). As can be concluded from the findings, the HRM is not at the stage of designing its strategic vision regarding employee turnover. They have not yet defined the situation as a strategic problem, some have not presented the problem and its complexity to the university management, and some have not yet had time to formulate an overall strategic view of the problem. If the HRM is not defined as a leading strategic actor entrusted with solving the university's employee turnover problem, it will have difficulty providing an adequate response at the strategic level. As it turned out, they would focus on the means rather than the ends. None of the HRM in the institutions that participated in this study had a vision of how they would like to see the future regarding employee turnover. Almost all of them found it difficult to name a desirable and agreed-upon target for employee turnover, not because they do not know their organization but because they have not yet defined the problem as a strategic one. That is why all their references to dealing with employee turnover and retention focus on HRM practices. Instead of treating the problem from the root, identifying its sources, and preparing an action plan and goals required for the solution, they work to provide available, quick, and short-term solutions. Because there is no strategic plan for handling employee turnover, the solutions and practices used to address this problem are also not measured in terms of effectiveness.

The strategic role of HR should enhance the organization's performance by redesigning the organization and work processes. SHRM should link HRM strategic goals

and objectives to improve business performance and flexibility (Bahuguna, 2012, p. 90).

The strategic view of the HRM could be explained as shown in *figure 3*:

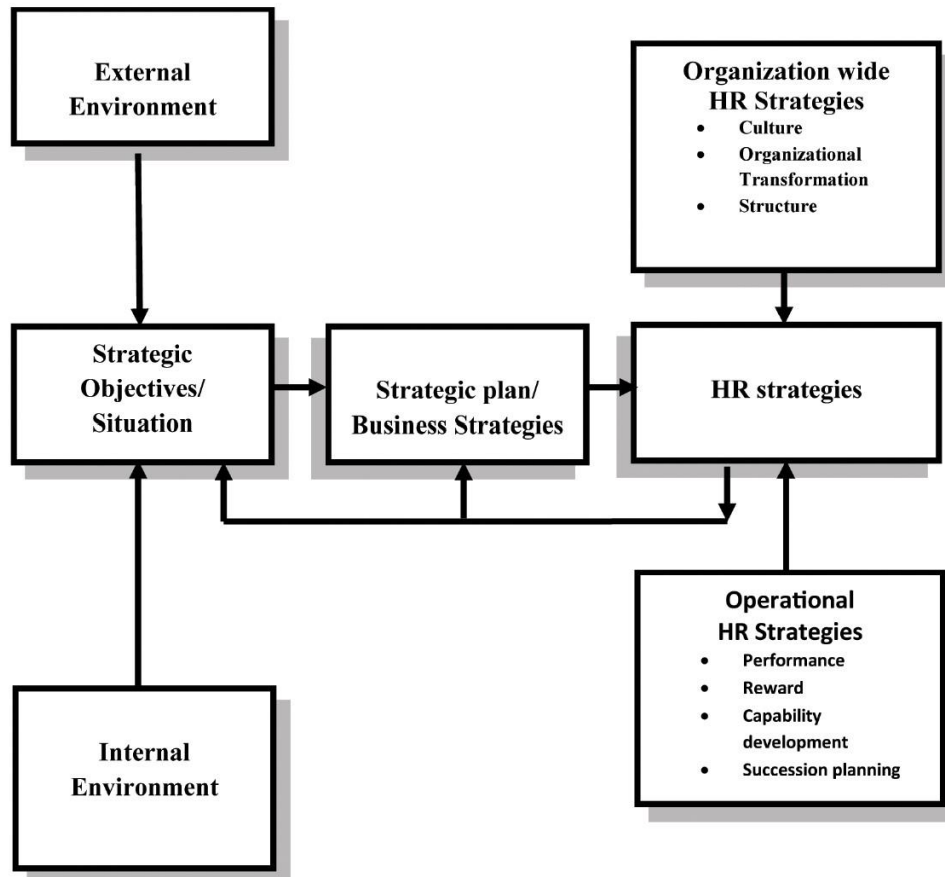


Figure 3. The strategic view of HRM (Bahuguna, 2012, p. 91)

As shown above, HR strategies could be obtained through a continuous process influenced by both the external and the internal environment and should produce a strategic plan that will affect the HR strategy. This study's results have indicated that SHRM is not actively applied in those universities concerning employee turnover and retention. The place of HRM has not been definitively defined as a strategic partner in universities, and as a result,

the issue of employee retention is not fully perceived as a strategic problem. The recognition of the HRM as a leading strategic factor in employee retention in the organization is necessary for their ability to retain employees.

b. Employee retention as a continuous and holistic approach.

One of the main problems that emerged from the data was the ability of the universities not only to retain their employees but also to recruit them. All the universities testified to one degree or another about the difficulties they experience in recruiting employees. Sometimes it is general difficulty to recruit employees. However, the problem is reflected mainly in recruiting sought-after or unique professionals in the labor market, such as IT professionals, economics and finance professionals, and laboratory managers. Although the difficulty in recruiting employees is common to all universities, and all of them operate a series of tools and activities designed to deal with these problems in a specific way, none works inclusively and holistically to cope with the situation.

Competitive employers must consider the candidates' points of view in the hiring process. It is necessary to focus on the organization's image and branding to remain in the candidates' minds (Eckhardt, A., Weitzel, T., Koenig, W. and Buschbacher, J., 2007). To this end, employers must redesign their recruitment processes and the entire human resources department in the organization. "Attracting, recruiting, retaining, and developing employees are no longer separate tasks for departments with different managers. They must be combined in one focused process, also known as "talent management" (Eckhardt, A., Laumer, S., and Maier, C., 2012, p. 441). As emerged from the research, the universities admitted that they face a multi-systemic difficulty, both in their ability to recruit employees and in their ability to retain some of these employees. However, strangely enough, they do not have one dominant factor in the human resources department who will coordinate the whole issue and give it a holistic and comprehensive answer. The ability to deal with a multi-challenging problem should come through holistically combining efforts to understand all the aspects of the problem on the one hand and, on the other hand, to provide it with workable solutions. An employee retention program needs to be considered from

the first stages of contact with the job candidate, i.e., from the recruitment stage. As discussed in chapter 2.3.1.4, an organization works most effectively when all its parts work in harmony. The more the organization can locate and recruit “fit” employees, the better its ability to retain them. The Attraction-Selection-Attrition (ATA) model, developed by Schneider (Schneider B. , 1983), suggests that an organization should recruit candidates whose goals are similar to the organization (Kristof, 1996), and, therefore, achieve a better Job-Fit. A high level of job fit contributes to job satisfaction and organizational commitment, resulting in increasing intention to stay in the organization (Allen D. G., 2006). A high level of person-organization fit help the employees to perform helpful behavior for the organization (Kristof-Brown, A. L., Zimmerman, R. D., and Johnson E. C., 2005). The universities experience an even more complex problem because sometimes there is great difficulty in treating them as one general organization. They bring together many faculties and units in their content, often with great differences between them (Lindholm, 2003). Therefore, the university finds it difficult to create a match between a potential candidate and the university because it is required to match the position not only to the university itself but sometimes even to the faculty or department where the employee is needed. Universities and faculty need to deal with a wide range of stakeholders, including students, alums, coworkers, and the scientific community (Park, 2018). Agarwal and Ferratt (Agarwal, R. and Ferratt, T. W., 2000) suggested that managers should understand the career motivation of their employees so that they could build their retention measures around those motives. The career motives are to be divided into three subcategories. The first is the preferred length of employment, the second is the current career stage of the employee, and the last is the career anchors in general. One strategy could be to recruit only candidates whose career motives fit in with the organization's needs (ibid). This approach corresponds with the attempt to create a “fit” between the employee and the organization. The higher the fit between the candidates and the organization in the initial stages of recruitment, the greater the ability to retain those employees. Adjustments to recruitment systems and the use of information technologies for IT-based recruitment systems may allow the universities not only to better match the employees they recruit to the organization but also to allow them to manage an information system that will help them to develop better and retain their employees (Eckhardt, A., Laumer, S., and Maier,

C., 2012). This fact corresponds well with some of the claims made by HR managers, who claimed that they do not have enough tools to manage employee retention in their organizations. A holistic system that will allow them not only to recruit employees but to monitor their professional life cycle in the organization over time may allow them to retain employees more optimally than the current situation.

c. Using universities' distinctive values to achieve employee retention.

Maertz and Griffeth (Maertz, C. P., & Griffeth, R. W., 2004), stated that embedding HRM practices may help motivate and retain employees, while poor HRM practices will encourage leaving the organization. The effectiveness of highly skilled employees will be limited if they are not motivated to perform, and HRM practices could affect their motivation. Investment in HRM practices can result in lower employee turnover and greater organizational productivity (Huselid, 1995). However, HRM practices are carried out to one degree or another in each university participating in the study. But it is evident that despite the extensive activity that is carried out, there are two main problems. *First*, there is no significant and consistent testing of the effectiveness of the various activities concerning their impact on employee retention in the organization. Without the ability to examine the practices that are carried out in terms of their effectiveness and efficiency, it is impossible to focus the organizational effort to retain employees. One of the simple and immediate tests that could be checked was which of the employees who participated in this or that activity continued to work for the organization over time. The information and knowledge exist in this context in these organizations, but it is not translated practically to test the effectiveness of employee retention. Many organizational resources are activated and invested in employees and processes in the organization, but the human resources department does not know how to measure their effect on the process for which they activate them in the first place. *Second*, since all universities carry out activities to retain employees, in practice, it is evident that almost none of them work to differentiate and

brand themselves in front of their competitors both in academia and in the private sector. If we isolate the variable of employee retention practices, the other variable is the university's uniqueness vis-à-vis other universities and employers in the public and private sectors.

Foster et al. (Foster, C., Punjaisri, K. and Cheng, R., 2010) suggested that internal branding may help organizations attract and retain employees with a competitive advantage. They argued that “there is a need to align internal branding and employer branding to ensure that effective corporate brand management is achieved... the corporate brand values should act as a guide for both internal branding and employer branding” (Foster, C., Punjaisri, K. and Cheng, R., 2010, p. 404). Branding activities provide internal opportunities to create internal culture, which significantly enhances the dynamic of open innovation. It is even more important to subdue the cultural and institutional barriers in the academic environment. Internal branding affects the employees' intention to leave the organization, thus enabling better employee retention (Ikram, A. Fiaz, M., Mahmood, A. Ahmad, Ayyaz and Ashfaq, R., 2021).

To create a competitive advantage against other universities and especially against competitors in the private sector, the universities must implement self-branding programs. As testified by all the research participants, their main difficulty is competing against the private sector in their inability to compete with the salary levels used there. However, internal organizational branding can help them emphasize their relative advantages vis-à-vis those sectors. The connection to various values, such as excellence, research, and innovation, can help them connect employees and candidates excellently and effectively to the brand's values and, as a result, to the brand itself - to the university. In the absence of the ability to compete for employment conditions against the private sector, the values that the university represents should be used as a significant competitive advantage, at least in

terms of branding, and thus help recruit quality employees who will remain in the organization for a long time. It is evident that although some universities have been able to implement programs for organizational engagement, they have not been able to strengthen these programs and continue a comprehensive internal and external branding process. Employees need to understand and feel that they work for an institution that gives them added value; otherwise, only values such as salary will be reflected. Thus universities do not have a competitive advantage against the private sector.

From the data that emerged from the study, four main themes could be identified. The first is the identification of retention as an organizational problem. The second is HRM's lack of retention strategy. The third is the HRM challenges, and the fourth is the developing HRM practices. Each of these themes requires the universities to take a series of processes to produce a response strategy to the difficulty in retaining employees. Therefore, SHRM should integrate all the organization's capabilities to implement a holistic and complete policy for handling employee retention and reducing turnover. It should operate within three effective strategies: a) defining HRM as a strategic leader of employee turnover and retention, b) referring to employee retention as a continuous and holistic approach, and c) using universities' distinctive values to achieve employee retention. The connecting line between all these themes is the lack of strategy and initiative regarding employee retention and turnover. These themes could help to develop coping strategies regarding employee turnover and retention in universities. The universities are currently at a crossroads where they understand that they are facing a strategic problem. However, they have not yet been able to formulate an orderly strategic plan to meet these challenges.

6.3 Recommendations for further research

There is a lack of data and research concerning employee retention and turnover in research universities in Israel. For years, research universities in Israel were not required to deal with these problems, mainly because most of their administrative personnel is on a tenure track basis. However, in recent years, a process has begun which has gained significant momentum since the corona pandemic, in which employees leave their work at the university despite their tenure. However, accurate data on the dimensions of the phenomenon have not yet been collected, although its existence cannot be denied. The lack of these data makes it difficult to estimate the scope of the phenomenon's dimensions and, therefore, also to enable a comprehensive statistical or comparative analysis. Collecting data and findings will allow a deeper understanding of the phenomenon and strategies to deal with it. The research universities in Israel are only a small part of the higher education system in Israel. In addition to these universities, about sixty public and private colleges operate. Future research on employee retention and turnover should expand the canvas and examine the phenomenon in universities with unique characteristics and the rest of the higher education system. In addition, the entire employment issue at the research universities (except for one private university that did not participate in the research) is regulated through collective agreements. One of the central claims of all the universities that participated in the study was that these agreements limit their ability to retain the employee's vis-a-vis the private sector. Future research should examine the activity in institutions of higher education that are not unionized within the collective agreements to understand better whether these collective agreements are indeed an obstacle in retaining employees.

Another aspect that should be investigated as part of future research concerns the different employee populations within those universities. The current study dealt only with administrative personnel, including a diverse population of workers and various forms of

employment. These personnel included administrative staff, librarians, laboratory staff, IT staff, finance, economics, procurement staff, and maintenance staff. However, some of these employees work at universities in various forms of employment. Although a significant part of them is employed within the framework of a collective agreement that provides tenure-track employment, some are used within the framework of a personal employment contract. Future research should examine whether there are differences between these forms of employment and the ability of the universities to retain employees. Moreover, this study did not deal with the employment of academic staff at those universities. As mentioned, future research may also shed light on the challenges in this sector, and certainly in front of the other sectors employed in universities. Future studies should examine whether the various practices in which the universities operate to retain employees are effective in this context. Some universities are already in the process of formulating a strategy to deal with employee retention. Future research could help examine the effectiveness of these programs. It will also be possible to determine whether the phenomenon of employee turnover and the difficulty in recruiting new employees is a continuous phenomenon or whether its trend has been contained.

6.4 Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to explore and analyze the various human resource management strategies and practices used to maintain and improve employee retention of administrative and technical staff retention in research universities in Israel. To date, no comprehensive, in-depth research has been conducted on the reasons for administrative staff turnover in universities in Israel, and the same applies to the study of HRM practices for employee retention in those universities. This study was an effort to close this gap in the lack of empirical data regarding employee retention strategies and practices on employee retention.

Seven out of nine universities, about seventy-seven percent, in Israel have participated in this study. The issue of employee retention in universities is of great concern to the human resource managers in those organizations, as well as their management. As the participants in the study pointed out, the phenomenon of employee turnover is new and has arisen mainly in recent years. A significant increase in the phenomenon gained momentum following the Corona pandemic and is currently shared by all the universities participating in the study. Another aspect of employee turnover was the difficulty of recruiting new employees to the organization. The combination of an unprecedented turnover of employees with the difficulty of recruiting new replacement employees presents the universities with a significant challenge. The universities are still identifying the problem and have not yet developed a systematic method to deal with it and its future consequences. All the universities that participated in the study began a series of local activities to deal with these challenges with the tools that exist in the toolbox of the human resources manager: strengthening the level of satisfaction of the organization's existing employees, providing tools to deal with the turnover of employees to managers in the organization, strengthening welfare and individual activities, and activities at the organizational level to improve the employment conditions of the employees. However,

the complex limitations imposed by the universities, both by the salary commissioner at the Ministry of Finance and by the national worker's organization, make it difficult for them to cope well and effectively.

One of the main challenges of the universities in their ability to deal with the phenomenon of employee turnover is the ability to monitor the phenomenon. Today, they do not perform effective quality monitoring of the employee turnover rate in the organization; most of them are unaware of the exact turnover percentage. They do not perform a detailed analysis of the circumstances for employee turnover and rely mainly on feelings or general insights. They do not conduct an effectivity test for the actions they carry out to retain employees; therefore, they have no indication of the effectiveness of these activities. However, it was evident that all the universities recognize and admit that they have a problem with employee retention, which is an essential insight to start and formulate coping strategies. In conclusion, the results of this study may help universities, as well as other higher education institutions, not only to assess and measure the scope of the phenomenon in their organizations but also to help plan strategies and practices to deal with the phenomenon of employee turnover and retention.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Adams, N. L. (2017). Self-Determination Theory. In L. M. Wehmeyer (Ed.), *Development of Self-Determination Through the Life-Course* (pp. 47-67). Dordrecht: Springer.
- Agarwal, R. and Ferratt, T. W. (2000). Retention and the career motives of IT Professionals . *Proceedings of the 2000 ACM SIGCPR Conference on Computer Personnel Research*, (pp. 158-166). Chicago, Illinois.
- Agrawal, Harshita., Yadav, Mohit., & Singh, Anushree. (2019). Revitalising employee retention in Indian higher education industry: role of job embeddedness. *International Journal of Learning and Change*, 11(2), 111-128.
- Alfayad, Z. &. (2017). Employee voice and job satisfaction: An application of Herzberg two-factor theory. *International Review of Management and Marketing*, 7(1), 150-156.
- Allen, D. G. (2006). Do organizational socialization tactics influence newcomer embeddedness and turnover? *Journal of Management*, 32, 237-256.
- Allen, D. G. (2010). Retaining talent: Replacing misconceptions with evidence-based strategies. *Academy of Management Perspective*, 24, 48-64.
- Armstrong, Michael & Taylor, Stephen. (2014). *Armstrong's Handbook of Human Resource Management Practice* (Thirteenth ed.). London: Armstrong Michel.
- Arnold, John et. al. (2005). *Work Psychology: Understanding Human Behavior in the Workplace* (Fourth ed.). Essex: Pearson Education Limited.
- Arsel, Z. (2017). Asking Questions with Reflexive Focus: A Tutorial on Designing and Conducting Interviews. *Journal of Consumer Research, Inc.*, 44, 939-948.
- Atex, Hagai., & Almog, Guy. (2021). *Unionization of workers in Israel 2014-2018 (in Hebrew)*. Jerusalem: Bank of Israel - Research Division.
- Bahuguna, P. a. (2012). Strategic Human Resource Management and Organizational Performance. In M. (. Khosrow-Pour, *Human Resources Management: Concepts, Methodologies, Tools and Applications* (pp. 87-101). Hershey PA: Business Science Reference.
- Baird, L. a. (1988). Managing Two Fits of Strategic Human Resource Management. *The Academy of Management Review*, 13(1), 116-128.
- Bandura, R. &. (2014). Short-term fixes fall short when it comes to keeping best employees: Successful firm invest time' money and commitment in retention. *Human Resource Management International Digest*, 22(5), 29-32.
- Barney, J. (1991). Firm resources and sustained competitive advantage. *Journal of Management*, 17(1), 99-120.
- Barrero, M.J., Bloom, N., & Davis, J.S. (2021). *Why Working from Home will Stick*. Cambridge: NATIONAL BUREAU OF ECONOMIC RESEARCH.
- Beach, L. R. (1990). *Image Theory: Decision Making in Personal and Organizational Contexts*. Chichester: Wiley.
- Becker, B. &. (1996). The Impact of Human Resource Management on Organizational Performance: Progress and Prospects. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 39(4), 779-801.

- Beer, M., Spector, B., Lawrence, P. R., Quinn Mills, D., & Walton, R. E. (1984). *Managing human assets: The groundbreaking Harvard Business School program*. New-York: Free Press.
- Behling, O. L. (1968). The Herzberg controversy: A critical reappraisal. *Academy of Management Journal*, 11(1), 99-108.
- Belgrave, L. Linda., & Seide, Kapriskie. (2019). Coding for Grounded Theory. In A. & Bryand (Ed.), *The Sage Handbook of Current Developments in Grounded Theory* (pp. 167-186). Thousand Oaks, CA.: SAGE Publications.
- Birnbaum, D. &. (1993). Fitting job performance into turnover model: An examination of the form of the job performance-turnover relationship and a path model. *Journal of Management*, 19(1), 1-11.
- Bitsch, V. (2005). Qualitative Research: A Grounded Theory Example and Evaluation Criteria. *Journal of Agribusiness*, 23(1), 75-91.
- Black, M. (1981). An empirical test of the theory of no-the-job search. *The Journal of Human Resources*, 16, 129-140.
- Bloom, N., Liang, J., Roberts, J. & Ying, J.Z. (2015). Does Working from Home Work? Evidence from A Chinese Experiment. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 168-218.
- Boon, C. (2008). *HRM and Fit, Survival of the Fittest!?* Rotterdam: Erasmus Research Institute of Management (ERIM).
- Boxall, P. (1992). Strategic human resource management: beginnings of a new theoretical sophistication? *Human Resource Management Journal*, 2(3), 60-79.
- Boxall, P. (1996). The strategic HRM debate and the resource-based view of the firm. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 6(3), 59-75.
- Boxall, P. a. (2009). Research and theory on high-performance work systems: Progressing the high-involvement stream. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 19(1), 3-23.
- Boxall, P. F. (2003). *Strategy and Human Resource Management*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Boxall, P. P. (2007). Human Resource Management: Scope' Analysis, and Significance . In P. P. Boxall (Ed.), *The Oxford Handbook of Human Resource Management* . Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bretz, J. R. (1989). Do People Make the Place? An Examination of the Attraction-Selection-Attrition Hypothesis. *Personnel Psychology*, 42, 561-581.
- Brewster, C. (1999). Strategic Human Resource Management: The Value of Different Paradigms. (M. Festing, Ed.) *Management and International Review; Journal of International Business*, pp. 45-65.
- Brief, A. P. & Weiss, H.M. (2002). Organizational behavior: Affect in the workplace. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 53(1), 279-307.
- Brinkmann, S. (2013). *Qualitative Interviewing: Understanding Qualitative Research*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Burke, A. (2019). Student Retention Models in Higher Education: A Literature Review. *College and University*, 94(2), 12-21.
- Burton, J.P., Holtom, B.C., Sablinski, C.J., Mitchell, T.R., & Lee, T.W. (2010). The buffering effects of job embeddedness on negative shocks. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 76(1), 42-51.

- Campion, M. (1991). Meaning and measurement of turnover: Comparison of alternative measures and recommendations for research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76, 199-212.
- Castleman, T., & Allen, M. (1995). The forgotten workforce: Female general staff in higher education. *Australian Universities Review*, 38(2), 65-69.
- Chahar, Bhawna., Rana Jain, Samax & Hatwal, Vinod. (2021). Mediating role of employee motivation for training, commitment, retention, and performance in higher education institutions. *Problems and Perspectives in Management*, 19(3), 95-106.
- Charmaz, K. (2014). *Constructing Grounded Theory* (second ed.). London: SAGE Publications Inc.
- Clarck, T. (2010). Gaining and Maintaining Access Exploring the Mechanisms that Support and Challenge the Relationship between Gatekeepers and Researchers. *Qualitative Social Work*, 10(4), 485-502.
- Combs, C. L. (2016). How much do high-performance work systems matter? A meta-analysis of their effects on organizational performance. *Personnel Psychology*, 59(3), 501-528.
- Corbin, Juliet., & Strauss, Anselm. (2014). *Basics of Qualitative Research: Techniques and Procedures for Developing Grounded Theory* (Fourth ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications .
- Corra, Mamadi., & Willer, David. (2002). The Gatekeeper. *Sociological Theory*, 20(2).
- Dalton, D. &. (1991). On the extent and reduction of avoidable absenteeism: An assessment of absence policy provisions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76, 810-817.
- Dalton, D. T. (1982). Turnover overstated: A functional taxonomy. *Academy of Management Review*, 7, 117-123.
- Deci, E. L., Ryan, R. M., & Koestner, R. (1999). A meta-analytic review of experiments examining the effects of extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation. *Psychological Bulletin*, 125, 627-668.
- Deci, L., Edward & Ryan, M., Richard. (2014). The Importance of Universal Psychological Needs for Understanding Omotivation in Workplace. In M. Gangne (Ed.), *The Oxford Handbook of Work Engagement, Motivation and Self-Determination Theory* (pp. 13-32). Oxford: Oxford University PressO.
- Deci, L., Edward and Ryan, M., Richard. (2000). The "What" and "Why" of Goal Pursuits: Human Needs and the Self-Determination of Behavior . *Psychological Inquiry* , 11(4), 227-268.
- Delery, J. (1998). Issues of fit in strategic human resource management: implications for research. *Human Resource Management Review*, 8, 289-309.
- Delery, J. a. (2017). Strategic human resource management, human capital and competitive advantage: is the field going in circles? *Human Resource Management Journal*, 27(1), 1-21.
- Delery, J. E. (1996). Modes of Theorizing in Strategic Human Resource Management: Tests of Universalistic, Contingency, and Configurational Performance Predictions. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39, 802-835.
- Dey, I. (1999). *Grounding Grounded Theory* . San Deigo, CA.: Academic Press.

- Dutton, J.E., & Ducan, R.B. (1987). The Influence of the Strategic Planning Process on Strategic Change. *Strategic Management Journal*, 8, 103-116.
- Eckhardt, A., Laumer, S., and Maier, C. (2012). Introducing a First Step towards a Holistic Talent Management System Architecture. In M. Khosrow-Pour, *Human Resources Management: Concepts, Methodologies, Tools and Applications* (pp. 435-454). Hershey PA: Information Resources Management Association USA.
- Eckhardt, A., Weitzel, T., Koenig, W. and Buschbacher, J. (2007). How to Convince People Who Don't Like IT to Use IT: A Case Study on E-Recruiting. *Proceedings of the 13th Americas Conference on Information Systems (AMCIS)*. Keystone, Colorado.
- Edward L. Deci, Haleh Eghrari, Brian C. Patrick, & Dean R. Leone. (1994). Facilitating Internalization: The Self-Determination Theory Perspective. *Journal of Personality*, 62(1), 119-142.
- Ewen, R. S. (1966). An empirical test of the Herzberg two-factor theory. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 50(6), 544-550.
- Fall, Amar and Roussel, Patrice. (2014). Compensation and Work Motivation: Self-Determination Theory and the Paradigm of Motivation through Incentives. In G. Marylene (Ed.), *The Oxford Handbook of Work Engagement, Motivation, and Self-Determination Theory* (pp. 199-217). Oxford: Oxford University Press .
- Feldman, D., Ng, T., & Vogel, R. (2012). Off-the-job embeddedness: A reconceptualization and agenda for future research. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, 31, 209-251.
- Felps, W., Mitchell, T.R., Hekman, D.R., Lee, T.W., Holtom, B.C., & Harman, W.S. (2009). Turnover contagion: How co-workers' job embeddedness and job search behaviors influence quitting. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52(3), 545-561.
- Fernando Martin-Alcazar, P. M.-F.-G. (2005). Strategic human resource management: integrating the universalistic, contingent, configurational and contextual perspectives. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 16(5), 633-659.
- Figueroa, O. (2015). The Influences Impacting Staff Turnover in Higher Education. *Journal of Management and Sustainability*, 5(4), 86-93.
- Finnegan, R. P. (2010). *Rethinking Retention in Good and Bad: Breakthrough Ideas for Keeping Your Best Workers*. London: Davies-Black.
- Fombrun, C. J., Tichy, N. M., & Devanna, M. A. (1984). *Strategic human resource management*. New-York: Wiley.
- Foster, C., Punjaisri, K. and Cheng, R. (2010). Exploring the relationship between corporate, internal and employer branding. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 19(6), 401-409.
- Fusch, Patricia. I. & Ness, Lawrence, R. (2015). Are We There Yet? Data Saturation in Qualitative Research. *Walden Faculty and Staff Publications*, 20(9), 1408-1416.
- Gabriel, A.S., Diefendorff, J.M., Moran, C.M. & Greguras, G.J. (2014). The dynamic relationships of work affect and job satisfaction with perceptions of fit. *Personnel Psychology*, 67, 389-420.
- Gange, M. &. (2005). Self-determination theory and work motivation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26, 331-362.

- Glaser, B. G. (2001). *The Grounded Theory Perspective: Conceptualization Contrasted with Description*. Mill Valley, CA.: Sociology Press.
- Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1967). *Discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research*. Chicago: Aldine.
- Goldstein, W. H. (2017). *The Wiley Blackwell Handbook of the Psychology of Recruitment, Selection and Employee Retention*. West Sussex: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.
- Guest, D. M. (2003). Human resource management and corporate performance in the UK. *British Journal of Industrial Relations*, 41, 291-314.
- Guest, G., Bunce, A., & Johnson, L. (2006). How many interviews are enough? An experiment with data saturation and variability. *Field Methods*, 18(1), 59-82.
- Gunasekare, T. (2016). Self Determination Theory (SDT): a review on SDT as a Complementary Theory. *Kelaniya Journal of Human Resource Management*, 11(1), 58-68.
- Hackman, R. &. (1980). *Work Redesign*. California: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.
- Halbesleben, J.R.B., & Wheeler, A.R. (2008). The relative roles of engagement and embeddedness in predicting job performance and intentions to leave. *Work & Stress*, 22(3), 242-256.
- Hancock, I. J. (2013). Meta-Analytic Review of Employee Turnover as a Predictor of Firm Performance. *Journal of Management*, 39(3), 573-603.
- Hanisch, K.A., & Hulin, C.L. (1990). Job attitudes and organizational withdrawal: An examination of retirement and other voluntary withdrawal behaviors. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 37(1), 60-78.
- Harrison, D. A., Newman, D. A., & Roth, P. L. (2006). How important are job attitudes? Metaanalytic comparisons of integrative behavioral outcomes and time sequences. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49, 305-325.
- Herzberg, F. (1974). Motivation-hygiene profiles: Pinpointing what ails the organization. *Organizational Dynamics*, 3, 18-29.
- Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Snyderman, B. (1959). *The Motivation to Work*. New-York: Wiley.
- Hogan, J. (1992). Turnover and what to do about it. *The Cornell HRA Quarterly*, 33(1), 40-45.
- Holbeche, L. (2022). *Aligning Human Resources and Business Strategy* (Third ed.). New-York: Routledge.
- Holtom, B. C. (2005). Shocks as causes of turnover: What they are and how organizations can manage them. *Human Resource Management*, 44, 337-352.
- Holtom, B., Mitchell, T., Lee, T., & Ebrly, M. (2006). Turnover and Retention Research: A Glance at the Past, a Closer Review of the Present, and a Venture into the Future. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 2(1), 231-274.
- Holton, Brooks. c., & Darabi, Tiffany. (2018). Job Embeddedness Theory as a Tool for Improving Employee Retention. In M. P. Coetzee (Ed.), *Psychology of Retention: Theory, Research and Practice* (pp. 95-117). Cham: Springer.
- Hom, P. A. (2020). *Employee Retention and Turnover: Why Employees Stay or Leave*. New York: Routledge.

- Hom, P. W.-W. (1992). A meta-analytical structural equations analysis of a model of employee turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77, 890-909.
- Hom, W. P. (1984). The Validity of Mobley's (1977) Model of Employee Turnover. *Organizational behavior and human performance*, 34, 141-174.
- Huselid, M. A. (1995). The Impact of Human Resource Management Practices on Turnover, Productivity, and Corporate Financial Performance. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 38(3), 635-672.
- Iaffaldano, M.T, & Muchinsky, P.M. (1985). Job Satisfaction and Job Performance: A meta-analisy . *Psychological Bulletin*, 97(2), 251-273.
- Ikram, A. Fiaz, M., Mahmood, A. Ahmad, Ayyaz and Ashfaq, R. (2021). Internal Corporate Responsibility as a Legitimacy Strategy for Branding and Employee Retention: A Perspective of Higher Education Institutions. *Journal of Open Innovation: Technology, Market, and Complexity*, 7(52), 1-12.
- Israel, Council of Higher Education. (2018). *The Higher Education System in Israel - 60 Years of Academic Excellence*. Retrieved from Council of Higer Education in Israel: <http://online.anyflip.com/cdkp/dbug/mobile/index.html>
- Jackofsky, E. F. (1984). Turnover and Job Performance: An Integrated Process Model. *Academy of Management Review*, 9(1), 74-83.
- Jiang, K., Liu, D., McKay, P., Lee, T., & Mitchell, T. (2012). When and how is job embeddedness predictive of turnover? A meta-analytic investigation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97, 1077-1096.
- Jo, V. H. (2008). Voluntary turnover and women administrators in higher education. *High Education*, 565-582.
- Joo, B., Hahn, H., & Peterson, S. (2015). Turnover intention: The effects of core self-evaluations, proactive personality, perceived organizational support, developmental feedback, and job complexity. *Human Resource Development International*, 116-130.
- Josiane, F.-S. (2020). Job Satisfaction and Career Development. In F.-S. Josiane (Ed.), *Career Development and Job Satisfaction* (pp. 1-7). London: Intechopen Limited.
- Judge, T.A., & Ferris, G.R. (1992). The elusive criterion of fit in human resource staffing decisions . *Human Resource Planning*, 154, 47-67.
- Kalleberg, A. L., Marsden. P. V., Reynolds, J., & Knoke, D. (2006). Beyond Profit? Sectoral Differences in High-Performance Work Practices. *Work and Occupations*, 33(3), 271-302.
- Kammeyer-Mueller, J. D. (2005). The role of temporal shifts in turnover processes: It's about time. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(4), 644-658.
- Kang, C. H. (2015). Turnover and retention in nonprofit employment. *Nonprofit & Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 44, 641-664.
- Kaufman, B. E. (2015). The evolution of strategic HRM as seen through two founding books: a 30th anniversary perspective on development of the field. *Human Resource Management*, 54(3), 389-407.
- Knies, E., & Leisink, P. (2018). People management in the public sector. In C. B. J-L., *HRM in mission driven organizations* (pp. 15-46). Cham,, Switzerland: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Knoblauch, H. U. (2005). Qualitative Methods in Europe: The Variety of Social Research. *FQS: Forum: Qualitative Social Research*, 6(3).

- Koh, H. & Goh, C. (1995). An analysis of factors affecting the turnover intention of non-managerial clerical staff: a Singapore study. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 6(1), 104-125.
- Krackhardt, D. &. (1986). The snowball effect: Turnover embedded in communication networks. *Applied Psychology*, 71, 50-55.
- Krackhardt, D., & Porter, L. W. (1985). When friends leave: A structural analysis of the relationship between turnover and stayers' attitudes. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 30, 242-261.
- Kristof, A. L. (1996). Person-organization fit: An integrative review of its conceptualizations, measurement, and implications. *Personnel Psychology*, 49(1), 1-49.
- Kristof-Brown, A. I., Zimmerman, R. d., & Johnson, E. c. (2005). Consequences of individuals' fit at work: A Meta-analysis of person-job, person-organization, person-group, and person-supervisor fit. *Personal Psychology*, 58(2), 281-342.
- Kristof-Brown, A. L., Zimmerman, R. D., and Johnson E. C. (2005). Consequences of Individual's fir at work: A meta-analysis of person-job, person-organization, person-group, and person-supervisor fit. *Personnel Psychology*, 58(2), 281-342.
- Kvale, S. & Brinkmann, S. (2008). *InterViews: Learning the Craft of Qualitative Research Interviewing* (Second ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA.: Sage.
- Larkin, I. B.-D.-V. (2016). Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention of online teachers in the K-12 setting. *Online Learning* , 20(3), 26-51.
- Lau, L. K. (2003). Institutional factors affecting student retention. *Education*, 124(1), 126-136.
- Lee, T. W. (1994). An alternative approach: The unfolding model of voluntary employee turnover. *Academy of Management Review*, 19(1), 51-89.
- Lee, T. W. (2014). The story of why we stay: A review of job embeddedness. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 1, 199-216.
- Lee, T. W., & Mitchel, T. R. (1994). An alternative approach: The unfolding model of voluntrary employee turnover. *The Academy of Management Review*, 19(1), 51-89.
- Lee, T. W., Mitchell, T. R., Sablinski, C. J., Burton, J. P., & Holtom, B. C. (2004). The effects of job embeddedness on organizational citizenship, job performance, volitional absences, and voluntary turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, 47, 711-722.
- Lee., G. J. (2005). Mobley revisited: dynamism in the process of employee turnover. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 1671-1690.
- Leisink, Peter., Borst, Knies, Eva., & Battiata, Valentina. (2021). Human Resource Management in a Public-Sector Context. In E. M. Parry, & E. M. Parry (Ed.), *The Oxford Handbook of Contextual Approaches to Human Resource Managemet* (pp. 518-543). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Leslie, Larry, L., & Rhoads, Gary. (1995). Rising Administrative Costs: Seeking Explanations. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 66(2), 187-212.
- Lim, S. L.-H.-H. (2019). Distinguishing Motivational Traits between Person-Organization Fit and Person-Job Fit: Testing the Moderating Effects of Extrinsic Rewards in Enhancing Public Employee Job Satisfaction. (T. &. Routledge, Ed.) *International Journal of Public Administration*, 1-15.

- Lindholm, J. A. (2003). Perceived Organizational Fit: Nurturing the Minds, Hearts, and Personal Ambitions of University Faculty. *The Review of Higher Education*, 27(1), 125-149.
- Lock, E.A., Shaw, K.N., Saari, L.M., & Latham, G.P. (1981). Goal setting and task performance: 1696-1980. *Psychological Bulletin*, 90, 125-152.
- Locke, E. A. (1976). The Nature and Causes of Job Satisfaction. In M. D. Dunette (Ed.), *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology* (pp. 1297-1349). Chicago: Rand McNally.
- MacDuffie, J. P. (1995). Human resource bundles and manufacturing performance . *Industrial Relations Review*, 48(2), 199-221.
- Maertz, C. P., & Campion, M. A. (1998). 25 years of voluntary turnover research: A review and critique. (C. L. Robertson, Ed.) *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 13, pp. 49-81.
- Maertz, C. P., & Griffeth, R. W. (2004). Eight motivational forces and voluntary turnover: A theoretical synthesis with implications for research. *Journal of Management*, 30, 667-683.
- Manogharan, M. W. (2018). Academic Staff Retention in Private Higher Education Institute Case Study of Private Colleges in Kuala Lumpur. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 7(3), 52-78.
- March, J. G. (1958). *Organizations*. New York: Wiley.
- Marshall, B. C. (2013). Does Sample Size Matter in Qualitative Research? : A Review of Qualitative Interviews in is Research. *Journal of Computer Information Systems*, 54(1), 11-22.
- McMahan, G. C. (1999). Alternative theoretical perspectives for strategic human resource management revisited: Progress, problems, and prospects. (P. W. G. R. Ferris, Ed.) *Research in personal and human resources management: Supplement. Strategica human resource management in the 21st century*, pp. 99-122.
- Melinde, C. I. (2018). *Psychology of Retention : Theory, Research and Practice*. (C. I. Melinde, Ed.) Cham: Springer.
- Mesch, D. (2010). Management of human resources in 2020: The Outlook for nonprofit organizations. *Public Administration Review* , 70(1), 173-174.
- Mitchell, T. R. (2001). The unfolding model of voluntary trnover and job embeddedness: Foundations for a comprehensive theory of attachment. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 23, 189-246.
- Mitchell, T. R. (2001). Why people stay: Using job embeddedness to predict voluntary turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44, 1102-1121.
- Mobley, W. (1982). *Employee turnover: Causes, Consequences, and Control*. Reding, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company .
- Mobley, W. H. (1977). Intermediate Linkages in the Relationship Between Job Satisfaction and Employee Turnover Process. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 62, 237-240.
- Mobley, W. H. (1979). Review and conceptual analysis of the employee turnover process. *Psychological Bulletin*, 86, 493-522.
- Mobley, W. H. (1992). *Employee Turnover: Causes, Consequences, and Control*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

- Moore, M. H. (2000). Managing for value: Organizational strategy in for-profit, nonprofit, and governmental organizations. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 29(1), 183-204.
- Morrel, K. (2016). Understanding and measuring employee turnover. In G. & Saridakis (Ed.), *Research Handbook on Employee Turnover* (pp. 26-58). Massachusetts: Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Morrell, K. J.-C. (2001). Unweaving leaving: The use of models in the management of employee turnover. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 3, 219-244.
- Morrill, Calvin., Buller, David. B., Buller, Mery. Klein., & Larkey, Linda. L. (1999). Toward an Organizational Perspective on Identifying and Managing Formal Gatekeepers. *Qualitative Sociology*, 22(1), 51-72.
- Mullins, J. L. (2005). *Management and Organizational Behavior* (Seventh ed.). Essex: Pearson Education Limited.
- Nadler, D. A. (1980). A model for diagnosing organizational behavior. *Organizational Dynamics*, 9(2), 35-51.
- Ng, T. & (2014). Community embeddedness and work outcomes: The mediating role of organizational embeddedness. *Human Relations*, 67, 71-103.
- Noe, A. R. (2018). *Fundamentals of Human Resource Management* (Seventh ed.). New-York: McGraw-Hill Education.
- O'Reilly, C. A. (1989). Work group demography, social integration, and turnover. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 34, 21-37.
- O'Keefe, P. (2013). A Sense of Belonging: Improving Student Retention. *College Student Journal*, 47(4), 605-613.
- Organ, W. D. (2018). Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Recent Trends and Developments. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 80, 295-306.
- Othman, A. (2016). A Comprehensive Review of the Major Studies and Theoretical Models of Student Retention in Higher Education. *Higher Education Studies*, 6(2), 1-18.
- Park, J. (2018). Higher education employees' self-assessment of person-organization fit: the role of work conditions and job satisfaction. *International Review of Public Administration*, 1-23.
- Peter W. Hom, D. G. (2020). *Employee Retention and Turnover, Why Employee Stay or Leave*. 52 Vanderblit Avenue, New-York, NY 10017: Routledge Taylor & Francis Group.
- Phillips, J. J. (2009). *Managing Talent Retention: An ROI Approach*. San-Francisco : John Wiley & Sons.
- Phillips, Jack. J. & Connell, Adedle. O. (2003). *Managing employee retention : a strategic accountability approach*. Burlington, MA: Butterworth-Heinemann publications.
- Porter, W. L. (1962). Job attitudes in management: Perceived deficiencies in need fulfillment as a function of job level. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 46(6), 375-384.
- Price, J. L. (1977). *The Study of Turnover* (First ed.). Iowa: Iowa State University .
- Price, J. L. (1989). The impact of turnover on the organization. *Work and Occupations*, 16, 461-471.

- Pynes, E. J. (2013). *Human Resources Management for Public and Nonprofit Organization: A Strategic Approach* (Fourth ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass .
- Ramesh, A., & Gelfand, M. J. (2010). Will they stay or will they go? The role of job embeddedness in predicting turnover in individualistic and collectivistic cultures. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 95*(5), 807-823.
- Ramlall, S. (2004). A Review of Employee Retention Theoris and their Implications for Employee Retention within Organization. *The Journal of American Academy of Business, 52*-63.
- Ramlall, S. (2004). Managing Employee Retention as a Strategy for Increasing Organizational. *Applied H.R.M. Research, 8*(2), 63-72.
- Redelinghuys, K. & Botha, E. (2016). Person-environment fit, job satisfaction and intentions to leave: The moderating effect of leader empowering behaviour. *Journal of Psychology in Africa, 26*, 11-21.
- Richardson, R. a. (1999). *The Impact of People Management Practices on Business Performance: A literature review*. London: The Institute of Personnel and Development.
- Roodt, G. (. (2018). A Job Demands—Resources Framework for Explaining Turnover Intentions. In M. P. Coetzee, & M. P. Coetzee (Ed.), *Psychology of Retention: Theory, Research and Practice* (pp. 5-34). Cham, Switzerland: Springer.
- Rousseau, D. M. (1994). Human resource practices: administrative contract makers. *Human Resource Management, 33*(3), 385-401.
- Ryan, M., Richard. & Deci, L., Edward. (2000). Self-Determination Theory and the Facilitation of Intrinsic Motivation, Social Development, and Well-Being. *American Psychologist, 55*(1), 68-78.
- Schneider, B. (1983). Interactional psychology and organizational behavior. (a. S. Cummings LL, Ed.) *Research in organizational behavior*, pp. 1-31.
- Schneider, B. (1987). The people make the place . *Personnel Psychology, 40*, 437-453.
- Schneider, B. G. (1995). The ASA Framework: An Update . *Personal Psychology, 48*, 747-773.
- Schuler, R. &. (1987). Linking competitive strategies with human resource management practices. *Academy of Management Executive, 1*, 207-219.
- Sekiguchi, Tomoki., & Huber, Vandra. L. (2011). The use of person-organization fit and person-job fit information in making selection decision. *Oranizational Behavior and Humand Decision Process , 116*, 203-216.
- Selesho, Jacob. M., & Naile, Idah. (2014). Academic Staff Retention As A Human Resource Factor: University Perspective. *International Business & Economic Research Journal, 13*(2), 295-304.
- Shah., Imran Ahmed., Yadav, Amit., Afzal, Farman. et. al. (2020). Factors Affecting Staff Turnover of Young Academics: Job Embeddedness and Creative Work Performance in Higher Academic Institutions. *Frontiers in Psychology, 1*-13.
- Sheridan, John E. and Michael A. Abelson. (1983). Cusp Catastrophe Model of Employee Turnover. *Academy of Management Journal, 26*, 418-436.
- Sheridan, John E. and Michael A. Abelson. (1985). A catastrophe model of employee withdrawal leading to low job performance, high absenteeism, and job turnover during the first year of employment. *Academy of Mnagement Journal, 28*, 88-109.

- Singh, N. &. (2015). Process Models of Employee Turnover during 1975-1995: A Review. *European Academic Research*, 3(2), 2494-2518.
- Smerek, R. E. (2007). Examining Herzberg's Theory: Improving Job Satisfaction among Non-Academic Employees at a University. *Research in Higher Education*, 48(2), 229-250.
- Spector, P. E. (1997). *Job Satisfaction: Applications Assessment, Causes, and Consequences*. Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Spencer, D. G. (1983). An empirical test of the inclusion of job search linkages into Mobley's model of turnover decision process. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 56, 137-144.
- Steers, R. M. (1981). Employee Turnover and Post Decision Accommodation Processes” in Research in Organizational Behavior. (L. L. Staw, Ed.) *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 3, pp. 235-281.
- Steijn, B. (2004). Human Resource Management and Job Satisfaction in the Dutch Public Sector. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 24(4), 291-303.
- Stello, C. M. (2011). Herzberg's two-factor theory of job satisfaction: An integrative literature review. *Journal of Education and Human Development*, 1-32.
- Strauss, A. L., & Corbin, J. M. (1990). *Basic of Qualitative Research*. Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publications.
- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1998). *Basics of Qualitative Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Sturman, M. S. (2003). Is it worth it to win the talent war? Evaluating the utility of performance-based pay. *Personnel Psychology*, 56(4), 997-1035.
- Sutaria, R. (1980). Personality, Needs and Two-Factor Theory of Work Motivation. *Indian Journal of Industrial Relations*, 16(2), 219-232.
- Szekeres, J. (2006). General Staff Experiences in the Corporate University. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 28(2), 133-145.
- Szekeres, Judy & Heywood, Tony. (2018). Faculty Managers: A Constantly Changing Role. *Professional and Support Staff in Higher Education*, 1-16.
- Takawira, N. C. (2014). Job embeddedness, work engagement and turnover intention of staff in a higher education institution: An exploratory study. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 12(1), 1-10.
- Tight, M. (2020). Student retention and engagement in higher education. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 44(5), 689-704.
- Tom, C. (2010). Gaining and Maintaining Access Exploring the Mechanisms that Support and Challenge the Relationship between Gatekeepers and Researchers. *Qualitative Social Work*, 10(4), 485-502.
- Tomson, S. B. (2011). Sample Size and Grounded Theory. *JOAAG*, 5(1), 45-52.
- Torrington, D. H. (2014). *Human Resource Management* (Ninth ed.). Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
- Truss, C., and Gratton, L. (1994). Strategic human resource management: a conceptual approach. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 5(3), 663-686.
- Tsang, E. W. (1998). Inside Story: Mind Your Identity When Conducting Cross-National Research. *Organization Studies*, 19(3), 511-515.
- Ulrich, D. H. (1991). Employee and customer attachment: Synergies for competitive advantage. *Human Resource Planning*, 14, 89-103.

- Van den Broeck, Anja., Ferris, D., Lance., Chang, Chu-Hsiang., & Rosen, C., Christopher. (2016). A Review of Self-Determination Theory's Basic Psychological Needs at Work. *Journal of Management*, 42(5), 1195-1229.
- Vincent, T. (2006). Research and Practice of Student Retention: What Next? *Journal of College Student Retention: Research, Theory & Practice*, 8(1), 1-19.
- Vu, H. N. (2020). Strategic Human Resource Management, Organizational Culture, and Academic Staff: Literature Review. *Economics Management Innovations*, 12(2), 5-13.
- Walker, Diane., & Myrick, Florence. (2006). Grounded Theory: An Exploration of Process and Procedure. *Qualitative Health Research*, 16(4), 547-559.
- Walker, J. (2001). Are you feeling Strategic (Perspectives). *Human Resource Planning*, 24(3), 6-10.
- Wall, T. &. (2007). Herzberg's two-factor theory of job attitudes: A critical evaluation and some fresh evidence. *Industrial Relations Journal*, 1(3), 41-65.
- Wasseenaar, D. R., & Singh, S. (2016). Contextualising the role of the gatekeeper in social science research. *South African Journal of Bioethics and Law*, 9(1), 42-46.
- Weisberg, M. &. (2016). Meaning or money? Non-profit employee satisfaction. *Voluntary Sector Review*, 7, 293-313.
- Welch, Catherine & Piekkari, Rebecca. (2006). Crossing Language Boundaries: Qualitative Interviewing in International Business. *Management International Review*, 46(4), 417-435.
- Weller, I. H. (2009). Level and time effects of recruitment sources on early voluntary turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94, 1146-1162.
- Wen-Hou, H. (2020). Job Training Satisfaction, Job Satisfaction, and Job Performance. In F.-S. Josiane (Ed.), *Career Development and Job Satisfaction* (pp. 25-46). London: Intechopen Limited.
- Werbel, J.D., & Gilliland, S.W. (1999). Person-environment fit in the selection process. (G. Ferris, Ed.) *Research in Personnel and Human Resource Management*, pp. 209-243.
- Werbel, J.D., & Johnson, D.J. (2001). The use of person-group fit for employment selection: A missing link in person-environment fit. *Human Resource Management*, 40(3), 227-240.
- Wolf, M. G. (1970). Nedd gratification theory: A theoretical reformulation of job satisfaction/dissatisfaction and job motivation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 54(1), 87-94.
- Wright, Bradley, E. &, Kim. Soonhee. (2004). Participation's Influence on Job Satisfaction: The Impact of Job Characteristics. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 24(1), 18-40.
- Wright, P. a. (2011). Exploring human capital: putting "human" back into strategic human resource management. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 21(2), 93-104.
- Wright, P. M. (1992). Theoretical Perspectives for Strategic Human Resource Management. *Journal of Management*, 18(2), 295-320.
- Wright, P. M. (1994). Human resources and sustained competitive advantage: A resource-based perspective. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 5(2), 301-326.

- Wright, P. M. (1999). Failing to find fit in strategic human resource management: Theoretical and empirical problems. In G. W. Ferris (Ed.), *Research in personnel and human resources management: Supplement 4. Strategic human resource management in the 21st century* (pp. 53-74). Stamford, CT: JAI Press.
- Zbirin, U. (2021). *Report on Payroll Expenses of Public Bodies in Israel for 2019 (In Hebrew)*. Jerusalem: Finance Ministry. Retrieved from chrome-extension://efaidnbmnnnibpcajpcglclefindmkaj/https://www.gov.il/BlobFolder/reports/salary_superior_report_public_body_2019/he/Publishes_Reports_salary_superior_report_public_body_2019-full-version.pdf
- Zenger, T. R. (1992). Why do employers only reward extreme performance? Examining the relationships among performance, pay, and turnover. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 37, 198-219.
- Zhang, C. &. (2017). Talent Management and Retention. In H. P. Goldstein, *The Wiley Blackwell Handbook of the Psychology of Recruitment, Selection and Employee Retention* (pp. 445-472). Oxford : Wiley Blackwell.
- Zohar, G., Avraham, N., Sofer-Rot, S. (2021). *The increase in the rate of resignation over the past decade and heterogeneous trends of resignation during covid-19*. Jerusalem: The Israeli Employment Service.

APPENDIX A:
Informed Consent for Research



Informed Consent for Research

Project Title: Human Resource Management Practices of Employee Retention in Research Universities in Israel.

Principal Investigator: Amir Harpaz, Swiss School of Business and Management (SSBM) Geneva.

Date: _____

Dear Participant:

You are invited to participate in a research study aimed at researching employee retention practices at research universities in Israel. The interview is expected to take approximately 40 minutes. The study is conducted as part of doctoral requirements at the Swiss School of Business and Management (SSBM) Geneva.

I hereby ask for your permission to conduct the interview with you. Your participation is voluntary, and no compensation will be offered either to you or your organization. There are no known risks to individuals being interviewed. You will be asked a series of questions prepared by the researcher, which will interview you privately. You are entitled to withdraw from the interview at any time. All survey information and personal data will be kept in a confidential manner and with no personal identification noted.

All interviews will be audio-recorded, transcribed, and translated into English. All information will be retained in a secure manner for three years from the date of the interview. A summary of the finding will be available upon request.

If you choose to participate, please confirm by signing below.

Organization Name:

Authorized Representative's Name:

Authorized Representative's Signature:

If you have any questions or clarifications regarding the research and its conduct, you are welcome to contact me at the following information:

Researcher: Amir Harpaz, amir@ssbm.com; XXXXXX@gmail.com;
Tel: 9XX-XX-XXX019.

Thank you very much for your participation.

APPENDIX B: Interview Protocol

Institution Information:

1. Year of the university establishment:
2. How many full times employee does the University has that are full or part time with tenure?
3. How many full or part time employee does the university has that do not have a tenure?
4. What is the rate of employee turnover per year?

HRM representative information:

1. Years of experience as an HR manager in the institution:
2. Age in range: (20-25)(25-30)(30-35)(35-40)(40-45)(45-50)(50-55)(60+)
3. Gender:
4. Highest level of education:

Interview Questions:

1. Do you have a problem with employee turnover in your institution? What are the main reasons?
2. Who is responsible for addressing the issue of employee retention within your organization?
3. Do you have a pre-planned strategy for employee retention? If so, please elaborate.
4. Do you think retention practices in your organization contribute to employee retention?
5. What are the most effective practices to improve employee retention? Are they being measured?
6. What are your personal views regarding employee turnover and retention in your organization?

7. What are the main difficulties (Internal and/or external) you are experiencing regarding employee retention? What will help you to improve retention?
8. Does your organization set goals for desired employee turnover?
9. In your opinion, does tenure in work impact the employee's desire to stay or leave the organization?
10. Is there anything else you would like to share regarding employee retention in your institution?