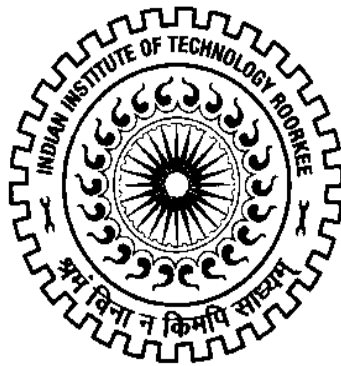


IMPACT OF EMPLOYER BRANDING AND SERVANT LEADERSHIP ON EMPLOYEE RETENTION

Ph.D THESIS

by

VANEET KASHYAP



**DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT STUDIES
INDIAN INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY ROORKEE
ROORKEE-247667, INDIA
JULY, 2015**

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A THESIS

*Submitted in partial fulfilment of the
requirements for the award of the degree*

of

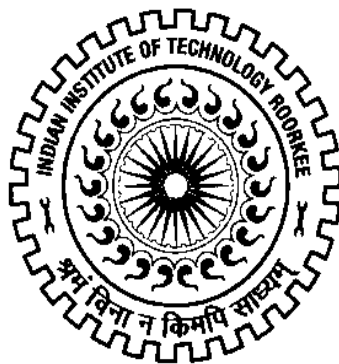
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

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JULY, 2015**

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CANDIDATE'S DECLARATION

I hereby certify that the work which is being presented in the thesis entitled “**Impact of Employer Branding and Servant Leadership on Employee Retention**”, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy and submitted in the Department of Management Studies of the Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee is an authentic record of my own work carried out during a period from January, 2013 to July, 2015 under the supervision of Dr. Santosh Rangnekar, Associate Professor, Department of Management Studies, Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee, Roorkee.

The matter presented in the thesis has not been submitted by me for the award of any other degree of this or any other Institute.

(Vaneet Kashyap)

This is to certify that the above statement made by the candidate is correct to the best of my knowledge.

Dated: _____

(S. Rangnekar)
Supervisor

ABSTRACT

The study aimed at investigating the impact of employer branding and servant leadership on employee retention. Specifically the study investigated that how the perception of an employer brand and perceived servant leadership style helps in influencing employees' satisfaction with retention practices and reducing their turnover intentions. An effort has been made to investigate that how the dimensions of employer branding (interest value, social value, economic value, application value and development value) and servant leadership (empowerment, standing back, humility, accountability, stewardship, forgiveness, courage and authenticity) influences employees' overall satisfaction with retention practices and reducing employees' turnover intentions. Additionally, the study proposed and tested a model of employee turnover by examining the sequential mediation effects of employer branding and employees' satisfaction with retention practices while establishing the relationships between servant leadership and employee turnover intentions. The present study also investigated the role of demographics (age, gender, organization type and hierarchical level) in influencing the independent and dependent variables of the study.

To achieve the objectives of the study the data were gathered from 460 Indian employees. The organizations chosen for this study were from Delhi, Bangalore, Hyderabad, Gurgaon, Noida and SIDCUL (Uttarakhand) in India. The research selected organizations with annual turnover of over INR 100 crore and at least 1000 employees. The organizations so selected belonged to power, IT, banking, insurance and automobile sectors. For administering survey, the organizations and sample has been chosen following a convenient sampling technique. The various statistical techniques used to test the hypotheses developed includes correlational analysis, multiple hierarchical regression, conditional process analysis (PROCESS) using regression based approach, t-test and one-way ANOVA. The collected data were analyzed using SPSS and AMOS. Before analyzing the data the data were subject to normality tests.

After the preliminary data screening, the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were conducted to test the factor structure of the variables under study in Indian context. Further in analysis hypotheses were tested. In the first section, the role of demographics has been tested using independent t- test and one-way ANOVA. Following this, multiple hierarchical regressions were utilized to determine the impact of employer branding and servant leadership on

employees' satisfaction with retention practices and employees' turnover intentions. In the final section of analysis, conditional PROCESS analysis was deployed to test the sequential mediating effects of employer branding and employees' satisfaction with retention practices while establishing the relationships between servant leadership and turnover intentions.

The results of the study indicated that some of the dimensions of employer branding and servant leadership were found to be significant predictors of employees' satisfaction with retention practices and employees' turnover intentions. More specifically, while testing the overall impact of employer branding and servant leadership on employee retention outcomes it was found that employer branding and employees' satisfaction with retention practices sequentially mediated the relationship between servant leadership and employee turnover intentions. The results further indicated that demographic variables have a very little influence on the dimensions of employer branding, servant leadership and employee retention practices.

The study has many key implications: First, the study suggested that creation of employer brand image is not limited to the process of recruitment. The organizations need to continuously build and maintain their employer brand throughout the employment life cycle as lack of brand promise fulfillment at any stage of employment cycle, will likely to affect employee's satisfaction which ultimately results in severe behavioral outcomes such as low performance, morale, high turnover intentions. Second, the results provide insights on the role of leadership in enhancing the relationships between employer brand perception and employee retention. Organizational can make use of and can train their leaders to enhance and communicate the employer brand message consistently to all the stakeholders. Further, the results of the study effectively contribute to existing literature on servant leadership, employer branding, satisfaction with retention practices and employee turnover intentions in following ways: First, the results of the study empirically demonstrated for the first time that servant leadership style with internal branding concept i.e. employer brand perception, influenced employee perception regarding their leaders and this perception in turn, influenced the level of satisfaction with retention practices, which in turn, reduced their intent to turnover.

Second, drawing on the social identity theory, the researcher found that employer brand perception was a strong factor that mediated the servant leadership-turnover intentions relationship significantly and was a factor that may enhance the self-esteem of the employees.

Theory of social identity states that it is more likely that individuals seek membership of organizations that help in enhancing their self-esteem. This study contributes to existing literature on servant leadership, employer branding, satisfaction with retention practices and turnover intentions by investigating and reporting employer brand perception and employees' overall satisfaction with retention practices as important underlying mechanisms influencing servant leadership-turnover intentions relationship.

Keywords: Employer branding, servant leadership, employee retention practices, turnover intentions, sequential meditational analysis

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Vaneet Kashyap

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Title	Pages
	<i>Candidate's declaration</i>	<i>i</i>
	<i>Abstract</i>	<i>ii</i>
	<i>Acknowledgement</i>	<i>v</i>
	<i>Table of Contents</i>	<i>vii</i>
	<i>List of Tables</i>	<i>xiv</i>
	<i>List of Figures</i>	<i>xvi</i>
	<i>Abbreviations</i>	<i>xvii</i>
Chapter-1	INTRODUCTION	1-32
1.1	Background of the Study	1
1.2	Employer Branding (EB)	4
1.2.1	Conceptual Framework and Theoretical Foundation	4
1.2.2	Employer Branding and Corporate Branding	6
1.2.3	Employer Branding and Internal Branding	7
1.2.4	Employer Branding, Organizational Identity and Identification	8
1.2.5	Employer Branding and Great Place to work for	8
1.2.6	Employer Branding Dimensions for Current research	9
1.2.6.1	Interest Value (IV)	11
1.2.6.2	Social Value (SV)	11
1.2.6.3	Economic Value (EV)	12
1.2.6.4	Application Value (AV)	12
1.2.6.5	Development Value (DV)	12
1.3	Servant Leadership (SL)	13
1.3.1	Conceptual Framework and Theoretical Foundation	13
1.3.2	Leadership Theories: An overview	15
1.3.3	Servant Leadership and Transformational Leadership	16
1.3.4	Servant Leadership and Authentic Leadership	16
1.3.5	Servant Leadership and Spiritual Leadership	17
1.3.6	Servant Leadership and Indian national culture	17
1.3.7	Servant Leadership dimensions for Current research	18
1.3.7.1	Empowerment (EMP)	19

	1.3.7.2 Standing Back (STB)	19
	1.3.7.3 Accountability (ACC)	19
	1.3.7.4 Forgiveness (FGV)	20
	1.3.7.5 Courage (CRG)	20
	1.3.7.6 Authenticity (AUT)	20
	1.3.7.7 Stewardship (STW)	21
	1.3.7.8 Humility (HUM)	21
1.4	Employee Retention (ER)	21
1.4.1	Conceptual Framework and Theoretical Foundation	21
1.4.2	Employee Retention Practices (ERP)	23
1.4.3	HRM in India and Socio-cultural Environment	24
1.4.4	HRM in India National culture	25
1.4.5	Employee Retention Practices for Current research	25
	1.4.5.1 Compensation (COMP)	26
	1.4.5.2 Job Characteristics (JC)	26
	1.4.5.3 Training (TRG)	27
	1.4.5.4 Career Development opportunities (CD)	27
	1.4.5.5 Work-life Balance (WLB)	27
1.5	Turnover Intentions (TI)	28
1.6	Rationale of the Study	29
1.7	Scope of the Study	30
1.8	Research Questions	31
1.9	Organization of the Study	31
1.10	Chapter Summary	32
Chapter-2	LITERATURE REVIEW	33-75
2.1	Employer Branding (EB)	33
2.1.1	Employer branding-An HR imperative	33
2.1.2	Characteristics of successful Employer branding	37
2.1.3	Antecedents of employer branding	37
2.1.4	Consequences of employer branding	38
2.1.5	Employer branding practices in select Indian organizations	39
2.2	Servant Leadership (SL)	40

2.2.1	Existing state of servant leadership research	40
2.2.2	Dimensions of servant leadership	42
2.2.3	Antecedents of servant leadership	43
2.2.4	Consequences of servant leadership	44
2.2.5	Servant leadership across cultures	45
2.3	Employee retention	46
2.3.1	Models of employee retention and employee turnover	46
2.3.2	Determinants of employee retention	48
2.3.3	Employee Retention-Challenges	49
2.3.4	Practices influencing employee retention	50
2.3.5	Employee turnover intentions	51
	2.3.5.1 Significance of employee withdrawal cognitions	51
	2.3.5.2 Turnover intentions- Predictor of employee turnover	52
2.4	Establishing relationships and Hypotheses development	53
2.4.1	Influence of demographics on the variables under study	53
2.4.2	Demographics and employer branding	53
2.4.3	Demographics and servant leadership	54
2.4.4	Demographics and satisfaction with employee retention practices	56
2.5	Employer Branding, satisfaction with employee retention (SERP) practices and employee turnover intentions (TI)	57
2.5.1	Interest Value (IV), satisfaction with employee retention (SERP) practices and employee turnover intentions (TI)	58
2.5.2	Social Value (SV), satisfaction with employee retention (SERP) practices and employee turnover intentions (TI)	59
2.5.3	Development Value (DV), satisfaction with employee retention (SERP) practices and employee turnover intentions (TI)	59
2.5.3	Application Value (AV), satisfaction with employee retention (SERP) practices and employee turnover intentions (TI)	60
2.5.5	Economic Value (EV), satisfaction with employee retention (SERP) practices and employee turnover intentions (TI)	61
2.6	Servant Leadership, satisfaction with employee retention (SERP)	62

	practices and employee turnover intentions (TI)	
2.6.1	Empowerment (EMP), satisfaction with employee retention (SERP) practices and employee turnover intentions (TI)	62
2.6.2	Standing Back (STB), satisfaction with employee retention (SERP) practices and employee turnover intentions (TI)	63
2.6.3	Accountability (ACC), satisfaction with employee retention (SERP) practices and employee turnover intentions (TI)	64
2.6.4	Forgiveness (FGV), satisfaction with employee retention (SERP) practices and employee turnover intentions (TI)	65
2.6.5	Courage (CRG), satisfaction with employee retention (SERP) practices and employee turnover intentions (TI)	66
2.6.6	Authenticity (AUT), satisfaction with employee retention (SERP) practices and employee turnover intentions (TI)	66
2.6.7	Stewardship (STW), satisfaction with employee retention (SERP) practices and employee turnover intentions (TI)	67
2.6.8	Humility (HUM), satisfaction with employee retention (SERP) practices and employee turnover intentions (TI)	68
2.7	Employee retention practices and turnover intentions	68
2.7.1	Compensation and turnover intentions	69
2.7.2	Job characteristics and turnover intentions	70
2.7.3	Training and turnover intentions	70
2.7.4	Career development opportunities and turnover intentions	71
2.7.5	Work-life balance and turnover intentions	72
2.8	Theoretical framework of proposed Model	72
2.9	Chapter summary	76
<hr/>		
Chapter-3	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	77-91
<hr/>		
3.1	Introduction	77
3.2	Objectives of the Study	77
3.3	Research Design	78
3.4	Description of the Sample	79
3.5	Data Collection-Procedure description	80
3.6	Description of Research Instruments	81

3.6.1	Information pertaining to employee demographics	82
3.6.2	Employer Branding	82
3.6.3	Servant Leadership Survey (SLS)	83
3.6.4	Employee Retention	83
	3.6.4.1 Retention Factor Measurement Scale (RFMS)	84
3.7	Statistical control Variables	86
3.8	Analytical Approach to study Research Questions	86
3.9	Chapter Summary	92
<hr/> Chapter-4 ANALYSIS AND RESULTS		93-138
4.1	Introduction	93
4.2	Data Screening and Normality tests	93
4.3	Convergent and Discriminant validity of Research Instruments	94
	4.3.1 Validation of Employer Branding Scale	94
	4.3.4 Validation of Servant Leadership Survey (SLS)	97
	4.3.4 Validation of Retention Factor Measurement Scale (RFMS)	100
4.4	Results of Descriptive Statistics	104
	4.4.1 Descriptive statistics and Independent Variables	104
	4.4.2 Descriptive statistics and Dependent Variables	105
4.5	Investigations related to Research Questions	107
	4.5.1 Testing Hypotheses developed to address RQ1	107
	4.5.2 Testing Hypotheses developed to address RQ2	112
	4.5.3 Testing Hypotheses developed to address RQ3	118
	4.5.4 Testing Hypotheses developed to address RQ4	123
	4.5.5 Testing Hypotheses developed to address RQ5	126
	4.5.6 Testing Hypotheses developed to address RQ6	131
	4.5.7 Testing Hypotheses developed to address RQ7	133
4.6	Chapter Summary	136
<hr/> Chapter-5 DISCUSSION		139-175
5.1	Introduction	139
5.2	Accomplishment of objectives of the study	139
	5.2.1 Accomplishment of objective 1 of the study	139
	5.2.1.1 Perceived employer branding and employee's age	141

5.2.1.2	Perceived employer branding and employee's gender	144
5.2.1.3	Perceived employer branding and employee's hierarchical level	145
5.2.1.4	Perceived employer branding and employee's organizational sector	146
5.2.2	Accomplishment of objective 2 of the study	148
5.2.2.1	Perceived servant leadership and employee's age	149
5.2.2.2	Perceived servant leadership and employee's gender	152
5.2.2.3	Perceived servant leadership and employee's hierarchical level	154
5.2.2.4	Perceived servant leadership and employee's organizational sector	154
5.2.3	Accomplishment of objective 3 of the study	154
5.2.3.1	Satisfaction with retention practices and employee's age	155
5.2.3.2	Satisfaction with retention practices and employee's gender	157
5.2.3.3	Satisfaction with retention practices and employee's hierarchical level	159
5.2.3.4	Satisfaction with retention practices and employee's organizational sector	160
5.2.4	Accomplishment of objective 4 of the study	162
5.2.4.1	Employer branding and satisfaction with retention practices	162
5.2.4.2	Employer branding and turnover intentions	164
5.2.5	Accomplishment of objective 5 of the study	166
5.2.5.1	Servant leadership, satisfaction with retention practices and turnover intentions	166
5.2.6	Accomplishment of objective 6 of the study	170
5.3	Chapter Summary	175
Chapter-6	CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS	177-182
6.1	Conclusion	177
6.2	Implications	179

6.3	Chapter summary	182
Chapter-7	LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS	183-186
7.1	Limitations	183
7.2	Future Research Directions	184
7.3	Chapter Summary	186
	BIBLIOGRAPHY	187-227
	ANNEXURE 1 Instrument for Data Collection	229-238

LIST OF TABLES

S. No.	TABLE NO.	TITLE	PAGE NO.
1.	1.1	Employer branding dimensions	6
2.	1.2	Servant leadership dimensions	14
3.	2.1	Employer branding research works and their outcomes	35
4.	2.2	India's best companies to work for	39
5.	2.3	Dimensions of servant leadership	43
6.	2.4	Consequences of servant leadership	45
7.	2.5	Determinants of employee retention and turnover	49
8.	2.6	Practices influencing employee retention	50
9.	3.1	Demographic profile of respondents	80
10.	3.2	Reliability coefficients (α) for the variables under study	85
11.	3.3	Statistical Analyses associated with each research question	87
12.	4.1	Normality statistics and Shapiro-Wilk's level of significance	94
13.	4.2	Results of Confirmatory factor Analysis and Overall Reliability and Validity indices for Employer Branding Scale	96
14.	4.3	Results of Confirmatory factor Analysis and Overall Reliability and Validity indices for Servant Leadership Survey (SLS)	98
15.	4.4	Results of Confirmatory factor Analysis and Overall Reliability and Validity indices for Retention Factor Measurement Scale (RFMS)	102
16.	4.5	Mean, SD and intercorrelations between the independent dimensions of variables under study	106
17.	4.6	Mean, SD and intercorrelations between the variables under study	107
18.	4.7	Results of one-way ANOVA for Employer branding dimensions depending upon respondent's age	108
19.	4.8	Results of T-test for equality of Means of Employer Branding Dimensions depending upon respondent' Gender	109
20.	4.9	Results of one-way ANOVA for Employer branding dimensions depending upon hierarchical level	110
21.	4.10	Results of T-test for equality of Means of Employer Branding Dimensions depending upon organizational sector (Private versus public)	112
22.	4.11	Results of one-way ANOVA for Servant Leadership dimensions depending upon respondent's age	113
23.	4.12	Results of T-test for equality of Means of Servant Leadership Dimensions depending upon respondent's gender	115
24.	4.13	Results of one-way ANOVA for servant leadership dimensions depending upon hierarchical level	116
25.	4.14	Results of T-test for equality of Means of Servant Leadership Dimensions depending upon organizational sector (public versus private)	118
.	4.15	Results of one-way ANOVA for satisfaction with employee retention practices depending upon respondent's age	119

S. No.	TABLE NO.	TITLE	PAGE NO.
27.	4.16	Results of T-test for equality of Means of satisfaction with employee retention practices depending upon respondent' Gender	121
28.	4.17	Results of one-way ANOVA for employee satisfaction with retention practices depending upon hierarchical level	122
29.	4.18	Results of T-test for equality of Means of satisfaction with employee retention practices depending upon organizational sector (Private versus public)	123
30.	4.19	Mean, SD and intercorrelations among the employer branding dimensions, SERP and turnover intentions	124
31.	4.20	Result of Multiple hierarchical regressions for testing the impact employer branding SERP and turnover intentions	124
32.	4.21	Result of multiple hierarchical regression for testing the impact employer branding dimensions on SERP and turnover intentions	126
33.	4.22	Mean, SD and intercorrelations among the servant leadership dimensions, SERP and turnover intentions	128
34.	4.23	Result of Multiple hierarchical regression for testing the impact servant leadership SERP and turnover intentions	128
35.	4.24	Result of Hierarchical multiple regression for testing the impact servant leadership dimensions on SERP and turnover intentions	130
36.	4.25	Mean, S.D and intercorrelations among employee retention practices and turnover intentions	132
37.	4.26	Result of Hierarchical multiple regression for testing the impact of satisfaction with retention practices on turnover intentions	132
38.	4.27	Results of Sequential Mediation Analyses (PROCESS, Hayes, 2013)	134
39.	4.28	Summary of Results obtained in the study	136

LIST OF FIGURES

S. No.	FIGURE NO.	TITLE	PAGE NO.
1.	1.1	The employer brand in action (Source: Rosethorn, H. (2009), <i>The Employer Brand: Keeping faith with the deal</i> , Gower Publishing Ltd, Surrey, England)	6
2.	2.1	Proposed Model in the study	76
3.	4.1	Direct and sequential Model with Path coefficients	134

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

S. NO.	Abbreviation	Full Form
1.	IV	Interest value
2.	SV	Social value
3.	DV	Development value
4.	AV	Application value
5.	EV	Economic value
6.	EB	Employer Branding
7.	EMP	Empowerment
8.	STB	Standing back
9.	ACC	Accountability
10.	AUT	Authenticity
11.	HUM	Humility
12.	CRG	Courage
13.	FGV	Forgiveness
14.	STW	Stewardship
15.	SL	Servant leadership
16.	COMP	Compensation
17.	JC	Job characteristics
18.	TRG	Training
19.	CD	Career development
20.	WLB	Work-life balance
21.	SERP	Satisfaction with employee retention practices
22.	TI	Turnover intentions
23.	CV	Control variables
24.	<i>IV</i>	Independent variables
25.	<i>DV</i>	Dependent variables

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Employee retention has always been an important and crucial issue facing the organizations worldwide. Specifically, employee retention has become more crucial for Indian organizations. The findings of the study by Hay Group India in 2013 revealed that, India is one of the developing economies which ranked 1 on global list with an expected attrition rate of 26.3% in 2013 in comparison to the other economies of the world such as Russia, Indonesia, Brazil, United States of America, China and United Kingdom (Biswas, 2013). On one side where Indian organizations are struggling with high employee turnover rates, the other side despite of less industrialization in developing nations (Shashtri, 2008) India as one of the emerging economies of the world persuaded many global organizations to enter in its potential market making the competition to attract and retain talent more intense (Ready, Hill & Conger, 2008). Also, the continuous changing expectations of 21st century employees has made the task of the employers more complex to design and implement practices that makes an organization a Great place to work for and an employer brand in itself (Rosethorn, 2009). In the scenario full of intense competition and dynamism, it becomes important and vital for the organizations in India to adopt and continuously build on best possible policies and practices that helps employees in the fulfillment of their expectations that may enhance retention.

The conventional strategies to handle employee turnover are now inapt for the dynamic expectations of the employees worldwide (Cappelli, 2000). Organizations must focus on the market driven retention strategies in comparison to organizational strategies as movement of the employees in competing organizations is influenced by market dynamics (Cappelli, 2000). In order to remain competitive in the market, the organizations need constant development of innovative human resource practices that helps extend employee's association with the organizations for longer (Agarwala, 2003) as employees perceive that investment in the innovative human resource practices results in the achievement of goals. In developing and implementing the policies and practices, the organizations should be proactive as the results could be drastic for the organizations lacking in employee's satisfaction and retention measures (Michelman, 2003). The organizations are therefore proactively making the

necessary efforts to attract and retain talent by adopting several mechanisms. Apart from the following the benchmark practices, a recent trend which is being adopted by the organizations is becoming the 'employer-of-choice' and focus on the development of employer branding strategies. Company's efforts to build a strong employer brand among their employees can be guided by following the benchmarking practices. Becoming an employer brand has recently gained the attention of the employers as employees want to work for the best employers and this result in lower turnover rates. Acquiring the best talent for the organization, maintaining benefit needs, offering best career development services and ultimately retaining the talented employees are the key pillars for becoming the employer-of-choice (Fitz-enz, 2009). Creating a positive brand image in the minds of existing and potential employees is the key concern for the organizations as employees feel pride in working for the organizations having positive public image in comparison with the organizations which are not regarded as favourable to work for (Phillips & Connell, 2008). The most cited employer branding expectations were "recognition as employer-of-choice" and "ease in attracting talent pool" (HR Focus, 2006). It is because of this reason that potential and existing employees want to work with and organization that possess strong brand image. So maintaining a positive organizational image as a strong employer brand to work for might work as a solution to handle high employee turnover rates. Keeping in mind the different aspects of an employer branding mechanism discussed above the current research study aimed at investigating the process of employer branding in select Indian organizations and its impact on employee's satisfaction with retention practices and reducing their turnover intentions.

Another important and crucial organizational aspect that can help alter employee's decision to continue their association with their employers is the organizational leadership. Organizational leaders are the one who actually represents the organization and its policies in front of its employees (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). Leaders are the ultimate resources for any employee to work smoothly in any organization. Employees' behaviour towards the organization is driven by their relationships with the leaders. So leader's actions and behaviors while implementing the various policies and practices in the organizations plays a crucial and vital role in handling employee's behavior at workplace. Leader's behavior while implementing these activities has a significant impact on relationship with their employees and the trust which employees have in them because of fair outcomes, procedures, open communication and interactions (Whitener, 1997). Different leadership styles adopted by

organizational leaders have varied impact on employee's behavior at workplace. One particular style which truly shows concern for employees, their career aspirations and believes in their development is the serving style of leadership. Servant Leadership theory is the emerging theory of leadership which has become popular choice for the academicians recently (Bobbio, Van Dierendonck, & Manganelli, 2013; Hunter, Neubert, Perry, Witt, Penney, & Weinberger, 2013; Jaramillo, Grisaffe, Chonko, & Roberts, 2009a, 2009b; Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). Servant leadership style was also found to be effective in handling employee's turnover cognitions (Hunter et al., 2013; Jaramillo et al., 2009b) and enhancing retention rates.

Further, organizational policies and practices also play a vital role in handling employee turnover issue. An extensive amount of empirical research has focused on investigating the impact of retention policies on employee turnover from an organization's point of view (Delery et al., 2000; Shaw et al., 1998; Vandenberg et al., 1999; Zheng & Lamond, 2010). Conversely, few studies have been carried out to view the impact of these practices on employee turnover intention from the employee's point of view (Guchait & Cho, 2010). In other words, few studies have been conducted that determine what the employee has gained out of the HR practices followed by organizations, and whether they are enough for the employees to decide whether they wish to stay in the organization. Also, the firm's overall retention success depends upon the individual responses to particular retention practices (Reiche, 2008). Despite existing literature emphasizing the importance of HR practices in reducing turnover intentions (Arthur, 1994; Salvich et al., 2014; Huselid, 1995), research investigating the impact of processes or mechanisms through which HRM practices influence various organizational outcomes is still in early stages (Paré & Tremblay, 2007). Zheng and Lamond (2010) further highlighted the need to identify key variables that in specific contexts might influence employee turnover, thus explaining the relationship between HR practices and employee turnover intentions.

A major gap in HRM literature is that limited studies in this area have been conducted in the Asian context, and those conducted, lack a clear framework (Budhwar & Debrah, 2001). To fill this gap, Budhwar and Debrah (2009) called for further research so that a clear framework highlighting the context specific nature of HRM function may be presented to better understand and analyse the problem of employee turnover. One of the reasons behind the absence of a clear framework for the study of HRM practices in the Asian context is the

prevalence of theories in the Anglo-American context which are not applicable to developing economies like India (Meyer, 2006) as these economies present a different context in which HR practices must be viewed (Absar, Nimalathasan & Mahmood, 2012). Also, the firm's HR practices are likely to vary with the context which further limits the adoption of universal best practices (Demirbag, Collings, Tatoglu, Mellahi, & Wood, 2014). To address the gaps identified above, the current research aims to investigate the impact of context specific retention practices on employee turnover intentions in Indian organizations. The discussion on two different contextual variables discussed above (Employer branding, servant leadership) constitutes the two independent variables for the current study. The research views these variables important in context to Indian organizations in explaining the satisfaction level of employee with employee retention practices (dependent variable) which further reduces employee turnover intentions (dependent variable) because socio-cultural environment and national culture are the determinants of HR systems in India. The following sections highlight the importance and conceptual framework of the independent and dependent variables for the study.

1.2 EMPLOYER BRANDING (EB)

1.2.1 Conceptual Framework and Theoretical Foundation

“*Employer Brand*” as an idea had emerged in early 90s, and a number of researchers compete to claim its creation (Rosethorn, 2009 p. 3). According to Rosethorn (2009 p. 4) an employer brand emerged from two different roots. The first root being power of a ‘*corporate brand*’ whose growth is linked to the ‘*recruitment communication*’. The second root lies in the occupational psychology that give arise to the idea of ‘*Psychological contract*’. For many years these two roots operated in parallel in organizations but, during last decade the two roots clubbed together prompt the concept ‘*Employer Brand*’ into the focus of attention (Rosethorn, 2009 p. 4). The concept has already taken the top position in the corporate agenda because of the emerging issue of supply and demand of talent (Rosethorn, 2009). The role of employer brand has become all the more important to deal with the changing expectations of the 21st century workforce entering the workplaces (Rosethorn, 2009 p. 16). Before entering into the detailed discussions on the similarities and differences in the concepts related to employer branding it is important to understand and reach to the conclusive definition of the term employer branding. The term “*Employer branding*” has been first coined by Ambler and Barrow (1996) as a contribution to the field of marketing. The authors (Ambler & Barrow,

1996) defined employer brand of an organization as “the package of functional, economic and psychological benefits provided by the employment and is identified with the employing organizations”. The main role of the employer brand is to provide a coherent framework for management to simplify and focus priorities, increasing productivity and improve recruitment, retention and commitment”. Lloyd (2002) defined employer brand “as the organization’s efforts to communicate potential and current employees that organization is a desirable/ great place to work for”. Mayo (2001) defined employer brand as “It is what is communicated-consciously or unconsciously-to every employee or prospective employee”. Walker (2006) defined employer brand as “a set of attributes that make an organization distinctive and attractive to those people who will feel an affinity with it and deliver their best performance within it”. After the strong deliberation and investigation into the definitions of an employer brand as proposed by different researchers and practitioners cited above, Rosethorn (2009) highlights the similarities and differences in the definitions proposed. The author (Rosethorn, 2009) is of the view that most of the researchers limit the definition to only attributes and features of an employer brand and they fail to express these attributes into tangible and unique features that may be identified with the employment brand and is a relevant source of motivation for the employees. Also, the definitions proposed by researchers cited above does not distinctly and persistently pointed out that there is no use of an employer brand if it does not serve the purpose of an organization and enhance the employee satisfaction (Rosethorn, 2009 p. 19). Keeping in mind the limitation identified in the existing literature of employer branding definitions Rosethorn (2009) proposed a more convincing definition of an employer brand.

Rosethorn (2009) defined an employer brand as “An employer brand is in essence the two-way deal between an organization and its people-the reasons they choose to join and the reasons they choose to and are permitted-to stay. The art of employer branding is to articulate this deal in a way this is distinctive, compelling and relevant to the individual, and to ensure that it is delivered throughout the lifecycle of the employee with that organization”. The current research study follows this conceptualization because it consider employer branding to be comprised of the aspects that included a validated definition, an employee experience and the reality of the delivery of an employer brand. The conceptual framework proposed by Rosethorn (2009) is shown in figure 1 below. The summary of definitions of employer branding proposed in existing literature is also shown in table 1 below. Existing literature

further provide insights on the concepts related to employer branding like corporate branding, internal branding and external branding (Foster, Punjaisri & Cheng, 2010). Understanding of similarities and differences between the above mentioned related concepts is important for the further explanations of the concept employer branding for the current study. The following sections highlights the differences and similarities between the concepts related to employer branding.

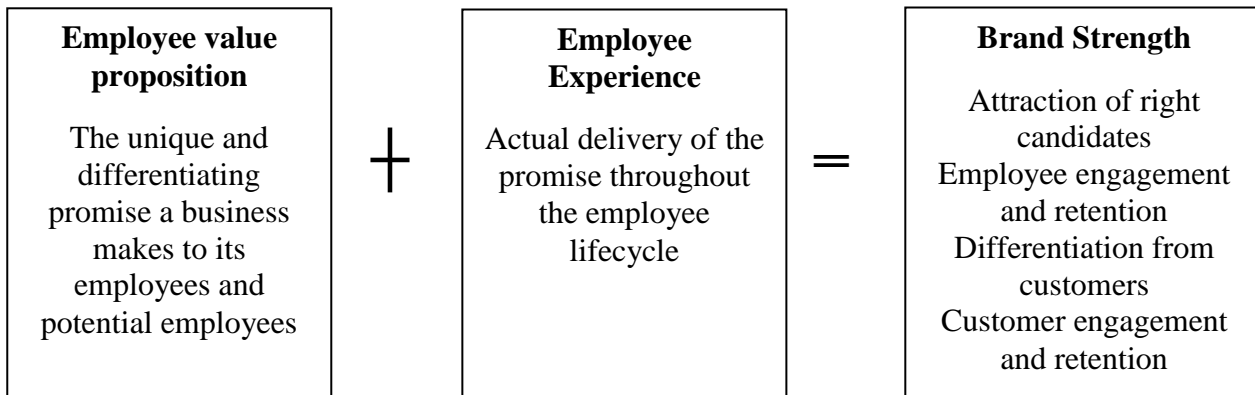


Figure 1.1: The employer brand in action (Source: Rosethorn, H. (2009), *The Employer Brand: Keeping faith with the deal*, Gower Publishing Ltd, Surrey, England)

Table 1.1: Employer branding definitions

Authors	Definitions
Ambler and Barrow (1996)	“The package of functional, economic and psychological benefits provided by the employment and is identified with the employing organizations. The main role of the employer brand is to provide a coherent framework for management to simplify and focus priorities, increasing productivity and improve recruitment, retention and commitment”.
Lloyd (2002)	“The organization’s efforts to communicate potential and current employees that organization is a desirable/ great place to work for”.
Mayo (2001)	“It is what is communicated-consciously or unconsciously-to every employee or prospective employee”
Walker (2006)	“A set of attributes that make an organization distinctive and attractive to those people who will feel an affinity with it and deliver their best performance within it”.
Rosethorn (2009)	“An employer brand is in essence the two-way deal between an organization and its people-the reasons they choose to join and the reasons they choose to and are permitted-to stay. The art of employer branding is to articulate this deal in a way this is distinctive, compelling and relevant to the individual, and to ensure that it is delivered throughout the lifecycle of the employee with that organization”.

1.2.2 Employer Branding and Corporate Branding

Existing literature clearly defined the related concepts like corporate branding, internal branding and external branding (Foster, Punjaisri & Cheng, 2010; Punjaisri, Wilson &

Evanschitzky, 2009; Khan, 2009). However, the relationship between these related concepts is still in infancy stage in branding literature (Foster, Punjaisri & Cheng, 2010). This section highlights the similarities and differences between employer branding and corporate branding to better understand the phenomenon under study. Extant literature reveals that the concept employer branding is closely linked to corporate branding because these two different concepts share common theoretical and conceptual foundation (Moroko & Uncles, 2008). Although all the major stakeholders like employees, customers, suppliers, distributors and shareholders are impacted by both corporate brand and employer brand (Moroko & Uncles, 2008) however, for an employer brand the potential and existing employees are of central concern and more specifically a primary target market (Moroko & Uncles, 2008). The characteristics that an employer brand and a corporate brand share in common are being known and noticeable, relevant and resonant, differentiated from competitors (Moroko and Uncles, 2008). Fulfillment of psychological contract and unintended appropriation of brand values are two characteristics that differentiate the concepts employer branding and corporate branding. More specifically an employer brand is like fulfilment of a psychological contract between employees and their employers (Moroko & Uncles, 2008) in a same manner as corporate branding is like a promise of organizations to its customers (Olins, 2004 as cited by Foster, Punjaisri & Cheng, 2010).

1.2.3 Employer Branding and Internal Branding

As per the definition of employer brand as proposed by Lloyd (2002) although employer branding is all about communicating the potential and existing employees that the organizations is a great place to work for however, a majority of research studies limit its scope up to effective communication in the recruitment process (Knox & Freeman, 2006; Mosley, 2007). The research studies although claimed that the primary interest of an employer brand is to show how an organization expresses its brand to potential employees however, the employer branding literature fails to address that how it should be done for the existing employees of an organizations (Foster, Punjaisri & Cheng, 2010). Here the role of internal branding concept has become all the more important which is actually focusing on the existing employees. But again the literature on internal branding fails to answer how the existing employees have first been recruited in the organizations (Foster, Punjaisri & Cheng, 2010). Mosley (2007) while proposing the conceptual framework of an employer brand experience also suggested that the scope of an employer branding initiative should go beyond recruitment process and must include the other employment practices such as orientation, recognition etc.

Internal branding concept is further helpful in extending the scope of employer branding in a sense that internal branding initiatives such as training for the advancement in the career encourage employees to decide whether they wish to remain with the organization (Punjaisri & Wilson, 2007) and ultimately results in enhancing the overall employment brand experience (Backhaus & Tikoo, 2004). The researchers also suggested that the internal branding strategy of an organization should be in alignment with the employer brand strategy to achieve successful corporate brand management (Foster, Punjaisri & Cheng, 2010).

1.2.4 Employer Branding, Organizational Identity and Identification

Dutton, Dukerich and Harquail (1994) defined an organizational identification as “a cognitive linking between definition of an organization and definition of self”. The researchers (Dutton et al., 1994) further proposes that an employee’s own perception of organizations is termed as organizational identity. Organizational identity has been described as “central, enduring and distinctive attributes within an organization” (Albert & Whetten, 1985) and “what employees feel about their organization as central, enduring and distinctive attributes as a place to work” (Dutton et al., 1994). Organizational identity definition as proposed by researchers above is closely related to the definition of employer branding as proposed by Lloyd (2002) according to which employer branding is about communicating to the potential and existing staff that an organization is a desired place to work for. Existing literature supports the fact that the empirical investigation of organizational identity and attractiveness is crucial to study together because organizations develop an attractive employer image to attract talent while maintaining that image is in accordance with the employees’ organizational identity perception (Lievens, Van Hove & Anseel, 2007). Also research studies claimed that more positive organizational identity perceived by employees is strongly associated with employees’ strong identification with the organization (Dutton et al., 1994; Dutton and Dukerich, 1991; Glavas & Godwin, 2013). Existing literature also depicts that it is more likely that employees are strongly identified with their organizations if they perceive their employer’s brand image to be strong and positive (Backhaus & Tikoo, 2004). It is evident by the detailed discussion above that the concepts employer branding and organizational identity are strongly linked and are strong predictors of organizational identification.

1.2.5 Employer Branding and Great Place to Work for

In literature the term employer branding has often been interchangeably used with other terms such as Best Employers, Employer of choice and great place to work for (Joo & Mclean,

2006). This section highlights the relationship between employer branding and great places to work for. Great place to work for institute defined a great workplace as “one where employees trust the people they work for, have pride in work they do and enjoy the company of people they work with” (Chaturvedi et al., 2014). Great place to work for institute and The economic Times together conducts annual survey to identify best organizations to work for in India. According the findings of the survey of 2014, it was found that the companies which were identified as great places to work returned 4 times more than BSE return of 51% during 2008-2013. The study also highlights the factors which make Indian organizations great place to work and the factors that inhibit such status. It was found that the factors that are leading strengths of Indian organizations are friendliness, non-discrimination, pride and trust in the competency of management. Almost 80% employees feel positive about these dimensions (Chaturvedi et al., 2014). On the other side, absence of collaboration in decision making, favouritism and politicking by managers, absence of unique benefits are some of the areas that almost 60% of the employees feel should be improved in Indian organizations. It was also revealed in the study that the great work places are successful in the retention of talent in comparison to the firms in the same industry. So creation and maintaining an employer brand which demonstrate that the organization is great place to work can result in long-term business success (Chaturvedi et al., 2014). As consumer will not purchase the product again if they are not satisfied with its performance (Patwardhan, Flora, & Gupta, 2010; Patwardhan et al., 2009), in the same manner employees if feel that their expectations have not been met, their intentions to turnover increases.

1.2.6 Employer Branding Dimensions for Current research

Researchers in the field of employment branding have proposed different dimensions to measure the value of an employer brand as perceived by potential and existing workforce of any organization. For an instance Lievens and Highhouse (2003) proposed the institutional-symbolic framework to measure the employer attractiveness. According to the authors (Lievens & Highhouse, 2003) description of an organization or job in terms of factual, objective and concrete attributes that an organization or a job may possess or not are termed as instrumental attributes. Instrumental attributes are solely not enough to attract the employees to a company. Rather, the employees will be attracted to an organization depending upon the symbolic meanings with which they identify an organization (Lievens & Highhouse, 2003). The description of a job or an organization in terms intangible and subjective attributes are

termed as symbolic attributes. Various instrumental job and organizational attributes includes characteristics such as benefits, pay, flexible working hours, location of the organization near one's hometown and bonuses etc. and the symbolic attributes includes sincerity, robustness, competence, innovativeness and prestige (Lievens & Highhouse, 2003; Van Hoye, Bas, Cromheecke & Lievens, 2013). It is important to highlight here that the various instrumental and symbolic attributes of any organization varies with the type of industry and sector (Lievens, Van Hoye & Schreurs, 2005). For instance in case of military context the instrumental characteristics include social/team activities, physical activities, advancement, travel opportunities, job security, task diversity, structure and educational opportunities etc. and the symbolic attributes include sincerity, excitement, cheerfulness, competence, ruggedness and prestige (Lievens, Van Hoye & Schreurs, 2005).

Further, following the definition proposed by Ambler and Barrow (1996), five captivating dimensions of an employer brand has been conceptualized by Berthon, Ewing and Hah (2005). The researchers (Berthon et al., 2005) categorized employer branding dimensions into five practices offered by the employing company that generates value for the potential and existing employees of an organizations. As per the definition proposed by Ambler and Barrow (1996), employer branding is “a package of functional, economic and psychological benefits provided by the employment and is identified with the employing organizations”. Functional and economic benefits include safe working environment, provision of necessary resources to carry out jobs effectively, payment for services, attractive working environment, competitive pay structure and cutting edge technology etc (Barrow & Mosley, 2011). Emotional and psychological benefits are equally important because it has been recognized that motivation has a great role to play than pay, bonuses, incentives and coercion (Barrow & Mosley, 2011). Various emotional and psychological benefits include value of total employment experience, satisfaction from the tasks performed, supporting colleagues, belief in the values and purpose of an organization (Barrow and Mosley, 2011). Keeping in mind the basic characteristics of the attributes discussed above Berthon et al., (2005) have identified the five dimensions incorporating employer brand value as *interest value* and *social value* serving the psychological benefits, *development value* and *application value* serving functional benefits and *economic value* serving economic benefits. Some researchers have accessed the employer attractiveness scale developed by Berthon et al. (2005) to measure the employer branding from the perspective of potential applicants (Alniaçık & Alniaçık, 2012) and others have accessed it

from the perspective of existing employees of an organization (Schlager, Bodderas, Maas & Luc Cachelin, 2011; Biswas and Suar, 2013). The current study conceptualized the dimensions proposed by Berthon et al., (2005) from the perspective of existing employees of an organization. The following section describes the dimensions of employer branding in details.

1.2.6.1 Interest Value (IV)

Interest value is a kind of psychological benefit that is provided by the employing organization and is identified with the employment. According to the researchers (Berthon et al., 2005) '*interest value*' gauges the extent to which the organizations are able to utilize their employee's skills to develop innovative products and services, provides great work environment and believes in following novel work practices". Other researchers (Schlager, Bodderas, Maas & Luc Cachelin, 2011) have also provided additional variables to be included in the interest value dimension proposed by Berthon et al. (2005). According to Schlager, Bodderas, Maas and Luc Cachelin (2011) 'challenging tasks' and 'broad varieties of tasks' are also important to be considered while evaluating the interest value dimension of an employer brand as interesting job characteristics were found to be associated with higher levels of job satisfaction. The findings from the research study by Backhaus and Tikoo (2004) and Saari and Judge (2004) also support the value attached with interesting job characteristics in enhancing overall job satisfaction. The dimension interest value has also been termed as diversity value in the existing literature (Schlager, Bodderas, Maas & Luc Cachelin, 2011).

1.2.6.2 Social Value (SV)

Social value dimension of employer branding is also regarded as psychological benefit provided by the employment. Berthon et al., (2005) define '*Social value*' as "the value that gauges the extent to which an employer provides a working environment that is full of fun and happiness, provides good collegial relationships and a team atmosphere". Some other researchers (Schlager, Bodderas, Maas & Luc Cachelin, 2011) also defines social value of an employer brand in terms of 'strong team spirit', 'friendly relationships between employees', 'respectful environment' and 'competent co-workers'. The dimension social value and its characteristics were also found to drive positive employee attitudes (Saari & Judge, 2004). The dimension social value has also been studied in context of social exchange, citizenship behavior and justice (Schlager, Bodderas, Maas & Luc Cachelin, 2011). Social value has also been found to be strongly associated with employee identification that may ultimately results

in enhancing employee commitment (Schlager, Bodderas, Maas & Luc Cachelin, 2011) and thus may possibly enhance employee retention in organizations.

1.2.6.3 Economic Value (EV)

Economic value dimension of employer branding is associated with economic benefit provided by the employing organization. '*Economic value*' has been defined as "the value that assesses the extent to which an organization provides an above average salary, compensation package, job security and promotional opportunities" Berthon et al. (2005). 'Fair number of holidays, 'reasonable retirement benefits' and some other monetary and non monetary benefits are also regarded as important in terms of assessing economic value as an important employer branding dimension (Schlager, Bodderas, Maas & Luc Cachelin, 2011). Existing literature also revealed that organization's provision of providing benefits helps in attraction and retention of employees (Ash & Bendapudi, 1996). Also, it was found that enhancing economic value such as increasing salary is directly associated with enhanced job satisfaction (Malka and Chatman, 2003) and organization identification (Lee, 1971). Economic value that includes competitive remuneration and recognition is also associated with the positive employee attitudes such as high intentions to stay in organizations (Chew & Chan, 2008).

1.2.6.4 Application Value (AV)

The dimension application value is associated with functional benefits provided by the employing organization. Berthon et al. (2005) defined '*Application value*' as "the value that assesses the degree to which employing company provides an opportunity for the employee to apply what they have learned and to teach others, in an environment that is both customer oriented and humanitarian".

1.2.6.5 Development Value (DV)

Development value dimension of employer branding is linked with the functional benefits provided by the employment. Berthon et al. (2005) defined "*Development value*" as the "value that assesses the degree to which organizations provides recognition, self-worth and confidence, coupled with career-enhancing experience and a spring-board for future employment". 'Strong mentoring culture', 'training opportunities', and 'empowering environment' are also found to be important in the assessing the development value provided by the employment (Schlager, Bodderas, Maas & Luc Cachelin, 2011). Any kind of support received from the organization is also important in terms of development value as it is strongly

associated with organizational commitment (Tansky & Cohen, 2001) and enhanced organizational identification (Lee, 1971).

1.3 SERVANT LEADERSHIP

1.3.1 Conceptual Framework and Theoretical Foundation

The concept ‘Servant Leadership’ has been first originated by Robert K. Greenleaf in his essay ‘*The Servant as Leader*’ in 1970. Behind the conceptualization of the term servant leadership lies 40 years of work experience that Robert K. Greenleaf had in AT&T (Van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2010). Existing literature revealed that Robert K. Greenleaf was influenced by a lot of people (Frick, 2004). Although amongst all the influencers in Greenleaf’s life, his father was a most notable personality who actually was regarded as a role model for servant-hood (Van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2010) however, more specifically Greenleaf was more inspired by the term ‘servant-leader’ while reading a novel entitled ‘*Journey to the east*’ by Hermen Hesse (Van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2010).

The writer of the novel ‘*Journey to the east*’ Hermen Hesse narrated that when he has gone on a pilgrimage, there was a person named Leo, who takes care of the well-being of the group, plays music and looks after the routine tasks (Van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2010). Further narrator revealed that Leo disappears in between and the group on the pilgrimage falls in to the state of disorganization and untidiness. Years after, the narrator contacted the Order to which the group belonged. It emerged that Leo was the official head of the Order, the spiritual guide and the leader (Van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2010). Through the story described in the novel ‘*Journey to the east*’ Greenleaf discern that the role of the servant and a leader can be combined in one person and for a real leader this may be a very aspect (Van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2010). In his essay ‘*The servant as Leader*’ Greenleaf himself stated that the key to the great leader’s greatness is that the leader is the servant first (Greenleaf, 1977).

Greenleaf (1977) defined servant leadership as “The servant-leader is servant first. It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead. The best test is: do those served grow as persons: do they, while being served, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants? And, what is the effect on the least privileged in society; will they benefit, or, at least, not be further deprived”? Since the inception of the term servant leadership, various researchers have tried to define servant leadership style in different ways. Van Dierendonck and Patterson

(2010) defined servant leadership style as “a leadership style that is beneficial to organizations by awakening, engaging, and developing employees, as well as beneficial to followers or employees by engaging people as whole individuals with heart, mind and spirit”. Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) described servant leadership “as leadership style that includes altruistic calling, which is the motivation of leaders to put others’ needs and interests ahead of their own, and organizational stewardship, which is orienting others toward benefiting and serving the community”.

Reinke (2004) define servant leadership as “A servant-leader is one who is committed to the growth of both the individual and the organization, and who works to build community within organizations”. Also, servant leadership at a workplace is defined as “about helping others to accomplish shared objectives by facilitating individual development, empowerment, and collective work that is consistent with health and long-term welfare of followers” (Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko, 2004; Graham, 1991).

Table 1.2: Servant leadership definitions

Authors	Definitions
Greenleaf (1977)	“The servant-leader is servant first. It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead. The best test is: do those served grow as persons: do they, while being served, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants? And, what is the effect on the least privileged in society; will they benefit, or, at least, not be further deprived”?
Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko, (2004), Graham, (1991)	“Servant leadership is about helping others to accomplish shared objectives by facilitating individual development, empowerment, and collective work that is consistent with health and long-term welfare of followers”
Reinke (2004)	“A servant-leader is one who is committed to the growth of both the individual and the organization, and who works to build community within organizations”.
Barbuto and Wheeler (2006)	“Servant leadership style is a leadership style that includes altruistic calling, which is the motivation of leaders to put others’ needs and interests ahead of their own, and organizational stewardship, which is orienting others toward benefiting and serving the community”.
Van Dierendonck and Patterson (2010)	“A leadership style that is beneficial to organizations by awakening, engaging, and developing employees, as well as beneficial to followers or employees by engaging people as whole individuals with heart, mind and spirit”.

1.3.2 Leadership theories: An overview

Existing leadership theories claimed different ways to influence leadership success. The first among these leadership theories is trait approach to leadership. According to the trait approach theory of leadership, different attributes of leaders such as values, skills, personality and motives are responsible for leadership success (Robbins, Judge, & Sanghi, 2009). The basic assumption on which this trait approach stands is that few people are born leaders and exhibits natural traits which differentiate them from others. The trait approach theory of leadership fails because of the lack of empirical evidence on specific traits that could bring desired leadership success (Rao, 2009).

Then a shift in the focus of leadership theories inclined towards behavioral approaches to leadership. The basic premise of the behavioral approach to leadership lies on the fact that what actually managers do on the job (Luthans, 2013). Also, the behavioral approaches to leadership suggest that it is the specific behaviors that differentiate leaders from other people of similar capacity (Robbins, Judge, & Vohra, 2012). Literature although suggests that the trait approaches and behavioral approaches to leadership should integrate to bring desired leadership effectiveness however, these two theories fail to address the role of situational considerations that influence the leadership effectiveness (Yukl, 2011; Stephen, Judge, & Sanghi, 2009). More and more research on leadership has resulted in more complexities (Chaudhari & Dhar, 2007).

This limitation in the early approaches to leadership resulted in the emergence of contingency theories of leadership (Nelson & Quick, 2012). Variability in leader's behavior from one situation to the other describes the descriptive approach to contingency theory whereas leader's most effective behaviors in each kind of situation describe prescriptive approach to contingency theories (Luthans, 2013). The leadership theories may be compared on the basis of focus either on the leader or the follower. Leader versus follower centered theories are defined on the basis of "the extent to which a theory is focused on either the leader or the follower". Most of the theories of leadership that belonged to the contingency approach fall under the category of leader centric theories. There are a very few theories of leadership that are follower centric and the examples to these theories include empowerment theory, attribution theory, emotional contagion theory of charisma etc. (Yukl, 2011; Robbins, Judge, & Vohra, 2012). The leadership theories that give priority to the interests and well-being of the followers, self-sacrifice and are specifically oriented towards the development of people have

increasingly been drawing attention of researchers (Jaramillo et al. 2009a, 2009b; Van Dierendonck and Nuijten 2011; Bobbio, Van Dierendonck and Manganelli 2013; Hunter et al. 2013). One such theory which is people centric theory (Clegg, Kornberger, & Rhodes, 2007) that truly shows concern towards followers and helps them develop is the theory of servant leadership. Greenleaf (1977) defined a servant leader as one who gives priority to needs and aspirations of his followers over needs of his own; one who believes in serving others with a continuous desire to lead, helps one's followers grow, develop, become independent and inspires followers to tread the path of service and become servants. It is important to note here that it is crucial to differentiate the similar styles of leadership to gain more insights on the theory of servant leadership and its influence on organizational outcomes. The following section detailed the discussion on similarities and differences between the various styles of leadership.

1.3.3 Servant leadership and Transformational leadership

Existing literature clearly depicts that servant leadership is a unique leadership style altogether which may overlap with other theories of leadership like that of transformational leadership but certainly has distinct characteristics to influence the behaviour of followers (Stone, Russell and Patterson 2004; Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko 2004; Van Dierendonck et al., 2014). For instance, Van Dierendonck et al. (2014) confirmed that there is definitely an overlap between the two leadership styles but the ways in which these two theories influence the behaviour of followers are different. Stone, Russell and Patterson (2004) differentiated the two leadership theories on the basis of focus of the leader. The authors state that transformational leadership is more focused towards organizational objectives while servant leadership is focused more towards employee well-being and development which is more relevant a factor for an employee deciding whether to remain with the organization or not.

1.3.4 Servant leadership and authentic leadership

There exists certain similarities between servant leadership and authentic leadership style depending upon the common features these styles shares (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). The focus of these styles inclined towards the interpersonal relationships that exhibit trust, openness, loyalty, mutual respect and cooperation. The differences in the theory of servant leadership and authentic leadership lie in their conceptual foundation. Authentic leadership style has its roots in the positive psychology and theories of self-regulation (Yukl, 2011) whereas servant leadership derives its strengths from Christianity and includes altruistic and humanitarian

values that are considered to be of greater importance in all religions (Van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2010).

1.3.5 Servant leadership and spiritual leadership

Fairness, humility, empathy, kindness, compassion, honesty, courage, optimism are some of the positive values or attributes that goes consistent with the two leadership styles i.e. servant leadership style and spiritual leadership style. Like servant leadership, spiritual leadership is also based on concepts and values that constitutes major religions and certainly have some aspects of positive psychology. Cultural context have also a great influence in the description of these leadership styles. Like, spiritual leadership is influenced by the values that are imbibed in the culture and also is benefited by the norms of that culture (Yukl, 2011). Although the description of the culture is less highlighted in the servant leadership theory however, the literature suggested that some of the organizations following servant leadership define employee-centric value as the important part of the culture (Sendjaya and Sarros, 2002). Existing literature also claimed that some of the issues that are not resolved by the servant leadership style can be resolved by following the spiritual leadership (Fry, Matherly, Whittington, & Winston, 2007).

1.3.6 Servant leadership and Indian national culture

Hannay (2009) defines the application of servant leadership in a cross-cultural context following the national cultural dimensions framework by Geert Hofstede. It was found in the study that servant leadership behavior is better suited in the culture where there exists low power distance, low uncertainty avoidance, low to moderate masculinity, low to moderate individualism and moderate to high long-term orientation (Hannay, 2009). Although the results of the study conducted by Hofstede (1983) revealed that India stands high on almost all the four dimensions of Values Survey Module (VSM) however, according to Hofstede (1983) the scores of Indian sample on four dimensions of VSM i.e. Power distance-77, uncertainty avoidance-40, Individualism-48, Masculinity-56 however, while assessing the scores of these mentioned dimensions, an Indian academician Singh (1990) found that these scores varied with the change in the time frame. Singh (1990) in his study conducted in large manufacturing organizations in India revealed that the scores on all the dimensions of VSM are actually very low for Indian sample. The scores revealed in the study by Singh (1990) are as follows: Power distance-12, uncertainty avoidance-35, Individualism-18, Masculinity-38. Following the low scores of Indian national culture dimensions by Singh (1990), it is expected that servant

leadership style is better suited for Indian managers as per the directions proposed by Hannay (2009).

It is further supported by the findings of the study conducted by Gupta, Surie, Javidan and Chhokar (2002) which states that India is the country that stands high on human orientation where individuals show concern for others. It is in the culture and roots of Indian value system to express concern and extend the helping hand to others so, behaving in a service oriented manner is easy and also expected from Indian leaders.

1.3.7 Servant leadership dimensions for current research

Initial research work in the area of servant leadership is based on the conceptual foundation, theory building, practical implications and the need of servant leadership style in organizations and setting the stage for empirical research (Spears, 1996; Spears, 2004; Farling et al., 1999; Russell, 2001; Russell & Stone, 2002; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002). Based on the initial writing by Robert K. Greenleaf, Spears (1996, 2004) identified ten basic characteristics that are central to the development of servant leadership (Spears, 2010). Since then various researchers have worked on the development and validation of several unidimensional and multi-dimensional construct to measure servant leadership (Laub, 1999; Sendjaya, 2003; Ehrhart, 2004; Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006, Dennis & Bocarnea, 2005, Liden et al., 2008; Wong & Davey, 2007; Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011).

First scale to measure servant leadership was developed by Laub (1999) and was named as OLA (organizational leadership assessment). Recent scale on servant leadership is developed by Van Dierendonck & Nuijten (2011) which is named as SLS (Servant leadership survey). The servant leadership survey (SLS) developed and validated by Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) has been developed as a multidimensional construct with eight dimensions each measuring the characteristics of a servant leader. The eight dimensions in servant leadership survey (SLS) are termed as: *empowerment, standing back, forgiveness, humility, courage, accountability, authenticity and stewardship*.

The current research study follows the conceptualization proposed in servant leadership survey SLS by Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) as it is the first measure of its kind where the underlying factor structure was developed and validated across several field studies in two countries. The following section detailed the discussion on the various dimensions that forms the part of servant leadership survey (SLS).

1.3.7.1 Empowerment (EMP)

Greenleaf (1998) emphasized that the central issue in empowerment is the intrinsic value of each individual which is an utmost important belief of a servant leader. Greenleaf (1998) also defined empowerment as “recognition, acknowledgement and understanding of each person’s abilities and what the person can still learn”. Conger (2000) further defined empowerment as “a motivational concept that focused on enabling people”. Empowerment specifically aims at stimulating a self-confident and proactive attitude among followers and relinquishes them with a sense of personal power (Van Dierendonck & Rook, 2010; Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). Leader’s role is altering the workplace to allow the access of power to employees is also regarded as important to foster employee empowerment (Honold, 1997). Information sharing, instructing for innovative performance, encouraging decision making which is self directed are in fact the crucial aspect of empowering leadership (Konczak, Stelly, & Trusty, 2000).

1.3.7.2 Standing Back (STB)

Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) defined standing back as “the extent to which a leader gives priority to the interest of others first and provide them with necessary support and credits”. Van Dierendonck and Rook (2010) and Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) further elaborated the definition of standing back by inculcating the concept of modesty which a service oriented leader retreats by keeping himself in the background whenever a task has been accomplished successfully. Literature also suggested that standing back, humility stewardship should be closely related (Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). It was also found that humility and standing back characteristics in collaboration fosters a learning environment where people are allowed to commit mistakes (Van Dierendonck & Rook, 2010).

1.3.7.3 Accountability (ACC)

Konczak, Stelly and Trusty (2000) defined accountability as “mechanism by which responsibility of an outcome is given to individuals or teams”. Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) further elaborated the function of accountability as leader’s powerful tool to express confidence in his/her subordinates and it also provides boundaries around which individuals are free to achieve their goals. Further, accountability is also to assign individuals with unambiguous goals to aspire for and holding them responsible for the outcome attached with the achievement of these goals (Van Dierendonck & Rook, 2010). While describing the role of accountability Froiland, Gordan and Picard (1993) affirms that it assure that individuals

understand what is expected from them while performing their roles, which ultimately is favouring both organizations and employees.

1.3.7.4 Forgiveness (FGV)

Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) define forgiveness in terms of interpersonal acceptance and defined it as “being able to cognitively adopt the psychological perspective of other people and experience the feeling of warmth and compassion. It is also about forgiving when confronted with offences, arguments and mistakes”. McCullough, Hoyt and Rachal (2000) defined forgiveness as “letting go of perceived wrongdoings and not carrying a grudge into other situations”. George (2002) refers forgiveness as “an ability of the leader to empathize with his subordinates and understand their circumstances” and Ferch (2005) considered it as an ability of a leader to forgive mistakes and disputes of employees and creating an environment of self-confidence. According to Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) forgiveness facilitates development of strong interpersonal relationships by understanding the behaviors of individuals and it also helps in building a platform that brings best out from the individuals. It is because of this reason that the servant leaders are neither revengeful nor even eager to do bad for others (Van Dierendonck & Rook, 2010; Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011).

1.3.7.5 Courage (CRG)

Courage is regarded as a distinguish feature of servant leaders that differentiate them from others (Greenleaf, 1991) and has been defined as “daring to take risks and trying out new approaches to old problems”. Russell and Stone (2002) defined it as ‘a pro-active behavior that focuses on developing new ways, identifying new approaches to old problems and having strong reliance on the values and convictions that govern one’s actions. As per Hernandez (2008) courage in organizational settings is all about challenging the ordinary and traditional methods of working behaviors. Hernandez (2008) also cited the work of Walton (1986) which stated that courage emphasizes on taking actions that are potentially risky in routine tasks/activities in which individuals are engaged.

1.3.7.6 Authenticity (AUT)

In organizational context Halpin and Croft (1996) defined authenticity as “behaving in such a way that professional roles remain secondary to whom the individual is as a person”. Specifically it is deeply associated with expressing the ‘true self’ and demonstrating oneself in a manner that is in congruence with one’s inner thoughts and feelings (Harter, 2002). Van Dierendonck and Rook (2010) affirms that creative ideas will be entranced and also allowed if

individuals own one's experiences like thoughts, wants, emotions, preferences or even beliefs. Peterson and Seligman (2004) defined accountability as "being true to oneself, accurately representing—privately and publicly—internal states, intentions, and commitments".

1.3.7.7 Stewardship (STW)

Peterson and Seligman (2004) defined stewardship as "represent a feeling of identification with and sense of obligation to a common good that includes the self but that stretches beyond one's own self-interest". Stewardship is also "the willingness to take the responsibility for large institution and commit oneself to service (Block, 1993), instead of seeking control and indulging in self-interest (Spears, 1995). Stewardship is deeply associated with social responsibility, team work and loyalty (Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011) and leaders by their actions can encourage others to do well for common interest. Also, Hernandez (2008) in his study concluded that while promoting stewardship in organizations the leaders should act as role models instead of acting only as caretakers.

1.3.7.8 Humility (HUM)

Patterson (2003) defined humility as "the ability to put one's own accomplishments and talents into a proper perspective". More specifically in leadership it focuses upon daring to confess that one is not perfect and commit mistakes (Morris, Brotheridge, Urbanski, 2005). According to Van Dierendonck and Rook (2010) and Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) servant leaders dare to acknowledge the limitations they have and always seek help and can be benefited from the expertise of others in overcoming their limitations.

1.4 EMPLOYEE RETENTION (ER)

1.4.1 Conceptual Framework and Theoretical Foundation

With the continuous change in the labour market, it becomes more challenging for the organizations worldwide to keep their good employees (Mathis, Jackson & Tripathy, 2012). Measuring employee turnover (opposite of retention) is a routine task for HR officials these days and organizations are specifically focused on the issue of employee retention to assure that it is given the primary consideration in the HR activities (Mathis, Jackson & Tripathy, 2012). The dynamism in the business environment and changing expectations of employees are continuously persuading organizations to identify the various factors that ultimately decide whether employees wish to remain with the organization or leave an organization. Employee retention has been defined in varied context in the existing literature. For instance Lockwood

(2006) defined employee retention as “the implementation of integrated strategies or systems designed to increase workplace productivity by developing improved processes for attracting, developing, retaining, and utilizing people with the required skills and aptitude to meet current and future business needs”. According to Cappelli (2000) employee retention management is “the bundle of human resource management practices that an organization implements in order to deal with high employee turnover rates”. The researchers claimed that employee retention is critical for talent management in organizations (Lockwood, 2006) and is a crucial part of HR staffing and planning (Mathis, Jackson & Tripathy, 2012).

The major concern here is to enhance the loyalty of the employees with the organizations rather than binding them with the organizations as organizations always cannot stop their employees to get attracted towards other opportunities available in the market (Kashyap & Rangnekar, 2014a). The organizations and HR professionals need to understand that because people and jobs are varied, individuals leave or stay with the particular organizations for either personal reasons or job related reasons (Mathis, Jackson & Tripathy, 2012). For instance if an employee leaves an organization because his/her spouse is transferring, the organizations are left with no options instead of relieving that employee. But if the issue is job related then employers can take various actions to resolve employee issues and keep them on job (Mathis, Jackson & Tripathy, 2012).

The actual reasons for employee turnover vary according to the industry, organizational issues, geographical aspects, job related factors etc (Mathis, Jackson & Tripathy, 2012). According to a survey conducted in 2013, India probably experienced the highest employee turnover rate at 26.9%, while the expected employee turnover rates for Russia, Indonesia, Brazil, U.S, China and UK were 26.8%, 25.8%, 24.4%, 21.8%, 21.3% and 14.6% respectively (Biswas, 2013). The study further revealed that employees of the Indian organized sector were the highest contributors to the global attrition rate in 2013, with one in four Indian employees looking to quit their jobs. Indian organizations should be mindful of issues that influence employee turnover intentions. Of all the employees surveyed in the study, 55% were apprehensive about the fairness of their compensation, 39% look for learning and development opportunities, 37% worried about not achieving their career goals while 36% employees sought supervisory coaching for development. The study identified these as the primary reasons behind employees looking to turnover (Biswas, 2013). There are several organizational

and management factors that ultimately are drivers of employee retention and are within the control of employers (Mathis, Jackson & Tripathy, 2012). The following section detailed the discussion of such drivers of employee retention.

1.4.2 Employee Retention Practices

Human resource systems have been classified as *Commitment* and *Control* systems on the basis of the characteristics and functions served by these approaches (Arthur, 1994). Further, employee behaviour and attitude at work is a result of these approaches (Arthur, 1994). Control human resource systems result in improved efficiency and reduced labour cost due to the enforcement of specific rules and procedures on employees, whereas Commitment human resource systems shape employee behaviour and attitude by creating psychological links between organizational and employee goals. Considering the importance of Commitment human resource systems, organizational executives should focus upon them as research provides empirical evidence of their effectiveness in influencing behavioral intentions of employees (Arthur, 1994). Effective designing and implementation of critical human resource practices such as compensation, training & development, job duties, promotions and feedback to increase employee trust have a significant impact on important organizational outcomes like productivity, financial performance and employee turnover (Whitener, 1997).

Extant literature provides enough empirical evidence to prove that there are many HRM practices influencing employee turnover intentions (Chew and Chan, 2008; DeConinck & Stilwell, 2004; Salvich, Cappetta & Giangreco, 2014, Vandenberghe & Tremblay, 2008; Dhiman and Mohanty, 2010, Chand & Katou, 2007; Eriksson, Qin & wang, 2014; Paul and Anantharaman, 2004; De Vos & Meganck, 2009; Huang, Lin and Chuang, 2006; Döckel, 2003; Döckel *et al.*, 2006; Gächter, Savage & Torgler, 2013; Marescaux, De Winne & Sels, 2013). For instance, compensation, training, career empowerment, encouraging work-life balance as HRM practices were found to be predictors of employee turnover intentions (Dhiman and Mohanty, 2010). HRM practices such as providing training, incentives, fair compensation and effective job design were found to influence employee retention (Paul and Anantharaman, 2003). Similarly, financial rewards and career opportunities were found to be decisive factors influencing employee turnover intentions while work-life balance, social environment and job design were found to influence employee retention (De Vos & Meganck, 2009). HRM practices might not always influence employee turnover beyond a certain level

(Eriksson, Qin and Wang, 2014). The following section highlights the role of Indian national and social culture in influencing human resources management.

1.4.3 HRM in India and Socio-cultural Environment

The HRM function in India is rapidly changing (Budhwar & Singh, 2008) and evolving very fast due to tough competition worldwide (Bhatnagar & Sharma, 2005; Budhwar, 2000; Budhwar & Boyne, 2004). There has been a shift in the focus of Indian organizations towards development of human capital to gain competitive advantage due to continuous pressure from global competition (Budhwar & Boyne, 2004) due to which there exists a strong need to study HRM practices in Asia-pacific region (Budhwar, 2000). A lot of empirical studies regarding the HRM practices followed in the west have been carried out and are well documented (Budhwar, 2008; Schuler & Jackson, 2008). However, the fact that few studies examining the HRM practices in the context of emerging economies like India have been conducted that leaves a gap in existing HRM literature (Budhwar, 2008). It becomes all the more important because of the in the HR practices like recruitment, training, retention, compensation and management of employment relationships in Indian organizations (Pereira & Anderson, 2012). Like in any country, the HRM practices followed by organizations in emerging economies like India are heavily influenced by the ever changing socio-cultural and business environments.

The analysis of the relationship between the socio-cultural and business environments and HRM practices followed in organizations will help in the development of better theories and practices (Budhwar, 2008). It is also important to consider the influence of national culture comprising social values, norms and customs that have a significant impact on HRM policies and practices (Budhwar, 2008). The study conducted by Budhwar & Singh (2008) revealed that Indian managers highly ranked: (i) the significance of cultural assumptions that influenced the way employees thought about, and perceived the organization, (ii) conventional Indian values, standards of customs and behaviors, and (iii) how managers socialized in India. Also, Indian values, norms and behaviour were found to be the predictors of managerial action. An in-depth analysis of the findings (Budhwar & Singh, 2008) revealed that social relations played an important role in the management of human resources in India. This is also supported by the findings of a recent study which indicates that because of relatively less professionalism in Asian countries like India, social relationships were expected to have a stronger influence on employee outcomes such as intentions to quit (Frenkel, Sanders & Bednall, 2013). The reason behind this phenomenon could be the socio-cultural environment of India which, strictly

hierarchical in nature, demanded that superiors (elders, teachers, seniors at work) be respected, and social norms followed (Saini & Budhwar, 2004). Further, the influence of national culture also explains the importance of social relationships in managing human resources in India. The following section highlights the relationship between HRM in India and National culture.

1.4.4 HRM in India and National Culture

According to Hofstede's framework, India stands relatively high on collectivism and relatively low on masculinity dimensions (Taras, Steel & Kirkman, 2012). Relatively high collectivism implies that people belong to tightly knit groups that protect interests of members in return for their loyalty (Taras, Steel & Kirkman, 2012) and group achievements are preferable over work related outcomes (Sharma, 1984). The relatively low masculinity signifies that maintaining warm personal relationships, caring for the weak and appreciating quality of life are given importance over performance (Taras, Steel & Kirkman, 2012). The above discussion makes it clear that socio-cultural and national culture environments have significantly influenced people management practices in Indian organizations where employees rely heavily on their supervisors for guidance, and social and interpersonal relationships are used as motivational tools by supervisors to motivate subordinates (Saini & Budhwar, 2004).

Considering the facts discussed above, the authors have made an effort to analyze the role of servant leadership that inculcates trust in enhancing employee satisfaction with human resource retention practices. The authors seek to determine the extent to which perceived employer brand and servant leadership influences employees' decision to stay or leave a particular organization as it is not the HRM practices of organizations that influence employee behavior, it is the relationships that influence employee behavior and work related attitudes (Frenkel, Sanders & Bednall, 2013). A deeper understanding of the effects of the trust in leadership employees place in their supervisors is also important because of employees' preferences towards interpersonal relationships in Indian organizations.

1.4.5 Employee Retention Practices for current study

Although extant literature provides enough information on the effective use of a variety of HRM practices that influence employee behaviour at the workplace in different sectors/industries, there is a strong need to identify the practices common across all sectors and industries that may influence an employee's decision to stay in a particular organization. To this end, the current study has identified five key employee retention practices that are common across all industries and sectors, and that might influence employee turnover. The

current study has identified compensation, work-life balance, job characteristics, training opportunities and career development opportunities as the five key employee retention practices that may influence employees' work related behavior in Indian organizations.

1.4.5.1 Compensation (COMP)

Aswathappa (2005) defined compensation as payments and rewards that an employee receives in return for the contributions made to the organization. Compensation is of utmost importance from the perspective of employees as well as employers. For employees, compensation received results in standard of living, status in society, motivation and loyalty towards the organizations. For employers, it is an important factor resulting in cost of production (Aswathappa, 2005). Therefore, a satisfactory compensation package received and an offering of the same may result in positive outcomes for employees and employers. Chew and Chan (2008) revealed that remuneration and recognition significantly predicted the variance in an employee's intentions to quit. Remuneration and recognition were found to be essential elements of talent attraction and retention. They further suggested companies use reward budget effectively and impart training programmes to develop organization specific skills of employees that would result in greater productivity which would in turn, result in a raise in wages and provide employees incentives to stay in the organization thereby reducing their intentions to quit.

1.4.5.2 Job Characteristics (JC)

Spector and Jex (1991) defined job characteristics as "a set of environmental variables that are widely thought to be an important cause of employee affect and behaviour". Job characteristics were found to directly influence employee attitudes and behaviour at work (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Job characteristics model (JCM) developed by Hackman and Oldham (1976) includes task identity, skill variety, task significance, autonomy and feedback. The current study has considered only two important dimensions from job characteristics model as existing literature claimed that these two dimensions were considered more important while considering employee retention decision (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2013; Singh, 1998). These two dimensions are task autonomy and skill variety. Skill variety has been defined as "degree to which a job requires a variety of different activities so the worker can use a number of different skills and talent" (Robbins, Judge, & Sanghi, 2009). Task autonomy has been defined as "the degree to which a job provides substantial freedom, independence and discretion to the

individual in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out” (Robbins, Judge, & Sanghi, 2009).

1.4.5.3 Training (TRG)

Organizational efforts to train employees is a proactive tool to deal with the issue of employee turnover (Budhwar & Varma, 2011) as lack of proper training is one of the most common reasons behind employees leaving organizations. Existing literature gives two different perspectives on the relationship between employee training and turnover intentions: some scholars argue that the relationship between employee training and turnover intentions is negative while others view this relationship as positive. Cheng & Waldenberger (2013) concluded that organizational efforts to meet the training expectations of employees resulted in reduced turnover intentions. Huselid (1995) also highlighted that training resulted in improved knowledge, skills and abilities of employees. Enhancement of knowledge, skills and abilities further motivates the employees to work hard thereby increasing retention rates.

1.4.5.4 Career Development Opportunities (CD)

According to Nouri and Parker (2013), career development is “the progression through a sequence of jobs, involving continually advanced and diverse activities, resulting in a wider or improved skill set, greater responsibility, prestige and higher income”. The present study follows this concept of career development. Paul and Anantharaman (2003) concluded that the organization's interest in employee development directly influences the employee's commitment toward the organization which in turn influences employee retention and productivity. The sense of obligation that an employee develops to remain with the organization is clearly depicted in the social exchange relationship between an organization and its employees. Budhwar and Varma (2011) concluded that training provided by organizations to their employees was an opportunity for the employees to learn new skills and continue to grow. This further led the employees to decide to remain with the organization.

1.4.5.5 Work-life Balance (WLB)

Another important factor that enhances employee retention is work-life balance. It was found that balance between work and life played a significant role in improving employee retention rates (Deery, 2008). The author (Deery, 2008) further explained that employee's decision to leave an organization is a result of the conflict between important human activities in an organization. It becomes all the more important in Indian context because of the extended structure of families in India as individuals have to take care of their parents, parents-in-law

and children. So attaining proper work-life balance is becoming more prevalent amongst Indian employees to fulfill their social obligations (Rajadhyaksha, 2012). Gächter et al. (2013) reported negative relationships between work-life balance and turnover intentions. Maxwell (2005) highlighted the role of managers in initiating work-life balance practices and concluded that managers played a vital role in the formulation and implementation of work-life balance policies. Organizational support is a key element in maintaining work-life balance.

1.5 TURNOVER INTENTIONS (TI)

Employee withdrawal cognitions (turnover intentions, intentions to stay, intent to job search) have been deeply studied and analyzed for more than two decades to measure employee retention in organizations. Existing literature provides abundant information on various antecedents of employee turnover intentions (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Steel & Ovalle, 1984; Carmeli & Weisberg, 2006). However, context specific predictors of employee withdrawal cognitions (turnover intentions) have not been examined with a clear framework. It is important to study these context specific predictors of employee turnover intentions as one might argue that a country's socio-cultural environment, cultural norms and beliefs may influence the withdrawal intentions of different employees differently. The current study aims to identify and examine context specific employee retention practices that may predict employee turnover intentions as influenced by the socio-cultural environment and national culture of India.

Mowday *et al.* (1982) defined turnover intentions as “the subjective estimation of an individual regarding the probability of leaving an organization in the near future”. Because the behavioral intentions are the better determinants actual turnover, most of the research studies have focused on measuring these dimensions (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Steel & Ovalle, 1984; Carmeli & Weisberg, 2006). Also, the findings of the study conducted by Cotton and Tuttle (1986) revealed that it is reliable to include behavioral intentions such as turnover intentions of employees in the model of employee turnover. Griffeth, Hom, and Gaertner (2000) concluded that generally job satisfaction is an antecedent to employee's decision to leave the organization which actually results in finally leaving the organization after searching for jobs in other organizations and accepting job offers. They further concluded that the scales used to measure intentions to job search were comparatively accurate predictors of turnover intentions as job search preceded actual exits. Thus, the current study seeks to

examine the level of employee satisfaction or dissatisfaction with employee retention practices that might influence their quitting decisions.

1.6 RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

Organizational capital, human capital and physical capital resources are the three main categories of resources that provide an organization with a sustained competitive advantage (Barney 2001). Loss of any capital resource may result in severe consequences for any organization. Organizations invest a lot of effort and money in creating and maintaining these capital resources to enjoy a competitive edge over others in the dynamic business environment. Being the inimitable and non-substitutable resource that organizations develop over a period of time, human capital resource is the most crucial of the three resources mentioned above. Organizations cannot afford to lose their human capital resource to competitors as such a loss would be detrimental to the success of any organization. In order to keep human capital engaged and motivated, the organizations continuously strive to develop and maintain an employer brand where employees trust the people they work for, take pride in what they do and enjoy the company of people they work with (Chaturvedi et al., 2014). The servant leadership style, on the other hand, is emerging as an organizational phenomenon that helps an organization portray and communicate a positive organizational image as a unique employer brand (Zhang et al., 2012) among existing and potential employees and helps influence outcomes of employee behaviour such as perceived employee retention and turnover intentions and disengagement through role modeling and positive social exchange (Hunter et al., 2013). Further, to make effective use of talented manpower motivation is highly essential (Kamalanabhan & Uma, 1999). Thus, the main rationale of the study is to investigate and determine the ways in which servant leadership style influences an employee's satisfaction with retention practices with further have an impact on employee's withdrawal cognitions i.e. turnover intentions by building a positive organizational image as an employer brand in the minds of existing employees and by creating an environment where employees trust the people they work for.

This study contributes to existing literature in a number of ways: First, the study attempts to look into the areas of study as suggested by Hunter et al. (2013) regarding the investigation of the scope and magnitude of the influence of the servant leadership style on a variety of organizational outcomes. The study further seeks to extend the areas of study mentioned above by proposing and testing a model that integrates an interdisciplinary

organizational variable i.e. employer brand that may emerge from a unique attribute of “service” as the core value of an organization. Second, the study focuses on extending the research on employer branding as a vital human resource strategy to demonstrate its effect on employee turnover intentions as these behavioral cognitions are better predictors of actual turnover than other organizational variables (Carmeli and Weisberg, 2006; Griffeth, Hom, and Gaertner, 2000; Steel and Ovalle, 1984). Also, the study aims to continue research in the field of employer branding and its influence in organizational settings along with generating awareness about its importance among academics for future research. Employer branding is a crucial organizational strategy that helps organizations retain top talent as employees seek to extend their association with organizations which in turn increases their self-esteem. Pierce and Gardner (2004) claimed that an individual’s self-esteem is built around his work and organizational experiences, which may in turn influence his work related attitudes such as turnover intentions. Servant leadership style that may result in positive employer brand perception will act as a unique employment experience increasing the satisfaction level of employees with retention practices and subsequently reducing the employee intent to turnover.

1.7 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The research study focuses upon the following areas:

1. The study is conducted in public and private sector Indian organizations located in India. The study sample includes the managerial employees working on different hierarchical (Junior, Middle, Senior) levels.
2. The study measures the perception of employees regarding their employer brand including dimensions such as interest value, social value, application value, development value and economic value.
3. The study also measures the level of servant leadership style in Indian organizations by examining perception of the employees with respect to their leaders. The various dimensions on servant leadership style that have been assessed includes empowerment, standing back, authenticity, accountability, forgiveness, humility, stewardship and courage.
4. The study also analyses the satisfaction level of employees with respect to retention practices followed by their organizations and how these retention practices influence their turnover decisions. The various retention practices studied includes compensation, job characteristics, training, career development opportunities and work-life balance.

5. Finally study aims to investigate the interrelationships between perceived employer brand, servant leadership, satisfaction with retention practices and employee turnover intentions.

1.8 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study proposed that employer branding and servant leadership enhances the satisfaction of employees with retention practices that further reduces employee's turnover intentions. The research questions proposed in the study are:

1. Does the employees' perception of employer branding vary with demographics (Age, gender, hierarchical level and organization type)?
2. Does the employees' perception of servant leadership style vary with respect to demographics (Age, gender, hierarchical level and organization type)?
3. Does employee satisfaction with retention practices vary with respect to demographics (Age, gender, hierarchical level and organization type)?
4. Does employer branding construct predict satisfaction with employee retention practices and employee turnover intentions?
5. Does servant leadership construct predict satisfaction with employee retention practices and employee turnover intentions?
6. Does employee satisfaction with retention practices predicts employee turnover intentions?
7. Does employer branding and employee satisfaction with employee retention practices mediate the relationships between servant leadership and turnover intentions?

1.9 ORGANIZATION OF STUDY

To address the issues those are critical for the current research, the study is designed and organized into six chapters. (Chapter-1: Introduction, Chapter-2: Literature review, Chapter-3: Research Methodology, Chapter-4: Analysis, Chapter-5: Discussions and Chapter-6: Conclusions, implications and limitations). Chapter-1: Introduction narrates the conceptual framework and theoretical foundations of employer branding, servant leadership, employee retention and turnover intentions. Chapter-2: Literature review elaborates the state of existing literature on employer branding and its dimensions, servant leadership and its dimensions, employee retention and its practices and finally turnover intentions. The chapter also include

the discussion of the conceptual model derived for the current study. Chapter-3: Research methodology includes the design of research, objectives and development of hypotheses. Chapter-4: Analysis incorporates the statistical techniques used to test the hypotheses. The statistical analyses includes test such as exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, t-test, multiple regression, structural Equation modelling. Results are explained with clear descriptions. Chapter-5: Discussion includes the detailed discussion on the results and findings of the study. Chapter-6: It includes the conclusion drawn from the entire research and practical implications are highlighted. Limitations faced in the study are discussed in details and future research direction is proposed.

1.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter introduces the conceptual framework and theoretical foundation of the variables under study. The main aim of the study is to investigate the interrelationships between employer branding, servant leadership, and employee retention and turnover intentions. The term “Employer branding” has been first coined by Ambler and Barrow (1996) as a contribution to the field of marketing. Later on various other researchers in the field of branding has expanded its scope and examined in from varied perspective (Lloyd, 2001; Mayo, 2001; Walker 2006; Rosethorn, 2009, Berthon et al., 2005). The concept ‘Servant Leadership’ has been first originated by Robert K. Greenleaf in his essay *The Servant as Leader* in 1970. Behind the conceptualization of the term servant leadership lies 40 years of work experience that Robert K. Greenleaf had in AT&T (Van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2010). Since the inception of the concept servant leadership, a lot many researchers have worked on its conceptualization and measurement by developing and validated different unidimensional and multi-dimensional constructs (Laub, 1999; Sendjaya, 2003; Ehrhart, 2004; Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006, Dennis & Bocarnea, 2005, Liden et al., 2008; Wong & Davey, 2007; Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). Cappelli (2000) considered employee retention management as “the bundle of human resource management practices that an organization implements in order to deal with high employee turnover rates”. Further researchers have worked extensively on the issue to employee retention and have examined an number of retention policies and practices to deal with the issue of high employee turnover (Arthur, 1994; Whitener, 1997; Chew and Chan, 2008; Vandenberghe & Tremblay, 2008; DeConninck & Stilwell, 2004; Salvich, Cappetta & Giangreco, 2013; Huselid, 1995; Tekleab, Bartol & Liu, 2005; Heneman & Schwab, 1985; Bergiel, Nguyen, Clenney & Taylor, 2009; Ryan & Sagas, 2009).

LITERATURE REVIEW

In last chapter conceptual framework and theoretical foundation of employer branding (EB), servant leadership (SL) employee retention (ER) and turnover intentions (TI) have been elaborated. The current chapter discusses and highlighted the various antecedents and consequences of employer branding, servant leadership, employee retention and turnover intentions. The chapter is arranged in following sub-sections. First sub-section highlighted the discussion on literature available on employer branding, servant leadership, employee retention and turnover intentions and its various antecedents and consequences. Second subsection elaborated the literature on the dimensions of employer branding, servant leadership, employee retention practices and turnover intentions. Third sub-section highlights the interrelationships between employer branding servant leadership, employee retention practices and turnover intentions. Relevant literature in Indian context has also been highlighted within each subsection. The chapter summary has also been provided at the end of the chapter.

2.1 EMPLOYER BRANDING (EB)**2.1.1 Employer Branding- An HR imperative**

The existing literature revealed that the concept employer branding emerged from the two distinct fields of business management i.e. marketing and human resources (Edwards, 2010). In a study conducted by Martin, Beaumont, Doig and Pate (2005), it was revealed that the concept employer branding has first gained the attention of marketing academics. With an aim to unify two distinct disciplines, HR and marketing to form a unique conceptual framework Ambler and Barrow (1996) have first coined the term employer branding. Although the concept has recently gained the attention by HR academics however, early research work on the linkage of HR-branding concept has been carried out by HR practitioners (Edwards, 2010; Martin et al., 2005). Even with the popularity of the concept employer branding among practitioners, the research in academic literature related to the concept is limited (Backhaus & Tikoo, 2004). Specifically the concept employer branding in context to HRM literature is still in infancy stage and whatever literature is existing is too limited to some corporate reports and a few books on employer brand (Edwards, 2010). Some of the early research works on the linkage between human resource and branding literature resulted in the theoretical foundation of the concept employer brand and set the stage to empirical examine its impact in

organizational settings (Backhaus & Tikoo, 2004; Martin et al., 2005; Barrow & Mosley, 2011; Knox & Freeman, 2006). Some of the highly cited among these studies are the studies conducted by Backhaus and Tikoo (2004), Martin et al. (2005) and Lievens and Highhouse (2003). According to the study conducted by Martin, Beaumont, Doig and Pate (2005) there is a strong need to align the HRM function with the branding domain of marketing function in the organizations. The linkage is important because of several reasons. Most noted among these reasons is the growing significance of service-based economies and intangible assets such as human capital and intellectual capital. The main aim of the early researchers (Backhaus & Tikoo, 2005; Martin et al., 2005) in the field of employer branding was to help HRM professionals in building their strong identities by aligning HR goals with organizational functions such as marketing which are central to the development and continuance of corporate reputations. Building a status of an 'employer of choice' amongst top potential candidates and to enhance the retention of existing employees is central to and inescapable strategy for HR and business (Pfeffer, 1998). Such an inescapable strategy depends upon the creation and maintenance of strong employer brands in comparison to the competitors (Martin et al., 2005).

Further to fill the gap in existing literature regarding the lack of clear framework and theoretical foundation of the concept employer branding, Backhaus and Tikoo (2004) suggested that the practice of employer branding is based on the assumption that human capital of any organizations is crucial for delivering value to the firm and investment in such human capital can result in enhancement of organizational performance. Accordingly resource-based perspective of the firm emerged as one of the basis to build clear framework for employer branding (Backhaus & Tikoo, 2004). Literature on resource-based perspective of the firm acclaimed that any organization's resources are categorized into three main categories i.e. human capital resources, organization capital resources and physical capital resources (Barney, 2001). The current research study base its proposition by emphasizing on organizational capital resources that provide organizations competitive and sustained competitive advantage. Organizational capital resources of the firm includes planning, co-coordinating systems and informal relations among the groups of the firm (Wright et al., 1994). The research study presents unique employer brand of any organization as its organizational capital resource which is rare, difficult to imitate by competing organizations and a non-substitutable resource. Planning and implementation of unique policies and practices of any organization create a strong and positive employer brand image that helps organizations attract the talent pool and

retain the existing workforce. The unique employment experience by any organization binds the employees to extend their association with the current employers as employer brand is a rare, inimitable organization capital resource that provides the organizations competitive edge and makes it difficult for other organizations in dynamic business environment to poach the top talent. Joo and Mclean (2006) in their study highlighted that resource based view provides employer brands a fundamental theoretical background embracing engaged employees, strategy and firm's financial performance. Since the inception of the concept employer branding in 1996, the concept has evolved over a period of time. Different researchers have investigated the impact of employer branding in organizational settings. The outcomes related to the research work on employer branding as an HR imperative are also highlighted in table 2.1 below.

Table 2.1: Employer Branding research works and their outcomes

Authors	Research aims	Outcome
Ambler and Barrow (1996)	To show the linkage between two diverse functions of an organization i.e. marketing and HR to support employer brand strategy of an organization.	Development of a unifying conceptual framework and coinage of the term employer branding and its definition.
Backhaus and Tikoo (2004)	To address how an employer branding strategy can be validated to support human resource management function and which theories can help in achievement of this objective.	Development of theories related to employer branding. Resource based view of the firm and brand equity theory emerged as the basis to develop the linkages between HR and branding relationships.
Martin, Beaumont, Doig and Pate (2005)	To link HRM with branding literature to support HRM professionals to build their strong identities by aligning HR goals and organizational functions.	Development of a conceptual model that links HR and branding literature and three prepositions has been drawn that HR professional should take care of in order to make significant contributions in organizations.
Barrow and Mosley (2011)	The main aim of the authors was to compile and present the entire information available on employer brand management in organizations.	Development of a text book highlighting the needs, rationale, how to develop employer brands and durability of employer brand concept.
Knox and Freeman	The aim of the research work was to apply the principles of marketing and communication to	The outcomes suggested that the organizations should

(2006)	develop consistent employer brand image during recruitment process.	consider how internal marketing practices can bring consistency among external and internal employer brand image.
Gaddam (2008)	The research aims to provide the holistic view that highlights the application of employer branding in acquiring and retaining the talent.	The outcomes suggested that if an employer branding message and organization's promise is well executed, it will help the organization to build a strong corporate image. This will further help in attracting top talent and help retain existing talent.
Martin (2009)	The aim of the research was to establish how HR policies and communication can help building quality employment relationships with the help of organizational image.	The outcomes highlighted the needs for the HR professionals to understand the corporate level concepts like organizational image and their influence in developing sustainable corporateness. The findings also suggested that this understanding will further help HR professionals to become corporate partners instead of just business partners.
Edwards (2010)	The aim of the research as to review the existing literature on employer branding and developing its linkages to the field of human resource management and organizational behavior.	The research highlighted the propositions that shows the linkage of employer branding with the concepts prevalent in human resources management and organizational behavior like psychological contract, organizational identity, organizational identification and organizational personality etc.
Edwards and Edwards (2013)	The aim of the research was to investigate the changing trends of employer branding in context to the existing employees of organizations.	The results revealed that change in the perception of an employer brand over a period of time is related to change in employees' intention to leave and their identification with the organization.

2.1.2 Characteristics of successful Employer brands

Existing literature significantly highlighted the various characteristics of an employer brand which differentiates the whole employment experience from one organization to another. Specifically, the research study by Moroko and Uncles (2008) revealed that the organizations that have a unique employer brand enjoy competitive advantage over others. The researchers (Moroko & Uncles, 2008) also highlighted the five characteristics that make an employer brand unique in the competition. First among the successful characteristics is employer brand being known and noticeable. Literature supports the fact the being known and having positive reputation as an employer are significant factors that make an employer brand unique (Maxwell & Knox, 2006). Second, characteristic is employer brand being relevant and resonant. According to this characteristic successful employer brands are associated with a high value proposition that is resonant and is relevant for potential and existing employees of an organization. The high value proposition here relates to the unique benefit package that is offered by the firm to its employees. Third characteristic is being differentiated from direct competitors. Fourth characteristic of successful employer brand is fulfilling a psychological contract. It is very important as successful employer brands are regarded as being consistent with the inherent promise of brand. Last characteristic listed by the researchers is unintended appropriation of brand values. Further, the study by Maxwell and Knox (2006) also highlighted employment attributes such as employee rewards, style of management, work environment, manager-workforce relationships, organizational success, construed external image and attributes related to products and services as attributes important with regard to employer branding characteristics.

2.1.3 Antecedents of employer branding

Extant literature presents the various antecedents of employer branding in organizational context (Biswas & Suar, 2014). According to the study by Coleman and Irving (1997) providing candidates with the *realistic job preview* will help in attracted towards the jobs. Also, the literature supports that fact that an organization's effort to provide realistic job previews during recruitment process is associated with high retention rates (Philips, 1998). Biswas and Suar (2014) empirically investigate the impact of realistic job previews and revealed that well crafted job previews enhance the employer branding. An organization's efforts to provide support to its employees also results in building and improving the employer branding phenomenon as Whitener (1997) found that implementation of innovative practices

conveyed that the organization supported its employees. Further, the employees reciprocate the organizational support with lower absenteeism, higher performance (Eisenberger et al., 1997; Meyer & Allen, 1997). So, *perceived organizational* support is highlighted as an important antecedent to employer branding in existing literature.

Leaders play a vital role in implementing and communicating the policies and practices to employees as the findings of the research study by Konovsky and Pugh (1994) revealed that trust in leaders is more important than trust in organizations as leaders represent the organizations in front of employees. Leader's actions of integrity, honesty, fairness and justice while implementing the certain policies and practices influence employees to engage in positive work-related attitudes. Leaders are the ultimate source of information for employees (Davis & Chun, 2010). Although literature reveals that employer branding strategy implementation and execution lies with HR department however, alone HR department will not be able to bring its influence without the support of *top management leaders*. Also, in their study Biswas and Suar (2014) empirically investigated the top management leadership as antecedent to employer branding and found that it is one of the most important antecedent. It is worth noting here that employer branding strategy if not supported by top leaders will fail. Another important antecedent is *psychological contract* (Edwards, 2010) as employees may not always possess positive perception of the organizations as it is always not possible to ensure consistency of all organizational messages that organization intend to portray about the employer brand (Miles & Mangold, 2004). Thus fulfillment of psychological contract may also enhance employer branding.

2.1.4 Consequences of employer branding

Although the research studies investigated the influence of employer branding on variety of outcomes however, there exists a very few studies that presents the various consequences that relate to employer branding. Among these few studies the consequences which are highlighted in literature are high talent attraction and retention (Botha, Bussin, & De Swardt, 2011), positive employee attitudes (Schlager et al., 2011), organizational prestige and positive word of mouth (Uen, Ahlstrom, Chen & Liu, 2013), financial and non financial performance like employee satisfaction, conversion rate, turnover rate, attrition statistics (Biswas & Suar, 2014), financial performance and HR reputation (Joo & Mclean, 2006), employee satisfaction, commitment and turnover (Priyadarshi, 2011), intentions to leave, employee commitment and identification (Edwards, 2010), employee productivity, improved organizational culture,

employee attraction and retention (Backhaus & Tikoo, 2004), internal organizational attractiveness (Jiang & Iles, 2011), improving recruitment performance (Berthon et al., 2005), employee retention (Knox & Freeman, 2006), increased customer satisfaction and improved financial performance (Barrow & Mosley, 2011), lower turnover rates, higher rates of investments in people management, improved organizational culture and labour relations (Kucherov & Zavyalova, 2012), talent retention (Shah, 2011) and competitive advantage (Love & Singh, 2011).

2.1.5 Employer branding practices in select Indian organizations

According to the findings of the study (Great place to work for institute an Economic Times) conducted by Chaturvedi et al. (2014) the India's best companies to work for were identified. As per the study, Google India with an employee base of 1625 and environment full of fun bagged rank 1 in the list. Following Google India, Intel which has an employee base of 3644 and practices that fosters challenging work environment got place 2 in the India best companies to work for. Third in the list is the position bagged by Marriott Hotels India. Marriott Hotels India with an employee base of 5200 brings international culture to Indian operations that eliminate power distance. Followed by this is the position 4 that is bagged by American express which is known for developing the long term potential of its people. Rank 5 in the list is given to SAP Labs, whose philosophy is to follow bottom-up participation approach to explore the potential of employees. Specifically, special category awards for employer branding initiatives have been bagged by Intel Technology India Pvt. Ltd. and Mahindra & Mahindra Ltd. Some of the key employer branding practices of top five best workplaces in India has also been highlighted in table 2.2 below.

Table 2.2: India's best companies to work for 2014

Name of the company	Key Employer Branding Practices
Google India	(i) Open culture that inculcates sharing of ideas with top management and peer groups allows employees to explore their potential. (ii) Weekly companywide townhall meetings to encourage sharing feedback with peer group and senior management. (iii) Opportunities for the employees to initiate the idea and be responsible for its execution till it end. (iv) Special 'Career program' for women professional to enter into the digital advertising space. (v) "Ggrow" program is specifically oriented towards career development of employees to engage them in development opportunities and resources, manage feedback and take actions.
Intel	(i) Challenging work environment with a combination of

	<p>thought leadership, opportunities and quality of work. (ii) Employees are continuously encouraged to challenge assumptions and old ways of doing work. (iii) Reverse mentoring to help older employees learn from the younger ones. (iv) Providing employees with abundant opportunities to use their skills in creating a difference and continuously learn in the process. (v) Informal environment that fosters out of box thinking. Technological conferences and regular career fairs are continuous source of motivation.</p>
Marriot Hotels India	<p>(i) International culture o Indian operations. (ii) People before profits. (iii) Specifically designed training programs on 'Living Marriott's core values' for employees from gardeners to chefs. (iv) American work culture to deplete high power distance. (v) Performance culture that gives equal weightage to education and experience. (vi) Promotion from within rather than form outside. Posting to foreign is another way of accelerating career growth. (vii) Holidays to Marriott properties as a result of high performance by employees.</p>
American Express	<p>(i) Inclination towards long term development of people through the continuous training and development efforts under the guidance of a mentor and sponsor. (ii) Pathway 2 sponsorship program for women to empower them to higher roles in the organization. (iii) People leadership learning path (PLL) to help leaders to better align to the work place.</p>
SAP Labs	<p>(i) Bottom-up participatory approach. (ii) Emotional support to all the employees in case of adversities. (iii) Combinations of opportunities for growth, quality of work and emotional connect that helps in attracting and retaining the top talent. (iv) Regular leadership talks by eminent Indian leaders. (v) People friendly practices.</p>

2.2 SERVANT LEADERSHIP (SL)

2.2.1 Existing state of Servant leadership research

Since the inception of the term servant leadership by Robert K. Greenleaf in 1977, the concept has gradually evolved over a period of time. The trend of the research on servant leadership can be easily traced in existing literature. Although the concept has been given in 1970s however, until 2004 there hardly exists any study that empirically investigate the impact of servant leadership in organizational settings (Parris & Peachey, 2013). Existing state of literature available clearly demonstrates that the main aim of the early research studies on servant leadership were more inclined towards conceptual foundation, theory building, practical implications and the need of servant leadership style in organizations and setting the

stage for empirical research (Spears, 1996; Laub, 1999; Spears, 2004; Farling et al., 1999; Blanchard, 1999; Russell, 2001; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002). The research findings indicate that the concept servant leadership is more of anecdotal nature which lacks empirical evidence of its influence. The focus of the early research studies was to develop the strong foundation of the concept and giving it a shape for empirical investigation (Farling et al., 1999; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002). Looking at need of traditional leadership theories in 21st century, the researcher described the applications of servant leadership style in organizations (Spears, 1996). The various models have been developed by the researchers to test its practical implications (Farling et al., 1999). The research also focused upon the distinctive attributes of servant leadership. Although it was found that primary intent and self concept differentiate servant leadership from transformational and charismatic leadership styles, yet some researchers proved these leadership styles to be same (Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002). The research study by Sendjaya and Sarros (2002) also revealed that although most of the great companies to work for have servant leadership as their core value of culture, yet there is a strong need to make its presence felt by further research. Vision, credibility, trust, service, appreciation for others and empowerment proved to be the most important basic values of servant leadership (Farling et al., 1999; Russell, 2001). Also, the early studies criticized the managerial style of being more coercive, judging and critic in comparison to managers those are cheerleaders (Blanchard, 1999) and communication was identified as one of the most important value of a servant leadership that is needed for today's and future managers. The outcome of the early research studies was the development of three conceptual models that may revolutionize interpersonal work relations and organizational life (Farling et al., 1999; Russell & Stone, 2002).

Interestingly, early research studies provide the conceptual framework for servant leadership theory however; the studies were silent on the measurement and to empirically investigate the influence of servant leadership in organizational settings. Overcoming these weaknesses identified in the early research studies, the researchers during 2000-2011 have extensively worked on the servant leadership construct development. During this time frame various researchers developed different constructs to measure servant leadership in organizational settings (Laub, 1999; Page and Wong, 2000; Ehrhart, 2004; Wong and Page, 2003; Dennis & Bocarnea, 2005; Liden et al., 2008; Sendjaya et al., 2008; Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). Some of these constructs on servant leadership were unidimensional and some were multidimensional. Following this stream on measurement development, the stream on

empirically investigating the influence of servant leadership recently gained the attention of academicians (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Ehrhart, 2004; Hale & Fields, 2007; Irving & Longbotham, 2007; Jaramillo et al., 2009b; Liden et al., 2008; Mayer, Bardes & Piccolo, 2008; Neubert et al., 2008; Reinke, 2003; Sun & Wang, 2009; Washington et al., 2006; West et al., 2009; Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011; Bobbio et al., 2013; Hunter et al., 2013). The findings from the literature studies on empirical investigation of servant leadership indicate that so far servant leadership was examined with a range of other organizational variables like, extra effort, satisfaction, organizational effectiveness, procedural justice climate, organizational citizenship behavior, leadership effectiveness, team effectiveness, organizational commitment, turnover intentions, job stress, leader trust, leadership trust, organizational justice, helping behavior, perceived organizational support, integrity, competence, role clarity etc. varied correlation with these variables indicate that servant leadership is impacting the organizations.

2.2.2 Dimensions of servant leadership

Literature presents a wide range of dimensions that represent servant leadership. Researchers have conceptualized and framed the various dimensions of servant leadership in different contextual settings and depending upon the different interpretations of the writings of Robert K. Greenleaf (Van Dierendonck, 2011). As per the extensive review of literature on servant leadership Van Dierendonck (2011) proposed that six basic characteristics that provides a good overview of servant leadership are empowering and developing people, Humility, authenticity, interpersonal acceptance, providing direction and stewardship. Building on the work of Greenleaf, Spear (2004) defined ten basic characteristics of servant leadership. These ten servant leadership characteristics include listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualizing, foresight, stewardship, commitment to growth, community building. Majority of the researchers also consider these above mentioned characteristics while developing and validating servant leadership measures. The first measure among the various measures available on servant leadership was OLA (organizational leadership assessment) by Laub (1999). Till date this measure is useful in assessing the servant leadership culture in organizations (Van Dierendonck, 2011). According to Laub (1999) servant leaders are the leader that develops people, shares leadership, displays authenticity, values people, providing leadership and builds community. Following this Dennis and Bocarnea (2005) defined servant leadership dimensions in terms of empowerment, trust, humility, agapao love and vision.

Further development in the measures of servant leadership includes the work of Barbuto and Wheeler (2006). According to the researchers the various servant leadership dimensions are altruistic calling, emotional healing, persuasive mapping, organizational stewardship and wisdom (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). The recent multidimensional measure that is available to assess servant leadership in organizations is developed by Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011). According to this measure the various dimensions of servant leadership includes empowerment, humility, standing back, authenticity, forgiveness, courage, accountability and stewardship. This measure is the first measure of its kind where the underlying dimension structure has been validated across studies conducted in different countries with varied context (Bobbio et al., 2013; Rodríguez-Carvajal et al., 2014). The various dimensions of servant leadership are also highlighted in table 2.3 below.

Table 2.3: Dimensions of servant leadership

Authors	Dimensions proposed and validated
Laub (1999)	Develops people, shares leadership, displays authenticity, values people, providing leadership and builds community.
Dennis and Bocarnea (2005)	Empowerment, trust, humility, agapao love and vision
Barbuto and Wheeler (2006)	Altruistic calling, emotional healing, persuasive mapping, organizational stewardship and wisdom
Wong and Davey (2007)	Serving and developing others, consulting and involving others, humility and selflessness, modeling integrity and authenticity, inspiring and influencing others.
Liden, Wayne, Zhao and Henderson (2008)	Empowering, helping subordinates grow, putting subordinates first, emotional healing, conceptual skills, creating value for the community and behaving ethically.
Sendjaya, Sarros and Santora (2008)	Transforming influence, voluntary subordination, authentic self, transcendental spirituality, covenantal relationship and reasonable morality.
Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011)	Empowerment, humility, standing back, authenticity, forgiveness, courage, accountability and stewardship.

2.2.3 Antecedents of servant leadership

Servant leadership as literature suggests is influenced by a wide range of antecedents. The most important among all the antecedents reviewed in literature motivation to serve emerged as a crucial antecedent of servant leadership (Farling, Stone & Winston, 1999). The advocates of the leadership research also suggests that one of the primary concern for leaders should be serving others (Senge, 1995; Synder, Dowd, & Houghton, 1994; Lee & Zemke, 1995; Van

Dierendonck, 2011) and specifically this becomes more prevalent in case of servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977). Recent literature on servant leadership revealed that need to serve others combined with motivation lead others forms a strong antecedent of servant leadership (Van Dierendonck, 2011). The leader's behavior motivated by personal values and beliefs are also highlighted as important for leader-follower relationships (Russell, 2001; Russell & Stone, 2002). Further, leaders with strong value systems are more likely to behave in a more ethical manner in comparison to those lacking in these values. Particularly for servant leadership, ethical intentions for ethical behavior are crucial. The ethical intentions are outcomes of the moral cognitive development of an individual (Kohlberg, 1969; Kish-Gephart, Harrison, & Trevino, 2010). It is expected that individuals with high moral cognitive development are more likely to be inclined towards servant leadership behavior (Van Dierendonck, 2011).

Self-determination is another important antecedent of servant leadership (Van Dierendonck, Nuijten, & Heeren, 2009). Literature also postulates individuals with self-determination are in the position to better use the personal resources, developing positive relationships and also helping others in developing their self-determination (Van Dierendonck, 2011). National culture was also found to be influencing servant leadership (Mittal & Dorfman, 2012). According to researchers humane orientation and power distance are two important cultural dimensions that influence the servant leadership style (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004; Van Dierendonck, 2011). Humane orientation has also been highlighted as antecedent of servant leadership in the study conducted by Winston and Ryan (2008). Further literature revealed that countries with low power distance are inclined towards the development of servant leadership (Davis, Shoorman, & Donaldson, 1997).

More recently, the studies conducted on servant leadership revealed that compassionate love (Van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2014), leader's personality traits such as extraversion (Hunter et al., 2013) and agreeableness (Washington, Sutton, & Field, 2006) are also crucial antecedents of servant leadership in organizational settings.

2.2.4 Consequences of servant leadership

Like antecedents, various consequences of servant leadership are also highlighted in the existing literature. Literature supports the fact that the employee's perception of servant leadership style results in various important organizational outcomes such as organizational commitment (Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008), organizational effectiveness (Barbuto

&Wheeler, 2006), turnover intentions (Jaramillo et al., 2009b), organizational identification (Zhang et al., 2012), trust (Reinke, 2003) and job satisfaction (Mayer, Bardes, & Piccolo, 2008; Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). The various other consequences of servant leadership are also highlighted in table 2.4 below.

Table 2.4: Consequences of servant leadership

Authors	Consequences
Russell and Stone (2002), Chaudhary, Akhtar and Zaheer (2013)	Organizational performance
Reinke (2003), Joseph and Winston (2005), Sendjaya and Pekerti (2010)	Trust, trust in organizations, leader trust and organizational trust
Ehrhart (2004)	Procedural justice and organizational citizenship behavior
Barbuto and Wheeler (2006)	Extra effort, organizational effectiveness and satisfaction
Washington, Sutton and Field (2006)	Supervisor's values: Competence, integrity and empathy
Hale and Fields (2007)	Leadership effectiveness
Irving and Longbotham (2007)	Team effectiveness
Jaramillo, Giraffe, Chonko and Roberts (2009a)	Turnover intentions, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job stress
Jaramillo, Giraffe, Chonko and Roberts (2009b)	Adaptive selling, customer orientation and extra-role performance
Liden, Wayne, Zhao and Henderson (2008)	Organizational commitment, in-role performance and community citizenship behavior
Mayer, Bardes and Piccolo (2008)	Organizational justice, job and need satisfaction
Neubert, Kackmer, Carlson, Chonko and Roberts (2008)	Helping behavior, creative behavior and in-role performance
Sun and Wang (2009)	Perceived organizational support and satisfaction with supervisor
West, Bocarnea and Maranon (2009)	Organizational commitment, role clarity, perceived organizational support, job satisfaction
Bobbio, Van Dierendonck and Manganelli (2013)	Perceived leader integrity, affective commitment, normative commitment, continuance commitment, extra-role behavior, anti-role behavior
Hunter, Neubert, Perry, Witt, Penny and Weinberger (2013)	Sales behavior, organizational citizenship behavior, turnover intentions, disengagement
Miao, Newman, Schwarz and Xu (2014)	Affective trust, cognitive trust, affective commitment and normative commitment

2.2.5 Servant leadership across cultures

Extant literature asserts that different cultural groups have varied cultural values (Schwartz, 1994) that ultimately form the idealization of leadership processes in different societies

(Dickson, Den Hartog, & Mitchleson, 2003 as cited by Mittal & Dorfman, 2012). Further it was found that different cultural values do not directly determine the leadership behavior rather these cultural aspects acts as various antecedents which may influence the leadership behavior across cultures (Dorfman, Javidan Hanges, Dastmalchian & House, 2012). This section of the thesis is devoted to the deep understanding of how servant leadership varies across different cultures. Such an understanding will help to analyse the leadership behavior in context to different cultural norms of the nations. Mittal and Dorfman (2012) in their research study on the examination of servant leadership across cultures found that different aspects of servant leadership (such as empathy, humility, egalitarianism, moral integrity and empowerment) possess varied importance depending upon the cultural differences across societies.

Interestingly, the results of the study by Mittal and Dorfman (2012) revealed that the aspects of servant leadership such as empathy and humility were more favoured in Asian cultures (such as India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand, China, Singapore etc.) in comparison to European cultures (Greece, Russia, Austria, Germany, Sweden etc.). This finding is not very surprising at all. The findings of the GLOBE study highlights that South Asian (Specifically, India) cluster ranked highest on human orientation (Chhokar, 2007). It is worth noting here that the findings of the study revealed that Indian leaders are more inclined towards relationship orientation with helping nature (Chhokar, 2007) and specifically in these cultures the empathy aspect of servant leadership enable leaders to take care of the emotions and needs of the subordinates (Mittal & Dorfman, 2012). Also, more recent findings revealed that servant leadership has established great potential for research in Asia (Liden, 2012).

2.3 EMPLOYEE RETENTION

2.3.1 Models of employee retention and employee turnover

The existing state of literature on employee retention and employee turnover process revealed that the area is widely explored and empirically investigated since last so many decades (Hom, Griffeth, & Sellaro, 1984; Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). Although there exist abundant information on the employee retention and turnover models in Asian contexts (Khatri, Tze Fern, & Budhwar, 2001; Zheng & Lamond, 2010) however, it continues to gain the attention the academicians and practitioners because of its impact in organizational settings (Michelman, 2003; Huang, Lin, & Chuang, 2006; Deckop, Konrad, Perlmutter, & Freely, 2006; Bhatnagar,

2007; Reiche, 2008; Kyndt et al., 2009; Hausknecht, Rodda, & Howard, 2009; Thite, 2010; Yamamoto, 2013; Kashyap & Rangnekar, 2014). Existing literature highlighted the role of various models in preventing high employee turnover and enhancing employee retention in organizations (Hom, Griffeth, & Sellaro, 1984; Mobley, 1977; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Feldman, 1976; Allen & Meyer, 1990; Peterson, 2004; Mowday et al., 1982; Holtom, Mitchell, Lee, & Inderrieden, 2005; Lee & Mitchell, 1994). A majority of researchers examining these models tends to focus on individual characteristics that influence employee turnover rather than explaining the role of organizational level factors that might explain the employee's decision to stay or leave an organization (Zheng & Lamond, 2010).

The first among these models are termed as process models (Hom, Griffeth, & Sellaro, 1984; Mobley, 1977; Hom & Griffeth, 1995). According to these models the decision of an employee's quitting is a result of sequential steps of a process. For instance Mobley (1977) while developing an employee turnover model and Hom, Griffeth, & Sellaro (1984) while validating the Mobley's model suggested that an employee's decision to quit an organization is a result of sequences of factors such as met expectation, job satisfaction, thoughts of quitting, evaluation of alternatives, intent to job search, intentions to quit etc. Further researchers have included the several other predictors such organizational human resource practices like training and career development, rewards etc as important antecedents to employee retention (Allen, Shore, & Griffeth, 2003). The second groups of models are linked to socialization models by Feldman (1976) and Allen and Meyer (1990). These socialization models proposed that organizational characteristics of socialization are strongly associated with individual characteristics (Peterson, 2004). The basic assumption behind these models is that if employees fit better in an organizational culture and works in satisfactory manner their retention with organization increases (Sheridan, 1992) as the findings revealed that job performance in interaction with organizational cultural values influence employee retention rates.

Then emerged the expanded models which also include process models postulated that there are certain multidimensional factors such as industry size, time, and industry nature which are strongly associated with employees' turnover decisions (Peterson, 2004). The expanded models of employee turnover specifically inclined towards organizational factors to deal with employee retention (Mowday et al., 1982). Further in the development of employee turnover models are the models termed as shock models by Holtom, Mitchell, Lee and

Inderrieden (2005) originally developed by Lee and Mitchell (1994). These models postulated that these are certain unexpected events such as mergers, acquisitions, job transfers, change in spouse's work etc. that are linked with employee turnover. These models are potentially manageable at an organizational level (Holtom et al., 2005; Zheng & Lamond, 2010). Specifically in Asian context the changes in one's family, job transfers were found to be predictors of employee turnover (Khatri, Tze Fern, & Budhwar, 2001). Most recent among all these models are the models developed by Peterson (2004). The turnover model proposed by Peterson (2004) is an outcome of the various weaknesses associated with above mentioned models. According to Zheng and Lamond (2010) the above mentioned models failed to explain the role of employers in controlling employee turnover.

The employee turnover model by Peterson (2004) emphasized on the importance of organizational HRD on which organizations have control plays a crucial role in handling employee turnover issues as the organizational factors tends to focus more on organizational perspectives that may help in better understanding the antecedents to employee retention and turnover. The current research study focuses upon two organizational factors i.e. employer branding and servant leadership style in influencing employees' satisfaction with retention practices and reducing their turnover intentions.

2.3.2 Determinants of employee retention

Various research studies have examined and empirically investigated a wide variety of determinants influencing employee retention. Specifically in India, the various important determinants that influence employee retention are individual factors, organizational factors, role or job related factors, societal factors, and professional factors (Rao & Varghese, 2009). Several personal factors such as trust, loyalty, and identification and attachment with one's organization were also found to be directly influencing employee retention (Hyttter, 2007). Also, according to Hyttter (2007) workplace factors like leadership style, training and development, career opportunities, physical working conditions were found to be indirectly influencing employee retention. According to Kaliprasad (2006) from an organizational perspective, the company's bad management policies can also influence people to leave the organization. Other researchers found that several job related factors such as manager's involvement, high integrity, responsibility and empowerment are also important for influencing employee retention (Birt, Wallis, & Winternitz, 2004). Recent research study by Yang, Wan and Fu (2012) while examining the retention strategies qualitatively, propose that

organizational practices (HRM) can be divided into five categories that might explain employee turnover. According to authors (Yang, Wan, & Fu, 2012) these five categories are inappropriate work placement, inappropriate recruiting process, job stress and burnout, inappropriate management of the company and dissatisfaction with compensation, job opportunities etc. The various other determinants of employee retention and employee turnover have also been highlighted in Table 2.5 below.

Table 2.5: Determinants of employee retention and turnover

Authors	Determinants
Hart (2005), Alexandrov et al. (2007), Knudsen et al. (2006), Cunningham and Sagas (2003)	Organizational factors such as organizational ethical climate, organizational support, organizational justice, cordial relationships between superiors and subordinates.
McDuff and Mueller (2000), Alexander et al. (1998), Lamber et al. (2001)	Work-related factors such as inadequate use of employee's skills, work load, job autonomy, financial rewards
Cunningham, Sagas and Ashley (2003), Chen and Francesco (2000), Lamber et al. (2001), Carmeli and Weisberg (2006), Lou, Yu, Hsu and Dai (2007), Chan and Morrison (2000)	Demographics factors such as gender, educational background, experience, organizational tenure, age and the area of work.

2.3.3 Employee retention- Challenges

Although it is very crucial for the organizations to retain the talented employees to enjoy competitive advantage (Barney, 2001) however, there are certain challenges in attempting to retain employees (Sigler, 1999). According to the study by Sigler (1999) the various challenges associated to the management of employee retention are cost associated with employee retention, asymmetric information to manage employee retention and agency cost associated with retaining talented employees. Further, Phillips and Connell (2008) highlighted the limitations in the existing approaches to employee retention. The authors (Phillips & Connell, 2008) argued that the old ways to manage employee retention poses different challenges. These challenges include proactive versus reactive approaches, development of many preventive programmes, searching for solutions, too many solutions, mismatch between need and solution and lack off payoffs. Also, the findings of the study conducted by Yang, Wan and Fu (2012) revealed that inadequate preparation of retention strategies and reactive strategies for employees who wish to leave the organizations makes employee retention a more challenging issue.

2.3.4 Practices influencing employee retention

Existing research on employee retention provides enough empirical evidence on the various organizational practices that influence employee retention in organizations. The various practices which impact employees' decision to stay or leave an organization are highlighted in the table 2.6 below.

Table 2.6: Practices influencing employee retention

Authors	Employee retention practices studied
Budhwar and Sparrow (1997), Budhwar and Khatri (2001)	Employee Communication Practices, Compensation Practices, Means of Training and development, Recruitment practices
Paul and Anantharaman (2004) and (2003)	Friendly work environment, Value-based induction, Career Development, Rigorous selection process, Compensation, Training, Team based job design, Incentives, Development oriented appraisal
Döckel (2003), Döckel et al. (2006)	Training opportunities, Compensation, career development, supervisor support, work life policies and Job characteristics
Gächter et al. (2013), Maxwell (2005), Batt and Valcour (2003)	Work-family policies, dependent care benefits, human resource incentives (i.e. salary, job security, career development), flexible scheduling, work-life Balance, and work design
Huang, Lin and Chuang (2006)	Promotion speed, Status of honored employee, relative pay
Chand and Katou (2007), Pio (2007)	Manpower planning, Recruitment and selection, Career planning, Job design, Pay Systems, Quality circles, training and development, Performance and career management, Compensation, Downsizing
Reiche (2008)	Attractive working conditions, Training, Teamwork Employee participation / empowerment, Mentoring programs, nurturing of a strong corporate culture, Job autonomy, Seniority-based pay, Career planning and internal labour markets Job enrichment, Promotions Pay/benefits, distributive and procedural justice
De Vos and Meganck (2009)	Benchmarking promotions, training, Internal mobility, Bonus system, Benefits, career management, communication, Financial rewards
Ready, Hill and Conger (2008)	Guiding mission and values, Inspirational leadership, career track, citizenship, competitive pay, continuous training and development, connection, Challenging work
Deery (2008)	quality training programs, work-life balance, appropriate education and recruitment strategies
Moncarz, Zhao and Kay (2009)	Work environment, job design, Promotions, Organizational mission, goals and direction, training, rewards and compensation, Employee recognition, performance assessment, leadership and development.
Dhiman and Mohanty (2010)	training, performance appraisal, Selection, placement practices home life and work balance, job content, compensation, rewards and recognition, grievance management, workplace relationship, career planning and empowerment.

2.3.5 Employee turnover intentions

An employee's departure from an organization has always been an issue for the organizations because it results in the loss of skilled employees and transfers the knowledge of the firm to the competitors as a result of employee's separation from an organization (Carmeli & Weisberg, 2006). Further, this issue becomes more intense in case the supply of knowledge workers is limited which results in permanent loss of productivity in organizations (Takase, 2010). To handle the issue of employee turnover and employee retention the researchers have significantly examined and identified various predictors of actual employee turnover and retention. One of the important predictor of actual turnover is employee's turnover intentions or intent to leave (Tett & Meyer, 1993; Steel & Ovalle, 1984; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Griffeth et al., 2002). Turnover intentions or intent to leave has been defined as "an employee's willingness or attempts to leave the workplace voluntarily" (Sablinski, Lee, Mitchell, Burton, & Holtom, 2002).

2.3.5.1 Significance of turnover intentions

The existing state of literature reveals that employee's turnover intentions is a multi stage process and these multi stages consists of three different aspects which according to the nature are psychological, cognitive and behavioral (Takase, 2010). The first stage in the multi stage turnover reaction process is psychological component of turnover intentions. This stage elucidates that the negative aspects of jobs or organizations result in employee's psychological responses (Susskind, 2007). Literature highlighted that the psychological emotions include the frustration with the various aspects of job and particularly disengagement with the organizations (Houkes et al., 2003). The second stage in the multi stage turnover reaction process is the cognitive component of turnover intentions. This cognitive stage highlights that turnover intentions is a combination of two distinct words i.e. "intentions" and "to". The intentions component is interpreted as thoughts or desire in existing literature which might result in catalyzing actual turnover behavior (Van Dick et al., 2004; Harris et al., 2005; Castle et al., 2007; Chiu et al., 2005). Second component is the verb attached to the term "intentions" i.e. "to". Literature revealed that the meaning of this component is related to the job withdrawal behavior such as quitting, leaving or terminating a job (Rambur et al., 2003; Hart, 2005; Alexandrov et al., 2007; Kidd & Green, 2006).

The third stage in the multi stage turnover reaction process is the behavioral component of turnover intentions. This component again is splitted into two different aspects i.e. “withdrawal from the job” and “actions related to future opportunities (Takase, 2010). This withdrawal behavior component is related to employee’s less energy levels at work, reporting late in the organization, remain absent from the work (Chen & Francesco, 2000; Harris, Kacmar, & Witt, 2005; Krausz, Koslowsky, & Eiser, 1998). Further the second component “actions related to future opportunities” is related to job search and accepting the alternative job offer (Castle et al., 2007, Takase et al., 2005). The discussion above clearly highlighted the significance of employee turnover intentions. The organizations can observe the three different components attached to turnover intentions and can take the necessary actions to tackle and understand the employee’s behavior and can particularly diminish the effect of future turnover intentions and actual turnover behaviour. The employee’s reaction in terms of psychological, cognitive and behavioral expression is a sign of their future behavior related to job quitting. The organizations need to understand the time frame within which these behaviors can change in to actual turnover so that the organizations can handle and control the various aspects related to these behaviors to overcome the issue of employee turnover and can possibly enhance employee retention.

2.3.5.2 Turnover intentions-Predictors of employee turnover

The research provides enough empirical evidence on the relationship between employee’s turnover intentions and actual turnover rates. The studies highlighted that turnover intentions are the better predictor of actual employee turnover in comparison to job satisfaction, organizational commitment (Carmeli & Weisberg, 2006). Some other researcher also point out that the employee turnover intentions is an immediate antecedent of actual turnover and sometimes it mediates the relationships between other organizational variables and actual turnover (Huffman et al., 2005; Layne et al., 2004; Egan et al., 2004). Literature also revealed that employee turnover intentions are symbols of organizational ineffectiveness and sometimes organizational malfunctioning (Larrabee et al., 2003; Vigoda-Gadot & Ben-Zion, 2004). Finally research empirically proposed that employee turnover intentions are useful to be included in the model of actual turnover (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986) and had been widely investigated measure of actual turnover (Byrne, 2005; Firth et al., 2004; Knudsen et al., 2006). Given the existing state of literature the current study also find it important to measure employee turnover intentions as a sign of employee retention in the organizations whereby

high turnover intentions is related to low employee retention rates and low turnover intentions is related to high employee retention rates.

2.4 Establishing relationships and Hypotheses development

2.4.1 Influence of demographics on the variables under study

The role of demographics in management research is highly questionable and susceptible aspect. The existing literature revealed that the blind consideration of control variables in various statistical analyses results in contamination of observed relationships among the variables under study (Spector & Brannick, 2011). Literature also highlight that the inclusion of control variables in any study should be well thought and explained in relation to the variables under study (Carlson & Wu, 2012) to avoid any misinterpretation of the results and its related conclusions. It is also more important as the study by Becker (2005) revealed a majority of research studies including control variables hardly provide any explanation on the consideration of control variables which might result in results which are actually misinterpreted or even misleading. Thus it becomes ultimately important to consider only those control variables which are of utmost importance and are of real theoretical interest in the data (Spector & Brannick, 2011). The following section of the study provides the explanation for the inclusion of various control variables (age, gender, hierarchical level, organization type) affecting variables under study.

2.4.2 Demographics and employer branding

RQ 1: Does the employees' perception of employer branding dimensions (*Interest value, social value, application value, development value and economic value*) vary with demographic profile (*age, gender, hierarchical level and organization type*) of respondents?

The research studies specifically focusing upon the measurement of employer brand perception revealed that there exists certain variables that might affect the changing perception of an employer brand and these variables are mainly the employee demographics such as age, gender, tenure, managerial level and the type of organization (Edwards & Edwards, 2013). The type of organization or industry has been investigated as a potential predictor of employer brand perception. The literature revealed that the type of organization in which employees are working might influence their perception regarding an employer brand (Van Hoye, Bass, Cromheecke, & Lievens, 2013; Van Knippenberg, Van Knippenberg, Monden, & de Lima, 2002; Uen, Ahlstrom, Chen, & Liu, 2013). Also controlling for organization type (public versus private) further increases the perception of an employer brand (Biswas & Suar, 2014).

Further managerial status or level is another important consideration while examining the employer brand perception as it might potentially affect the thinking of employees regarding their organization depending upon the level on which these employees are working (Corley & Gioia, 2004). Employee's gender has also been found to be an important predictor in influencing the perception of employees towards an employer brand (Lievens, Hoye, & Anseel, 2007; Bachman, Segal, Freedman-Doan, & O' Malley, 2000; Alniaçık, & Alniaçık, 2012; Lievens, Hoye, & Schreurs, 2005). Finally about the inclusion of age as control variable influencing employer branding dimensions the literature supports the fact the age significantly influences employee's perception regarding an employment brand (Alniaçık, & Alniaçık, 2012; Moroko & Uncles, 2008). Given the existing state of literature the current research study propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1(a): Employer branding dimensions (Interest value, social value, application value, development value and economic value) as perceived by existing employees working in Indian organizations will vary depending upon their age.

Hypothesis 1(b): Employer branding as dimensions (Interest value, social value, application value, development value and economic value) as perceived by existing employees working in Indian organizations will vary depending upon their gender.

Hypothesis 1(c): Employer branding dimensions (Interest value, social value, application value, development value and economic value) as perceived by existing employees working in Indian organizations will vary depending upon their hierarchical level (Junior, middle and senior level).

Hypothesis 1(d): Employer branding dimensions (Interest value, social value, application value, development value and economic value) as perceived by existing employees working in Indian organizations will vary depending upon the organizational sector (Public and Private) they work for.

2.4.3 Demographics and servant leadership

RQ2: Does the employees' perception of servant leadership dimensions (*Empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, courage, authenticity, stewardship and humility*) vary with demographic profile (*age, gender, hierarchical level and organization type*) of respondents?

Although there exists a very few studies examining the influence of employee demographics on servant leadership however, some of the studies that specifically focused on assessing

servant leadership in organizations provide some inputs of the role of employee demographics. One such study highlighted that how the perception of servant leadership is influenced by the job level of employees working in an organization (Drury, 2004). The findings of this study revealed that employees having different job level tend to develop different perception regarding servant leadership behavior in organizations. Further it was found that there is no significant difference in the perception of employees at higher levels but the perception of lower level employees tends to be significantly different in regard to servant leadership. Some other studies investigating the influence of job level also highlighted that there exists significant differences among employees working at different hierarchical levels with respect to the perception of servant leadership (McCuddy & Cavin, 2009). While investigating the influence of employee's gender on the perception of servant leadership style the Dannhauser and Boshoff (2006) in their study found that there exists no significant difference between males and females with respect to perception of servant leadership style. However, the other study pointed out the significant differences in the perception of males and females regarding the evaluation of servant leadership dimensions (Fridell, Newcom Belcher, & Messner, 2009).

Further in terms of age, the existing literature revealed that the employees in varied generational difference tend to develop the perception of admired leadership characteristics and might prefer certain leadership style (Arsenault, 2004; Yu & Miller, 2005). In a study conducted by Parolini (2005) it was found that older employees tends to perceive a greater degree of servant leadership in an organizational environment in comparison to younger employees in same organization. The role of organization type (Public versus private) in influencing perception of servant leadership has also been studied in the existing literature and it has been found that there are no significant differences in the perception of servant leadership style followed in public and private sector organizations (Han, Kakabadse, & Kakabadse, 2010). The existing literature provides mixed results with respect to servant leadership and demographic profile so keeping in view the intensity of literature the current study hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 2(a): Employees' perception of servant leadership dimensions (Empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, courage, authenticity, stewardship and humility) will vary depending upon their age.

Hypothesis 2(b): Employees' perception of servant leadership dimensions (Empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, courage, authenticity, stewardship and humility) will vary depending upon their gender.

Hypothesis 2(c): Employees' perception of servant leadership dimensions (Empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, courage, authenticity, stewardship and humility) will vary depending upon their hierarchical level (Junior, middle and senior level).

Hypothesis 2(d): Employees' perception of servant leadership dimensions (Empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, courage, authenticity, stewardship and humility) will vary depending upon the organizational sector (Public and Private) they work for.

2.4.4 Demographics, satisfaction with employee retention practices

RQ3: Does employee satisfaction with retention practices (*Compensation, job characteristics, training, career opportunities and work-life balance*) vary with respect to demographics (*Age, gender, hierarchical level and organization type*)?

The existing literature on human resources management research widely explored and investigated the impact of employee demographics on employee retention practices. The various demographics that have been investigated are employee's age, gender hierarchical level, organization type, educational background, organizational tenure etc. For instance employee's gender has been investigated as an important factor influencing employee satisfaction with certain retention practices (Cunningham, Sagas, & Ashley, 2003; Tymon, Stumpf, & Smith, 2011; Yamamoto, 2013). Similarly employee's age was also associated with influencing employee satisfaction with retention practices and influencing their turnover decisions (Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2001; Vandenberghe & Tremblay, 2008; Yamamoto, 2011; Yamamoto, 2013). In terms of hierarchical level or managerial level it was found in the literature that employee's hierarchical level also significantly associated with perception of retention practices (Agarwala, 2003). Similarly existing literature also supports the fact of perception differences between retention practices adopted by public and private sector organizations (Deckop, Konrad, Perlmutter, & Freely, 2006; Budhwar & Khatri, 2001). The existing state of literature on the role of demographics in influencing employee satisfaction with retention practices lead the current study to form following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3 (a): Employee satisfaction with retention practices (Compensation, job characteristics, training, career opportunities and work-life balance) will vary depending upon their age.

Hypothesis 3 (b): Employee satisfaction with retention practices (Compensation, job characteristics, training, career opportunities and work-life balance) will vary depending upon their gender.

Hypothesis 3 (c): Employee satisfaction with retention practices (Compensation, job characteristics, training, career opportunities and work-life balance) will vary depending upon their hierarchical level (Junior, middle and senior level).

Hypothesis 3 (d): Employee satisfaction with retention practices (Compensation, job characteristics, training, career opportunities and work-life balance) will vary depending upon their organization type (Public or private).

2.5 Employer branding, satisfaction with employee retention (SERP) practices and employee turnover intentions (TI)

RQ 4: Does employer branding construct predict satisfaction with employee retention practices and employee turnover intentions?

HRD policies and practices that establishes the employer brand of an organization plays a vital role in conveying and building unique employment offerings and snapshots of employee-employer relationships (Martin, Gollan, & Grigg, 2011). Unique employment experience provided by the employing company (i.e. employer brand) further helps the organizations attract and retain talent, and also helps in building trust in organizations (Burke et al., 2007). Theory of social exchange further put some light of this phenomenon. Organization's efforts to provide great employment experience signaling the message of organizational support to the employees persuades the employees to reciprocate this by expressing higher commitment and loyalty towards the organizations and hence reducing their intent to turnover. Extant literature also reveals that employee attitudes such as commitment, trust, performance and turnover behaviour stem from their perceptions of organizational actions (Whitener, 2001).

Employees interpret the organizational policies and practices as a symbol of the organization's commitment and support to them (Whitener, 2001). Literature review further highlights the fact that an employee's withdrawal from the job depends on the kind of support employees received from organizations or their representatives (Allen, Shore & Griffeth, 2003; Van Knippenberg, Van Dick & Tavares, 2007). Considering employer branding as an important human resource (HR) strategy (Kucherov & Zavyalova, 2012), the current research study proposed that employer branding as a crucial phenomenon helps organizations in retaining the top talent by inculcating employee's trust in their organizations and the leaders

and enhancing satisfaction level with respect to employee retention practices. The satisfaction with employee retention practices further results in reducing employee's intent to turnover.

Hypothesis 4: Employer branding is positively associated to satisfaction with retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

2.5.1 Interest Value (IV), satisfaction with employee retention practices (SERP) and employee turnover intentions (TI)

With the continuous change in the expectations of the employees, it becomes necessary for the organizations to understand that what existing and prospective employees admire more in terms of employment experience and is ultimate source of their motivation to work for an organization for longer. Specifically it is more crucial for younger generation (Westerman & Yamamura, 2007). Interest value of an employer brand assess the level to which an organization provides a great work environment for effective utilization of employee's skills to develop innovative products and services (Berthon et al., 2005). Literature also reveals that attributes related work environment are specifically related to various important organizational outcomes (Westerman & Yamamura, 2007; Shalley, Gilson & Blum, 2000; Monsen & Boss, 2009; Wright & Davis, 2003; Lee & Way, 2010).

Goal orientation and system work environment fit are found to be of great importance in influencing job satisfaction and intention to remain with the organization (Westerman & Yamamura, 2007). Also, work environment factor such as accomplishment at work was found to be an important predictor of employee satisfaction with employee retention practices and intent to remain (Lee & Way, 2010). Interestingly, the findings of the study by Shalley, Gilson and Blum (2000) revealed that work environment that complement the creative requirement of jobs was associated with higher job satisfaction and lower intent to turnover. Monsen and Boss (2009) highlighted the importance of entrepreneurial orientations such as proactiveness and innovativeness in influencing employee decision to stay or leave an organization and were found to be effective strategies for employee retention. Given the existing state of literature the current study propose that higher interest value of an employer brand may result in enhancing satisfaction with employee retention practices and reducing employees' turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 4(a): Interest value is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

2.5.2 Social Value (SV), satisfaction with employee retention practices (SERP) and employee turnover intentions (TI)

Social value of an employer brand gauges the extent to which the organizations provide fun working environment, impart good superior-subordinate relationships and a team atmosphere (Berthon et al., 2005). Environment full of fun and happiness has been reported as one of the important motivators for employee retention (Moncarz, Zhao & Kay, 2009; Milman, 2003; Wildes, 2007). Factor such as constituent attachment such as relationships with superiors, co-workers were also investigated as important predictors of employee decision to stay with an organization (Hausknecht, Rodda & Howard, 2009). Also, the study conducted by Golden and Veiga (2008) revealed that superior-subordinate relationships have a salient impact on individual work related outcomes such as organizational commitment which further leads to lower absenteeism and turnover (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Riketta, 2002). People tend to stay with organizations for varied reasons. Out of the various reasons studied compatible supervisors was regarded as important for individual to stay and work for a supervisor who is supportive to them (Retaining employees, 2010). Another important aspect to socialization models of employee turnover suggested that if employees fit well in the organizational social culture then the tendency of such employees to stay in a particular organization increases (Sheridan, 1992; Taormina, 2009; Zheng & Lamond, 2010). Social environment is also strongly associated with employee retention (De Vos & Meganck, 2009). Existing literature leads the current research to an expected positive relationship between social value of an employer brand and satisfaction with employee retention practices and a negative association between social value and employee turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 4(b): Social value is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

2.5.3 Development Value (DV), satisfaction with employee retention practices (SERP) and employee turnover intentions (TI)

While explaining why individuals stay with a particular organization Hausknecht, Rodda and Howard (2009) in their study concluded that there are certain work-related factors and personal factors that results in explaining employee turnover process. According to the authors, advance opportunities which is a work-related factor is often relational and intangible aspect (Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, & Bravo, 2007) that results in enhancing employee retention with respect to specific group of employees. As per Berthon et al. (2005) development value of an

employer brand includes recognition by organizations, self-worth and confidence, coupled with career-enhancing experience and a spring-board for future employment. The development value also includes aspects such as mentoring and empowering environment (Schlager, Bodderas, Maas & Luc Cachelin, 2011). Mentoring, specifically psychosocial mentoring was found to be a significant predictor of employee retention (Hall & Smith, 2009). Also, the study conducted by Payne and Huffman (2005) revealed that commitment mediated the negative relationship between mentoring and actual turnover behavior. Advancement opportunities that include career enhancing experience have also been reported as an important factor for employee retention (DiPietro & Milman, 2008; Ramlall, 2003). Empowering environment is said to be linked with organizational commitment which further leads to reducing employees' intent to turnover (Albrecht & Andreetta, 2011; Dewettinck & Van Ameijde, 2011) and enhance employee retention. Various aspects of development value associated with an employer brand are significantly associated with employee retention and turnover behavior. This discussion leads the current research to propose significant relationships between development value, employee retention practices and employee turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 4(c): Development value is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

2.5.4 Application Value (AV), satisfaction with employee retention practices (SERP) and employee turnover intentions (TI)

Application value assesses “the degree to which employing company provides an opportunity for the employee to apply what they have learned and to teach others, in an environment that is both customers oriented and humanitarian” (Berthon et al., 2005). Customers oriented environment and behaviors were found to be significantly associated with commitment and organizational citizenship behavior (Donavan, Brown & Mowen, 2004) which further relates to employee's withdrawal cognitions such as turnover intentions (Paré & Tremblay, 2007) and employee retention (Paré, Tremblay & Lalonde, 2001). Humanitarian approach towards employees is also necessary for the fulfilment of brand promise. The literature highlighted that the development of mutually benefitted long term relationships between employer and employees are specifically important which may in turn enhance employee retention (King & Grace, 2008). Recent literature also revealed that the inclusion of rich experience in work practices and abundant opportunities for learning may also help in retaining skilled workforce in an organization (Kyndt, Dochy, Michielsen & Moeyaert, 2009). Interestingly it was found

that if the internal mobility opportunities are available within the organization; it will help the organization to deal with employee turnover behavior effectively (Mobley, 1982 as cited by Zheng & Lamond, 2010). Given the existing state of literature the current study propose that higher application value of an employer brand may result in enhancing satisfaction with employee retention practices and reducing employees' turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 4(d): Application value is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

2.5.5 Economic Value (EV), satisfaction with employee retention practices (SERP) and employee turnover intentions (TI)

Economic value of an employer brand is associated an above average salary, compensation package, job security and promotional opportunities” Berthon et al. (2005). Economic value that includes competitive remuneration and recognition is also associated with the positive employee attitudes such as high intentions to stay in organizations (Chew & Chan, 2008). Existing literature also revealed that organization’s provision to providing benefits helps in attraction and retention of employees (Ash & Bendapudi, 1996). In deciding whether employee will stay with the organization for longer Huang, Lin and Chuang (2006) in their research study examined and revealed that ranking of being an honored employee and relative pay are important decisive factors. Employee equity models have also been highlighted to deal with the issue of employee retention. Low value equity, low retention equity and low brand equity are the three important equity areas that organizations should consider to handle employee turnover issues (Cardy & Lengnick-Hall, 2011). Another important aspect in the economic value is the importance of financial rewards linked to the compensation. It was found in the literature that financial rewards are significantly associated with employee turnover (De Vos & Meganck (2009). Vandenberghe and Tremblay (2008) provided strong empirical support for overall compensation satisfaction as a key element in employee retention policies that helped in intensifying the link between employees and the organization. DeConinck and Stilwell (2004) while testing of the turnover model found that pay satisfaction and supervisor satisfaction had direct impacts on behavioral intentions of employees. This discussion leads the current research to propose significant relationships between economic value, employee retention practices and employee turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 4(e): Economic value is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

2.6 Servant leadership, satisfaction with employee retention practices (SERP) and turnover intentions (TI)

RQ 5: Does servant leadership construct predict satisfaction with employee retention practices and employee turnover intentions?

Based on the understanding of meta-analysis on turnover intention theory (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000), the authors learnt that the employee's decision of leaving a particular organization is initiated by job dissatisfaction. This dissatisfaction with the job in turn persuades the employee to search for another job, accepting offers from other organizations and finally leaving the organization. The employee's dissatisfaction with the job may be a result of dissatisfaction with the organizational processes (Miskel, Fevurly, & Stewart, 1979), policies (Ernst Kossek, & Ozeki, 1998), leadership style (Fuller, Morrison, Jones, Bridger, & Brown, 1999; Lok & Crawford, 2004), job characteristics (Loher, Noe, Moeller, & Fitzgerald, 1985; Lee & Wilbur, 1985) etc.

Research studies highlighted that perceived organizational support in terms of organizational policies and practices is significantly related to servant leadership (Sun & Wang, 2009; West, Bocarnea, & Maranon, 2009). Also, it further related to the employee need and job satisfaction at workplace (Mayer, Bardes, & Piccolo, 2008; Jaramillo, Giraffe, Chonko, & Roberts, 2009a; West, Bocarnea, & Maranon, 2009. Studies (Jaramillo et al. 2009b; Hunter et al. 2013; Babakus, Yavas, & Ashill, 2011) indicate that servant leadership style in particular is a key factor in influencing employee turnover intentions. Building on the argument that leadership style impacts the level of job satisfaction and the level of job satisfaction in turn impacts employee turnover intentions, the current study propose that the perceived servant leadership style results enhancing employee satisfaction with retention practices and reduce employee turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 5: Perceived servant leadership style is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

2.6.1 Empowerment (EMP), satisfaction with employee retention practices (SERP) and employee turnover intentions (TI)

Existing literature revealed that information sharing, instructing for innovative performance, encouraging decision making which is self directed are in fact the crucial aspect of empowering leadership (Konczak, Stelly, & Trusty, 2000). Empowerment as an important

leadership aspect has been widely studied in relation to employee retention and turnover intentions (Albrecht & Andretta, 2011; Hall & Smith, 2009; Harris, Wheeler, & Kacmar, 2009; Ramlall, 2003; Spence Laschinger, Leiter, Day, & Gilin, 2009). Study by Spence Laschinger, Leiter, Day, and Gilin (2009) revealed that empowerment is strongly associated with the employee retention outcomes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intentions. Further, the findings of the study conducted by Ramlall (2003) suggested empowerment as an important retention strategy to deal with the issue of high employee turnover. Interestingly empowerment has also been studied as an important moderating variable influencing leadership behavior and important organizational outcomes such as turnover intentions and organizational citizenship behavior (Harris, Wheeler, & Kacmar, 2009). Also, literature supports the fact that empowered employees are more inclined to stay in the organization and feel satisfied as they have been provided with decision making power which ultimately creates a sense of obligation amongst employees to extend the association with organizations (Hong et al., 2012). An interesting study on empowerment after downsizing revealed that the employees who survived after downsizing in the organization feel empowered and are more attached to the organization. This attachment further results in reducing their intent to voluntary turnover (Spreitzer & Mishra, 2002). Building on the above discussion on the relationship between empowerment and employee retention outcomes, the current research study propose that empowering leadership is strongly associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and employee turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 5(a): Empowerment is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

2.6.2 Standing back (STB), satisfaction with employee retention practices (SERP) and employee turnover intentions (TI)

According to Van Dierendonck and Rook (2010) and Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) standing back is about modesty which a service oriented leader retreats by keeping himself in the background whenever a task has been accomplished successfully and gives priority to the interest of others and providing them necessary support. Recent research on credit expectations and credit allocation by leaders Rodgers, Sauer and Proell (2013) revealed that employees show less commitment towards leaders when the leaders did not give credit to subordinates after successful completion of the tasks.

Dimension standing back as definition claimed also include the aspect of necessary support by leaders to subordinates. The findings of the study conducted by Maertz, Griffeth, Campbell and Allen (2008) revealed that perceived supervisor support is directly influencing employee turnover intentions and enhance employee retention. The researchers also postulate that the leaders can regularly ask their subordinates regarding any help they need to complete the tasks and shows personal considerations. Further Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski and Rhoades (2002) concluded that employees who feel that their leaders value their contributions and take care of their well being resulted in increasing perceived organizational support which ultimately result in increasing retention and reducing turnover intentions. Based on the propositions derived in the existing literature current research study propose that leader's standing back behavior is associated with satisfaction with employee retention practices and reduced turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 5(b): Standing back is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

2.6.3 Accountability (ACC), satisfaction with employee retention practices (SERP) and employee turnover intentions (TI)

Accountability is assigning individuals with unambiguous goals to aspire for and holding them responsible for the outcome attached with the achievement of these goals (Van Dierendonck & Rook, 2010). Existing literature provide some insights on the role of leader's authentic behavior in influencing employee retention and turnover intentions. The findings of the study conducted by Mendes and Stander (2011) revealed that accountability is related to work engagement which further results in reducing employee's intentions to leave an organization. Accountability also postulates that providing clear goals to the subordinates is an important aspect of leader's authentic behavior. It also bring role efficacy to enhance organizational efficacy (Pethe & Chaudhari, 2000) as one's belief in him/ herself result in enhancing performance (Pethe, Chaudhari, & Dhar, 2000).

Goal clarity is widely investigated as an important antecedent to commitment (Cheng & Stockdale, 2003) and commitment further help in reducing employee turnover intentions (Mosadeghrad, Ferlie, & Rosenberg, 2007; Lam, Lo, & Chan, 2002) and enhancing employee retention. Leader's role in providing unambiguous goals to employees is very crucial as the literature revealed that role ambiguity is strongly associated with employee turnover intentions negatively (Hang-yue, Foley, & Loi, 2005) while role clarity is strongly associated with

organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Mukherjee & Malhotra, 2006). Building on the arguments presented in the existing literature the current research study proposed that leader's accountability behavior is strongly associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices which may further reduce employee turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 5(c): Accountability is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

2.6.4 Forgiveness (FGV), satisfaction with employee retention practices (SERP) and employee turnover intentions (TI)

According to Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) forgiveness facilitates development of strong interpersonal relationships by understanding the behaviors of individuals and also it helps in building a platform that brings best out from the individuals. Ferch (2004) considered it as an ability of a leader to forgive mistakes and disputes of employees and creating an environment of self-confidence. Fehr and Gelfand (2012) while proposing the model of forgiveness climate in organizations proposed that forgiveness is associated with relational commitment and interpersonal citizenship.

Also, forgiveness at workplace is linked with employee retention. Stone (2002) in his research work concluded that true forgiveness supports employee retention, fosters creativity and innovation, generate flexibility to deal with ever changing market conditions. While forgiveness climate at workplace is associated with high employee retention rates, on the other hand environment that is full of abusive supervision tends to heighten employee withdrawal intentions and reducing employee retention (Tepper, Carr, Breaux, Geider, Hu, & Hua, 2009). As per the suggestions proposed by Caldwell and Dixon (2010) trust and forgiveness are very crucial aspects of leadership. These values of trust and forgiveness can further help leaders to create an environment in the organization where employees wish to stay longer (Chitra, 2013). Keeping in view the empirical evidence in the literature the current research study propose that forgiveness dimension of servant leadership is strongly associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and employees' turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 5(d): Forgiveness is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

2.6.5 Courage (CRG), satisfaction with employee retention practices (SERP) and employee turnover intentions (TI)

Russell and Stone (2002) defined it as ‘a pro-active behavior that focuses on developing new ways, identifying new approaches to old problems and having strong reliance on the values and convictions that govern one’s actions. Walton (1986) refers that courage emphasizes on taking actions that are potentially risky in routine tasks/ activities in which individuals are engaged. Courageous leadership has been highlighted as a control mechanism for employee turnover. In a study titled ‘strong leaders strengthen retention’ Cullen (1999) concluded that it is a leader’s duty to invite innovation and encourage new changes. The study also postulates that employees who feel that the organizations provide them high levels of controls are less inclined towards turnover (Cullen, 1999).

Looking at the continuous changes in the global competition it becomes crucial for organizations to search to innovative ways of managing as literature revealed that organizations with higher inspiration levels are likely to enjoy higher employee retention, productivity and profitability (Alder, 2006). Extant literature also put some light on the role of leadership skills such as taking risks, keeping calm in unexpected situations in influencing employee retention decisions (Kyndt et al., 2009). Above discussion leads the current research to propose that courageous leadership is strongly associated with employee turnover intentions and satisfaction with employee retention practices.

Hypothesis 5(e): Courage is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

2.6.6 Authenticity (AUT), satisfaction with employee retention practices (SERP) and employee turnover intentions (TI)

Authenticity is deeply associated with expressing the ‘true self’ and demonstrating oneself in a manner that is in congruence with one’s inner thoughts and feelings (Harter, 2002). Authentic leadership behavior is widely explored in influencing employee work related attitudes and behaviors such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, extra effort, job performance and withdrawal behaviors. Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans and May (2004) provides evidence that authentic aspect of leadership indirectly influences employees withdrawal behavior through commitment, job satisfaction and engagement. Similar findings were also reported by the study conducted by Spence Laschinger, Wong and Grau (2012) which postulates that employees lower turnover intentions was the outcome of authentic leadership

behavior. Existing literature also highlights the role of authentic leadership in preventing negative organizational and employee outcomes. For instance, the findings of the study conducted by Spence Laschinger and Fida (2014) revealed that employees who perceive their leaders to be authentic are less likely to experience burnout and high turnover intentions. Building on the above discussion on the relationship between authentic leadership behavior and employee retention outcomes, the current research study propose that authenticity is strongly associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and employee turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 5(f): Authenticity is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

2.6.7 Stewardship (STW), satisfaction with employee retention practices (SERP) and employee turnover intentions (TI)

Stewardship is deeply associated with social responsibility, team work and loyalty (Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011) and leaders by their actions can encourage others to do well for common interest. Stewardship is also “the willingness to take the responsibility for large institution and commit oneself to service (Block, 1993), instead of seeking control and indulging in self-interest (Spears, 1995). Existing literature revealed that if employees of an organization perceive organizational human resource policies and practices to be the dedicated towards the principles of stewardship, such a perception will help in enhancing the employees’ commitment towards the organizations in comparison to the organizations that do not follow such principles (Caldwell, Hayes, Karri, & Bernal, 2008). Further an important aspect of stewardship is social responsibility (Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011) which is strongly associated with staff retention in existing literature. The findings of the study by Eweje and Bentley (2006) revealed that an organization’s inclination towards corporate social responsibilities is an important factor in attracting and retaining the talent and also it was to be a predictor of employee satisfaction with retention practices. Further some research studies also revealed that employees’ intentions to leave an organization is indirectly linked to social responsibility through the enhancement of organizational commitment (Hollingworth & Valentine, 2014). Also, stewardship aspect of servant leadership is specifically highlighted as an important predictor of employee’s turnover intentions as suggested by the findings of the study conducted by Harrison and Gordon (2014). Building on the arguments presented in the existing literature the current research study propose that leader’s stewardship behavior is

strongly associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices which may further reduce employee's turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 5(g): Stewardship is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

2.6.8 Humility (HUM), satisfaction with employee retention practices (SERP) and employee turnover intentions (TI)

In leadership domain humility focuses upon daring to confess that one is not perfect and commit mistakes (Morris, Brotheridge, Urbanski, 2005) and also to “put one's accomplishments and talents in proper perspectives”. Employee retention is a big challenge in organizations and a majority of organizations believe that they lack leadership pipeline that could deal with this issue. Somos (2014) in his article in leadership excellence suggested that there is a need to humanize the workplaces to deal with the issue of employee retention. The researcher propounds the five ways with which organizational leaders can humanize the workplace. According to author (Somos, 2014) being authentic, simplifying the complex things, face to face conversation in difficult times, creation and communication of meaning to others and infusion of appropriate fun are the five pillars that can help in increasing employee retention. This suggestion is also supported by the empirical findings of the study conducted by Owens, Johnson and Mitchell (2013) which indicated that leader's expressed humility is strongly associated with employee retention and the relationship is mediated by increased job satisfaction. Based on the propositions derived and empirical evidence in the existing literature current research study propose that leader's humility is associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and reduced turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 5(h): Humility is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

2.7 Employee retention practices and turnover intentions

RQ: 6 Does employee satisfaction with retention practices predicts employee turnover intentions?

Chand & Katou (2007) revealed that adoption of best human resource retention practices such as career planning, manpower planning, training and development, appreciation and recognition could provide Indian organizations with a competitive advantage. Döckel (2003) developed a retention factor scale to measure the impact of retention factors on organizational commitment of high technology employees. The retention factor measurement scale (RFMS)

developed by Döckel (2003) included compensation, work life policies, training opportunities, career development, supervisor support and job characteristics as factors affecting retention. Findings of Döckel et al. (2006) indicated that out of the six factors studied, work life policies, compensation, job characteristics and supervisor support significantly predicted organizational outcomes. Existing literature supports the fact that investing in corporate human resource practices increases job satisfaction among employees, thereby reducing turnover intentions (Salvich et al., 2014; Huselid, 1995). Although extant literature provides enough information on the effective use of a variety of HRM practices that influence employee behaviour at the workplace in different sectors/industries, there is a strong need to identify the practices common across all sectors and industries that may influence an employee's decision to stay in a particular organization. To this end, the current study has identified five key HRM practices that are common across all industries and sectors, and that might influence employee turnover. The current study considers compensation, work-life balance, job characteristics, training opportunities and career development opportunities as the five key HRM practices that may influence employees' work related behavior in Indian organizations. The extant literature directs the study that the employee retention practices are negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

2.7.1 Compensation and turnover intentions

Vandenberghe and Tremblay (2008) provided strong empirical support for overall compensation satisfaction as a key element in employee retention policies that helped in intensifying the link between employees and the organization. DeConinck and Stilwell (2004) while testing of the turnover model found that pay satisfaction and supervisor satisfaction had direct impacts on behavioral intentions of employees. Similar studies reported a significant impact of pay satisfaction on turnover intentions (Tekleab et al., 2005; Heneman & Schwab, 1985; Bergiel et al., 2009; Ryan & Sagas, 2009). Further, Tekleab et al. (2005) suggested organizations explain the pay raise procedures to all employees so that employees used the information to determine the fairness of compensation related practices.

An assurance of fairness in organizational practices results in employee satisfaction which in turn, reduces turnover intentions thus encouraging high employee retention rates. This argument is supported by the findings of Kochanski and Ledford (2001) which indicate that pay raises and fairness in procedures of disbursing pay are more important than the actual pay in predicting employee retention because employees want to understand the whole

payment process and seek clear communication from employers as to how they can earn pay raises. It has also been found that transparent pay procedures and fair disbursement of incentives helps in reducing employee turnover intentions by significantly boosting their morale. Existing literature leads the current study to propose that compensation satisfaction may result in reducing employee turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 6(a): Satisfaction with compensation practices is negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

2.7.2 Job characteristics and turnover intentions

In this study, importance has been given to two important dimensions of job characteristics theory - job autonomy and skill variety, based on the influence of these dimensions on employee motivation at the work place (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Literature supports the fact that employee perception of greater job autonomy results in lower turnover intentions (Spector, 1986). Dysvik and Kuvaas (2013) found that greater job autonomy lead to lower turnover intentions in the case of employees who received higher supervisory support. Singh (1998) indicated that only task variety was significantly associated with employee turnover intentions. Similar findings on the negative associations between job characteristics and turnover intentions were reported in the studies by McKnight et al. (2009).

Interestingly, (Katou & Budhwar, 2010) while linking the three domains of HRM such as ability, motivation and opportunity to perform with variety of HRM outcomes such as employee skills, attitudes and behaviors, the authors concluded that the abilities of an employee improves with the careful resourcing and development, following this, the adequate compensation and incentives motivate the employees to use the abilities to perform their jobs, while employee involvement and job design resulted in employee's decision to stay with the organizations. Given the importance of job characteristics (Job design) in altering employees' work related behaviour, the current study propose that satisfaction with job characteristics may result in reducing employee's turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 6(b): Satisfaction with job characteristics is negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

2.7.3 Training and turnover intentions

Existing literature gives two different perspectives on the relationship between employee training and turnover intentions: some scholars argue that the relationship between employee training and turnover intentions is negative while others view this relationship as positive.

Cheng & Waldenberger (2013) concluded that organizational efforts to meet the training expectations of employees resulted in reduced turnover intentions. Further according to Zheng and Lamond (2010) organization's efforts to provide more training to employees is significantly related to lower employee turnover. Huselid (1995) also highlighted that training resulted in improved knowledge, skills and abilities of employees.

Enhancement of knowledge, skills and abilities further motivates the employees to work hard thereby increasing retention rates. Dhiman & Mohanty (2010) found that employee training was positively associated with turnover intentions. They argued that an increase in knowledge, skills and abilities of employees actually increased their market value thus increasing their turnover intentions. Similar findings were also reported by Gardner et al. (2007). As majority of literature propose a negative relationship between training and turnover intentions, the current study also propose a negative relationship between satisfaction with training and turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 6 (c): Satisfaction with training practices is negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

2.7.4 Career development opportunities and turnover intentions

De Vos and Meganck (2009) found that for employees, career development opportunities were the most predictive factor in employees' intention to stay with the organization. On the other hand, for HR managers, training was the most predictive factor in influencing the employee's decision to stay in, or leave the organization. De Vos and Meganck (2009) also concluded that providing good career development opportunities not only prevented employees from leaving the organization, but also helped in increasing their loyalty towards the organization. Similar findings were also reported by Reiche (2008). However, Batt and Valcour (2003) indicated that career development was positively associated with employee turnover intentions. But in Indian context, the authors believed that the negative relationships between career development and turnover intentions should prevail as Foong-ming (2008) concluded that in Asian countries social relationships are more substantial than the economic exchange in long run (Foong-ming, 2008). Also it has been found that the inclusion of career related advancement for knowledge workers increase their obligation to decide to remain with the organization. The existing state of literature leads the current study to propose that satisfaction with career development opportunities may result in reducing employees' turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 6(d): Satisfaction with career development opportunities practices is negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

2.7.5 Work-life balance and turnover intentions

Deery (2008) concluded that balance between work and life played a significant role in improving employee retention rates. Gächter et al. (2013) reported negative relationships between work-life balance and turnover intentions. Maxwell (2005) highlighted the role of managers in initiating work-life balance practices and concluded that managers played a vital role in the formulation and implementation of work-life balance policies. Organizational support is a key element in maintaining work-life balance. While exploring the role of cognitive appraisals in work-family experiences Padhi and Pattnaik (2014) revealed that congruent employees perceive greater work-life enrichment in comparison to incongruent employees. The study revealed that better fit between person and organizational environment results in enhancing the work-family enrichment for employees (Padhi & Pattnaik, 2014). Batt & Valcour (2003) examined three types of HR policies and practices: (i) work-family policies consisting of flexible scheduling and dependent care benefits, (ii) human resource incentives contributing to income and employment security (salary, job security, career development), and (iii) work design elements including autonomy, coordination of responsibilities, work hours and travelling demands. The findings indicated that all three types of practices and policies significantly predicted outcome variables such as employee turnover. Interestingly, flexible scheduling practices, supportive supervisors and high relative pay were found to significantly reduce turnover intentions, while career development was found to be associated with increased quitting intentions. Deery (2008) further suggested that focused strategies for providing quality training programs, recruitment, appropriate education in collaboration and attaining work-life balance could impact employee retention rates. On the basis of literature reviewed, the current study propose that work-life balance and employees' turnover intentions shares a negative relationship.

Hypothesis 6(e): Satisfaction with work-life balance practices is negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

2.8 Theoretical Framework of Proposed Model

RQ 7: Does employer branding and employee satisfaction with employee retention practices sequentially mediate the relationships between servant leadership and turnover intentions?

This study proposes that perceived servant leadership style and employer brand perception influence employee's satisfaction with retention practices and employee turnover intentions. The study based its research proposition on the theory of social exchange relationship, social identity and resource based perspective of firm (Barney, 2001). Researchers in the field of organizational behavior (Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor 2000) theorized that an employee is involved in at least two social exchange relationships at work: with his supervisor and with the organization. The premise of the theory of social exchange revolves around the principle of reciprocity where one party provides a service to the other party and the other party develops a sense of obligation to reciprocate (Blau 1964). The study conceptualized the framework by assessing the social exchange relationships between employees, their immediate supervisors and organizations. For the employees, leaders are the representatives of the organization, so it is interesting to examine the relationship between employees and their leaders as trust in leaders is more important than trust in organizations (Konovsky and Pugh 1994). The study proposes that servant leaders show their concern for employees by taking care of their needs and aspirations, and by emphasizing on their development. Employees in return reciprocate this concern shown by their leaders by placing an increased level of trust in them depending upon the fairness of procedures and practices followed by their leaders. Malakyan (2014) in his study states that in case of servant leadership the role of a leader and that of a follower are interchangeable i.e. the leader can assume the role of a follower and vice versa. In this way, Malakyan (2014) reinforces the concept of reciprocation.

Managers play a vital role in conveying the desired organizational image upon the employees which further results in the way existing employees perceive the organizational brand (Scott & Lane 2000). Further research by Martin (2009) provides evidence that organizational identity can be converted into a positive organizational image by emphasizing on the welfare of employees and leadership itself rather than emphasizing on individuals as leaders. Considering the key role of leaders in influencing and projecting a positive organizational image, the traits and behaviors of leaders may influence the employees to perceive their employer brand positively. Martin (2009) proved that a leader's focus on the needs of his followers and the leadership style followed by the leader resulted in forming a positive organizational image. Extending the scope of the research by Zhang et al. (2012) that proved that servant leaders through their behaviour reinforce the importance of service within and without the organization which in turn makes the organization a unique entity, the current

research propose that servant leadership is an important factor in projecting a positive employer brand image, and an organization following service as its guiding principle imbibes service as part of its core values and work ethic.

Further, the research study propose that the employee's perception of their employer brand is a key indicator for the employees to decide whether they stay or leave a particular organization. Literature on resource-based perspective of the firm acclaimed that any organization's resources are categorized into three main categories i.e. human capital resources, organization capital resources and physical capital resources (Barney, 2001). We base our research proposition by emphasizing on organizational capital resources that provide organizations competitive and sustained competitive advantage. Organizational capital resources of the firm includes planning, co-coordinating systems and informal relations among the groups of the firm (Wright et al., 1994). The research study presents unique employer brand of any organization as its organizational capital resource which is rare, difficult to imitate by competing organizations and a non-substitutable resource. Planning and implementation of unique policies and practices of any organization create a strong and positive employer brand image that helps organizations attract the talent pool and retain the existing workforce. The unique employment experience by any organization binds the employees to extend their association with the current employers as employer brand is a rare, inimitable organization capital resource that provides the organizations competitive edge and makes it difficult for other organizations in dynamic business environment to poach the top talent. Joo and Mclean (2006) in their study highlighted that resource based view provides employer brands a fundamental theoretical background embracing engaged employees, strategy and firm's financial performance.

Social identity theory (Tajfel, 1982) propound that any individual's self-concept is derived from perceived membership in a social group. Existing literature depicts that it is more likely that employees are strongly identified with their organizations if they perceive their employer's brand image to be strong and positive (Backhaus & Tikoo, 2004). Further, the positive employer brand image persuades the employees to seek and extend their membership with that organization in order to enhance their self-esteem. Perception of higher self-esteem while working for a particular organization is a well established key dimension that influence employee's turnover decisions (Pierce & Gardner, 2004). The derived self-concept of any

individual from their association with a particular organization (Tajfel, 1982) also inhibits them to join or seek the membership of any other organization as social identity theory proposed that members engage in inter-organization prejudice in order to attain and preserve positive uniqueness of their social identity (Rubin & Hewstone, 1998). Building on this argument presented in literature, the study propose that unique employer brand of organization will act as a reference for its employees to compare their identity with other organization's social groups joining which may not result in enhancing their self-esteem as unique employer brand of organization is a critical resource that is difficult to imitate by other organizations.

Further, the theory of social exchange relationship (Blau, 1964) provides useful insights on the relationship between employer branding practices and employee's satisfaction with retention practices. Principle of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) demonstrates this phenomenon. Organizational efforts to create and maintain the unique employer brand by following best possible human resources policies and practices convey a message of organizational support to its employees (Whitener, 1997). Employees in return reciprocate this by developing trust and commitment towards the organizations. Continuously meeting the expectations of employees also result in increased employee retention rates which further results in building rare human capital resource of the organization (Wright, et al., 1994). While policies and practices are developed by top management and Human resource managers, but the implementation lies with the leaders. Leader's behavior of implementing these activities has a significant impact on relationship with their employees and the trust which employees have in them because of fair outcomes, procedures, open communication and interactions (Whitener, 1997). The review of existing literature discussed above highlighted the relationships between employer branding, servant leadership, employee retention practices and employee turnover intentions. The rationale behind the research study was to develop a model of employee turnover that measures how servant leadership style can help in building strong employer brand image in the minds of existing employees which further enhances their overall satisfaction level with retention practices and reducing their intent to turnover. The proposed model in the current study is displayed in figure 2.1 below. The extant literature also leads the study to propose that the relationship between servant leadership and employee turnover intentions is sequentially mediated by employer branding and satisfaction with employee retention practices. Thus the study hypothesizes:

Hypothesis 7: Employer branding and satisfaction with employee retention practices sequentially mediate the relationship between servant leadership and employee turnover intention.

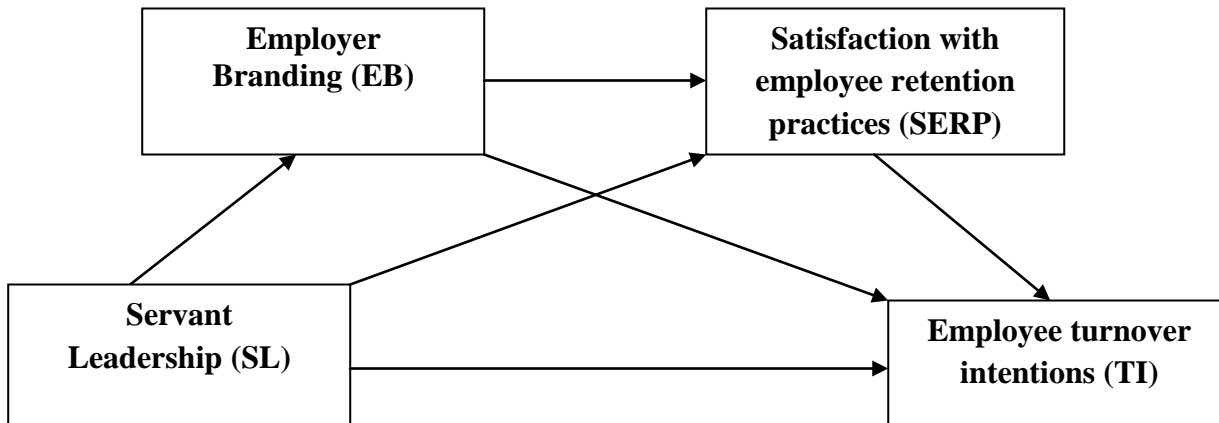


Fig. 2.1 Proposed Model in the study

2.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter provided the details of the existing state of literature on the variables considered for investigation in the current study. The first sections of the chapter highlight the existing state of literature on employer branding, servant leadership, and employee retention and turnover intentions. The section particularly focuses upon the origin and evolution of the concepts under study and highlights the major gaps in the research related to these concepts. Second section of the chapter discussed the importance of studying demographic variables in context to employer branding, servant leadership and satisfaction with employee retention practices. This section specifically highlighted that why these demographic variables are important to be included in the study and investigated in relation to the main variables of the study. Further, the third section provided a detailed review of literature relating the independent dimensions of employer branding, servant leadership, employee retention practices and turnover intentions. This section also highlighted the theoretical justification on the relationships between independent variables (Employer branding, Servant leadership) and dependent variables (satisfaction with employee retention practices and employee turnover intentions) and proposed the hypotheses in light of the arguments presented in literature. The final section of the chapter presented the theoretical framework of the conceptual model proposed in the study.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The chapter deals with the research methodology adopted for the achievement of the objectives and the research questions derived therein. The chapter includes the objectives of research study, the research questions derived from the objectives, detailed description of the sample, procedure for data collection, research instruments employed for the measurement of the variables under study and finally the statistical analysis approach to test the research hypotheses.

3.2 Objectives of the study

The study aimed to investigate the impact of employer branding and servant leadership in influencing the employee's satisfaction with retention practices and reducing employee's turnover intentions. Also, the research study focuses upon the role of demographics in influencing the perception of employees with respect to employer branding, servant leadership and satisfaction with employee retention practices. To attain the purpose of the study the following objectives have been developed:

1. To study the employer branding perception of employees working in selected Indian organizations.
2. To study the servant leadership style as perceived by employees working in selected Indian organizations.
3. To study the satisfaction with retention practices and turnover intentions of employees working in selected Indian organizations.
4. To study the impact of perceived employer branding on employee's satisfaction with retention practices and employee's turnover intentions.
5. To study the impact of perceived servant leadership style on employee's satisfaction with retention practices and employee's turnover intentions.
6. To propose and test the model on interrelationships among employer branding, servant leadership, satisfaction with employee retention practices and employee turnover intentions.
7. To open new vistas of research.

The following research questions have been derived herein for the accomplishment of the above mentioned objectives.

1. Does the employees' perception of employer branding dimensions vary with demographics (Age, gender, hierarchical level and organization type)?
2. Does the employees' perception of servant leadership dimensions vary with respect to demographics (Age, gender, hierarchical level and organization type)?
3. Does employee satisfaction with retention practices vary with respect to demographics (Age, gender, hierarchical level and organization type)?
4. Does employer branding construct predict satisfaction with employee retention practices and employee turnover intentions?
5. Does servant leadership construct predict satisfaction with employee retention practices and employee turnover intentions?
6. Does employee satisfaction with retention practices predicts employee turnover intentions?
7. Does employer branding and employee satisfaction with employee retention practices sequentially mediate the relationships between servant leadership and turnover intentions?

3.3 Research Design

The research design adopted in the study is conclusive research design. This research design allows for the descriptive research by following survey based cross sectional design. The study used quantitative methods to investigate the hypothesized interrelationships among the variables under study. The survey based cross sectional research design has been followed in the study as the cross sectional research design entails the measurement of variables at onetime (Malhotra & Dash, 2009). Further, the cross sectional research designs have merits in comparison to longitudinal research designs if the sample is highly educated and the research uses the array of measurement scales (Rindfleisch, Malter, Ganesan, & Moorman, 2008). This also is one of the reasons for choosing cross sectional research design as the respondents of the study are highly educated and research used array of measurement scales. Further the research design also include multivariate analyses to investigate the interrelationships between the independent and dependent variables selected for the study depending upon the theoretical foundation relating to these variables in existing literature (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2013). The independent variables of the study included five dimensions of employer branding

(interest value, social value, application value, development value and economic value) and eight dimensions of servant leadership (empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, authenticity, courage, stewardship and humility). The dependent variables of the study included satisfaction with employee retention practices and employee turnover intentions.

3.4 Description of the Sample

The sample of the study consists of employees working in Indian organizations. A structured questionnaire was administered to a total of 600 employees working in Indian public and private sector organizations. The organizations chosen for this study were from Delhi, Bangalore, Hyderabad, Gurgaon, Noida and SIDCUL (Uttarakhand) in India. The researcher selected organizations with annual turnover of over INR 100 crore and at least 1000 employees. The organizations so selected belonged to power, IT, banking, insurance and automobile sectors. Out of 650 questionnaires administered, about 520 respondents returned the questionnaires yielding 80% response rate. While entering the data in the SPSS, out of 520 questionnaires around 46 questionnaires had missing data and some 14 questionnaires had multiple responses so, these questionnaires were not considered for analysis. This results in a total of 460 usable questionnaires. The sample size thus obtained is adequate for the study as the guidelines proposed by Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson (2013) indicates that a minimum sample size should be at least 5 times the number of observations to be analyzed and more appropriate is 10 times the number of observations. In the current study the total number of items in the questionnaire is 91 so, the sample size should lie between 455 and 910.

The various designations on which employees were working were “managers”, “senior executive”, “assistant manager”, assistant engineers, “project managers”, “production manager”, “system analyst”, “general manager”, “business analyst” etc. Four hundred and sixty employees working in Indian organizations located in the industrial hub cities/states of India (i.e. New Delhi, Bangalore, Hyderabad, Uttarakhand etc.) participated in the survey. From 460 participants, 387 (84.1%) were males and 73 (15.9%) were females working in 282 (61.3%) public and 178 (38.7%) private sector organizations. The majority of respondents, that is 130, (28.3%) were between 21-25 years of age, followed by 113 (24.6%) between 26-30 years, 89 (19.3% above 45 years of age, 49 (10.7%) between 31-35 years of age, 43 (9.3%) between 41-45 years of age, 36 (7.8%) between 36-40 years of age. The majority of respondents that is 190 (41.3%), were graduates followed by 180 (39.1%) post-graduates, 74 (16.1%)

diploma holders and 16 (3.5%) higher than post-graduate. The hierarchical level of the respondents were 144 (31.3%) at the junior level, 265 (57.6%) at the middle level and 51 (11.1%) at the senior level. In terms of experience, most of the respondents, 211 (45.9%), had less than 5 years of experience, 77 (16.7%) between 6 to 10 years of experience, 35 (7.6%) between 11-15 years of experience, 46 (10%) between 16-20 years of experience and 91 (19.8%) with more than 20 years of experience. The demographic profile of the respondents is also summarized in table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1: Demographics Profile of Respondents

Demographics	Categories (Respective Coding)	Frequencies	Percentages
Age	21-25 (1)	130	28.3%
	26-30 (2)	113	24.6%
	31-35 (3)	49	10.7%
	36-40 (4)	36	7.8%
	41-45 (5)	43	9.3%
	Above 45 (6)	89	19.3%
Gender	Male (1)	387	84.1%
	Female (2)	73	15.9%
Educational Profile	Diploma Holders (1)	74	16.1%
	Graduate (2)	190	41.3%
	Post Graduate (3)	180	39.1%
	Higher than Post Graduate (4)	16	3.5%
Hierarchical Level	Junior Level (1)	144	31.3%
	Middle Level (2)	265	57.6%
	Senior Level (3)	51	11.1%
Organization Type	Private (1)	178	38.7%
	Public (2)	282	61.3%
Total Work Experience (Years)	0-5 (1)	211	45.9%
	6-10 (2)	77	16.7%
	11-15 (3)	35	7.6%
	16-20 (4)	46	10%
	Above 20 (5)	91	19.8%

3.5 Data Collection-Procedure Description

The data were collected from 460 employees working in Indian public and private sector organizations. The method adopted for the data collection was mixed method consisting of survey based administration of questionnaires and inviting employees to participate in the survey by sending an online link to the survey on their official emails. The mixed method approach for collecting data provides opportunities to fetch information from multiple sources using multiple approaches and also provides deep insights in to the social world (Kertzer &

Fricke, 1997). Also the mixed method approach is also a valuable tool for research in social sciences field (Axinn & Pearce, 2006). For administering survey, the organizations and sample has been chosen following a convenient sampling technique. This convenience sampling technique serves the two purposes. First this technique is advantageous for collecting data from large number of respondents (Axinn & Pearce, 2006). Second the nature of variables under study specifically employer branding requires the organizations which at least follow the best practices principle to adopt the human resource policies and practices to enhance employee retention. The identification of such organizations could only be possible with the help of convenient sampling technique.

For the purpose of data collection the researchers forward the training proposal to the HR managers of the selected organizations. The training proposal is based on the emerging issues in human resources management and entails the discussion and training on employer branding, servant leadership and employee retention. The organizations that favour the proposal invited the researcher to conduct the training programs in the organizations. Each training program was of one day duration and data were collected from around 25-30 employees during training session from each organization. The training programs consist of the detailed discussions on the said topics before the survey is administered. The doubts raised by the respondents while responding to the scales were cleared at the time of training resulting in accuracy of data. The employees of the organizations have been assured of their anonymity. The results of the survey and its analysis have also been presented during the training programs and the reports of all such surveys have been provided to the organizations. Some of the data were also collected through online method by inviting employees to participate in the survey through emails as its helps in collecting data from a larger sample (Tanlamai et al., 2013). Collecting personal information such as names was not the part of survey to assure anonymity of the respondents.

3.6 Description of Research Instruments

The research focused upon the assessment of employer branding, servant leadership and employee retention practices and turnover intentions. This section provides the detailed information on the research instruments utilized for the assessment of the variables under study.

3.6.1 Information pertaining to employee demographics

The information on the employees demographics have been asked in the first section of the structured questionnaire. The respondents were asked to provide the information related to their age, gender, current organization type, educational profile, total work experience and hierarchical level. Apart from the employee demographics, this section also asked information on the demographics of employee's immediate supervisors. The information asked about the gender of the immediate supervisor and the age group to which the supervisors belonged. The coding for various demographic variables has also been shown in table 3.1 above.

3.6.2 Employer Branding

After the information on employee demographics, the second section of the questionnaire includes the items on the dimensions of an employer brand. Employee's perception with respect to employer branding has been assessed by adopting the scale developed by Berthon et al. (2005). The scale consists of 25 items representing five employer branding dimensions i.e. social value, interest value, economic value, development value and application value. Original scale measures the dimensions of attractiveness in an employer brand from the perspective of the potential employees with respect to the attributes they felt important for an employer brand. As the current research study aimed to assess the existing employee's perception about the dimensions of an employer brand, the instructions in the survey have been modified. The respondents were instructed to rate the extent to which attributes representing employer brand are present in the employing organizations on a five point likert scale (1- to a very small extent to 5- to a very great extent). The scale includes items such as "Recognition/Appreciation from the management", "The organization both values and makes use of your creativity", "An attractive overall compensation package". The various dimensions (social value, interest value, economic value, development value and application value) of an employer brand consist of five items each. Some researchers have accessed the employer attractiveness scale proposed by Berthon et al. (2005) to measure the employer branding from the perspective of potential applicants (Alniaçık & Alniaçık, 2012) and others have accessed it from the perspective of existing employees of an organization (Schlager, Bodderas, Maas & Luc Cachelin, 2011; Biswas and Suar, 2013). The current study conceptualized the dimensions proposed by Berthon et al. (2005) from the perspective of existing employees of an organization. The details of the items on each dimension have been provided in chapter 4 on analysis and results. The reliability coefficients Cronbach's alpha (α) for all the five dimensions of an employer

brand is as follows: Interest value ($\alpha = .82$), Social value ($\alpha = .75$), Application value ($\alpha = .78$), Development value ($\alpha = .79$), Economic value ($\alpha = .75$). The reliability coefficients for all the dimensions of an employer brand have also been shown in table 3.2.

3.6.3 Servant Leadership Survey (SLS)

The third section of the questionnaire includes the items on the dimensions of servant leadership. The 30-item servant leadership survey (SLS) with eight dimensions (empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, authenticity, courage, humility and stewardship) developed by Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) was used to measure servant leadership style. Items on SLS include statements such as: “My manager gives me the information I need to do my work well”, “My manager learns from criticism”, “My manager appears to enjoy the success of his/her colleagues more than his/her own”. This study incorporates this survey due to its development and validation in several field studies, and due to the fact that it was found to be convergent and discriminant valid across samples in various field studies in two countries (Dierendonck and Nuijten, 2011; Bobbio et al., 2013; Rodríguez-Carvajal, Rivas, Herrero, Moreno-Jiménez, & Van Dierendonck, 2014).

Respondents were instructed to rate the leadership style followed by their immediate supervisors on a five point likert scale (1- Strongly disagree to 5- Strongly agree). The items used to assess forgiveness comprised statements that were negatively framed in the original SLS, but for the purpose of this study the items on forgiveness have been reframed in a positive way to make it unidirectional following the guidelines proposed by De Vellis (2003). The details of the items on each dimension have been provided in chapter 4 on analysis and results. The reliability coefficients Cronbach’s alpha (α) for all the eight dimensions of SLS is as follows: Empowerment ($\alpha = .85$), standing back ($\alpha = .72$), accountability ($\alpha = .75$), forgiveness ($\alpha = .75$), courage ($\alpha = .79$), authenticity ($\alpha = .75$), stewardship ($\alpha = .72$) and humility ($\alpha = .82$). The reliability coefficients for all the dimensions on servant leadership survey (SLS) have also been shown in table 3.2.

3.6.4 Employee retention

The final section of the structured questionnaire consists of the items measuring the satisfaction level of employees with respect to employee retention practices. The variable employee retention in this study has been conceptualized at two levels i.e. organizational level and individual level. At an organizational level employee retention has been assessed with the employee satisfaction level with organizational retention practices. At an individual level

employee retention has been assessed by measuring employee's turnover intentions. The scale which has been adopted for the study is Retention Factor Measurement Scale (RFMS) developed and validated by Döckel (2003) and Döckel et al. (2006). Also, the scale adopted in the study has been again validated by Kashyap and Rangnekar (2014). The following section provides the detailed information on the scale validation in Indian context.

3.6.4.1 Retention Factor Measurement Scale (RFMS)

Satisfaction with employee retention practices identified in the literature review has been assessed by adopting the retention factor measurement scale (RFMS) developed and validated by Döckel (2003). The factors and its items on the scale have originally been developed and validated by various other researchers. For instance, the compensation satisfaction items (13 items) were adapted from a pay satisfaction questionnaire (Heneman & Schwab, 1985), job characteristics (4 items: 2 for skill variety and 2 for task autonomy) (Oldham and Hackman, 1976), training (6 items) (Rogg, Schmidt, Shull and Schmitt, 2001), Career opportunities (6 items) (Landau and Hammer, 1986) and work-life balance (4 items) (Paré, Tremblay and Lalonde, 2001). A total of 33 items have been identified by the researchers for the current study. All the practices mentioned above has also been studied and validated by Döckel (2003) and Döckel, et al. (2006).

In the current research, only two important dimensions of the job characteristics theory i.e., job autonomy and skill variety (Hackman and Oldham, 1976) has been considered. Literature supports the fact that an employees' perception of greater job autonomy results in lowering turnover intentions (Spector, 1986). Dysvik and Kuvaas (2013) found that greater job autonomy leads to lower turnover intentions for employees who receive higher supervisory support. Research work by (Singh, 1998) indicates that only task variety is significantly associated with employee turnover intentions. Similar findings on the negative association between job characteristics and turnover intentions were reported in the studies of (McKnight, Phillips & Hardgrave, 2009).

A total of 33 items identified by the researchers were structured and organized in a questionnaire form and expert opinion was taken following the direction of (De Vellis, 2003). The experts include both academicians and top level executives working in Indian organizations. On the recommendations of experts, some of the reverse coded items were rephrased to make the scale unidirectional. Rephrasing the items to make them unidirectional

has also been supported in literature as negative worded items or reversing the polarity of items may confuse the respondents about the difference between expressing their sense of agreement (De Vellis, 2003). After the modifications in the scale, the data were collected from some 40 executives for pilot testing of the scale. A final version of items has also been elaborated in chapter 4 on analysis and results.

The responses on the final scale were then calculated on five practices affecting employee retention i.e., compensation (13 items), job characteristics (4 items, 2 items on job autonomy and 2 items of skill variety), training (6 items), career opportunities (6 items and work-life practices (4 items). The respondents were instructed to rate their satisfaction level with the above mentioned practices on a five-point Likert scale ranging from (1-very dissatisfied to 5-very satisfied). Employees' turnover Intentions at individual level were assessed with a 3-item scale developed by Cammann, et al. (1979). All these items were measured on a Likert scale (1- Strongly disagree to 5- Strongly agree). The reliability coefficients Cronbach's alpha (α) for all the five dimensions of retention factor measurement scale are as follows: compensation (13 items, $\alpha = .92$), job characteristics (4 items, 2 items on job autonomy and 2 items of skill variety $\alpha = .71$), training (6 items, $\alpha = .84$), career opportunities (6 items, $\alpha = .79$), work-life practices (4 items, $\alpha = .86$) and turnover intentions (3 items, $\alpha = .91$).

The current research study follows the approach for aggregation of the scores of all the dimensions on retention factor measurement scale to generate the index of employee satisfaction with retention practices. The index is named as SERP (satisfaction with employee retention practices). The approach of aggregation of scores is supported by the existing literature (Guchait & Cho, 2010; Zhang et al., 2012). The reliability coefficients for all the dimensions on retention factor measurement scale and turnover intentions have also been shown in table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Reliability coefficients (α) for the variables under study

Variables	Factors	Reliability coefficients (α)
Employer Branding	Interest Value	.82
	Social Value	.75
	Application value	.78
	Development Value	.79
	Economic Value	.75
Variables	Factors	Reliability coefficients (α)

Servant Leadership Survey (SLS)	Empowerment	.85
	Standing Back	.72
	Accountability	.75
	Forgiveness	.75
	Courage	.79
	Authenticity	.75
	Stewardship	.72
	Humility	.82
Employee Retention (Retention factor measurement scale)	Compensation	.92
	Job Characteristics	.71
	Training	.81
	Career opportunities	.79
	Work-life balance	.86
Employee Turnover intentions	Turnover intentions	.91

3.7 Statistical Control variables

The researcher also collected data for control variables like age, gender, and hierarchical level, and current organization (public or private) because of their potential impact on employee turnover intentions. Griffeth, Hom, and Gaertner (2000) affirmed the modest predictive strength of these demographic variables in influencing employee turnover intentions. We controlled age since different age levels may influence employee's turnover intentions differently (Walsh & Bartikowski, 2013). Gender has been controlled because males and females may prefer some practices to others. For example, female executives may prefer work-life balance to training or job characteristics in comparison to male executives who may prefer compensation and career opportunities to work-life balance. Experience is controlled because executives with long-term experience are likely to remain at a job irrespective of human resource retention practices and executives in initial years of their careers are more likely to switch jobs to attain higher career growth and better competitive benefits. Lastly, we also controlled for organization type (public or private) because of their potential role in influencing employee turnover. Executives working in public sector organizations are likely to show a long-term association because of job security while jobs in private organizations may not be stable.

3.8 Analytical Approach to study Research Questions

To achieve the objectives of the study and to test the hypotheses developed various statistical techniques have been utilized. These statistical techniques include correlational analysis, multiple hierarchical regression, t- test, one-way ANOVA and conditional process analysis

(PROCESS). Correlational analyses have been utilized to predict the nature of relationships between the variables under study (Malhotra & Dash, 2009). Multiple Hierarchical regression techniques were deployed to test the predictive effects of the independent dimensions of employer branding and servant leadership in influencing satisfaction with employee retention practices and turnover intentions. Conditional process analysis (PROCESS) by Hayes (2013) has been used to test the sequential mediating effects of employer branding and satisfaction with employee retention practices in establishing the relationships between servant leadership and employee turnover intentions. Apart from these t-test and one-way ANOVA has been used to test the influence of employee demographics on employer branding, servant leadership and satisfaction with retention practices. The summary of statistical analyses to test the research questions and hypotheses developed has been provided in table 3.3 below.

Table 3.3 Statistical Analyses associated with each research questions

Research Questions	Hypotheses	Statistical Technique
RQ 1: Does the employees' perception of employer branding dimensions (<i>Interest value, social value, application value, development value and economic value</i>) vary with demographic profile (<i>age, gender, hierarchical level and organization type</i>) of respondents?	<i>Hypothesis 1(a):</i> Employer branding dimensions (Interest value, social value, application value, development value and economic value) as perceived by existing employees working in Indian organizations will vary depending upon their age.	One-way ANOVA
	<i>Hypothesis 1(b):</i> Employer branding as dimensions (Interest value, social value, application value, development value and economic value) as perceived by existing employees working in Indian organizations will vary depending upon their gender.	<i>t</i> -test
	<i>Hypothesis 1(c):</i> Employer branding dimensions (Interest value, social value, application value, development value and economic value) as perceived by existing employees working in Indian organizations will vary depending upon their hierarchical level (Junior, middle and senior level).	One-way ANOVA

	<p>Hypothesis 1(d): Employer branding dimensions (Interest value, social value, application value, development value and economic value) as perceived by existing employees working in Indian organizations will vary depending upon the organizational sector (Public and Private) they work for.</p>	<p><i>t</i>-test</p>
<p>RQ2: Does the employees' perception of servant leadership dimensions (Empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, courage, authenticity, stewardship and humility) vary with demographic profile (age, gender, hierarchical level and organization type) of respondents?</p>	<p>Hypothesis 2(a): Employees' perception of servant leadership dimensions (Empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, courage, authenticity, stewardship and humility) will vary depending upon their age.</p> <p>Hypothesis 2(b): Employees' perception of servant leadership dimensions (Empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, courage, authenticity, stewardship and humility) will vary depending upon their gender.</p> <p>Hypothesis 2(c): Employees' perception of servant leadership dimensions (Empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, courage, authenticity, stewardship and humility) will vary depending upon their hierarchical level (Junior, middle and senior level).</p> <p>Hypothesis 2(d): Employees' perception of servant leadership dimensions (Empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, courage, authenticity, stewardship and humility) will vary depending upon the organizational</p>	<p>One-way ANOVA</p> <p><i>t</i>-test</p> <p>One-way ANOVA</p> <p><i>t</i>-test</p>

	sector (Public and Private) they work for.	
RQ3: Does employee satisfaction with retention practices (Compensation, job characteristics, training, career opportunities and work-life balance) vary with respect to demographics (Age, gender, hierarchical level and organization type)?	<p><i>Hypothesis 3 (a):</i> Employee satisfaction with retention practices (Compensation, job characteristics, training, career opportunities and work-life balance) will vary depending upon their age.</p> <p><i>Hypothesis 3 (b):</i> Employee satisfaction with retention practices (Compensation, job characteristics, training, career opportunities and work-life balance) will vary depending upon their gender.</p> <p><i>Hypothesis 3 (c):</i> Employee satisfaction with retention practices (Compensation, job characteristics, training, career opportunities and work-life balance) will vary depending upon their hierarchical level (Junior, middle and senior level).</p> <p><i>Hypothesis 3 (d):</i> Employee satisfaction with retention practices (Compensation, job characteristics, training, career opportunities and work-life balance) will vary depending upon their organization type (Public or private)</p>	<p>One-way ANOVA</p> <p><i>t</i>-test</p> <p>One-way ANOVA</p> <p><i>t</i>-test</p>
RQ 4: Does employer branding construct predict satisfaction with employee retention practices and employee turnover intentions?	<p><i>Hypothesis 4:</i> Employer Branding is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.</p> <p><i>Hypothesis 4(a):</i> Interest value is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.</p>	Multiple hierarchical regression

	<p>Hypothesis 4(b): Social value is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.</p> <p>Hypothesis 4(c): Development value is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.</p> <p>Hypothesis 4(d): Application value is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.</p> <p>Hypothesis 4(e): Economic value is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.</p>	
<p>RQ 5: Does servant leadership construct predict satisfaction with employee retention practices and employee turnover intentions?</p>	<p>Hypothesis 5: Perceived servant leadership style is associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.</p> <p>Hypothesis 5(a): Empowerment is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.</p> <p>Hypothesis 5(b): Standing back is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively</p>	<p>Multiple hierarchical regression</p>

	<p>associated with employee turnover intentions.</p> <p>Hypothesis 5(c): Accountability is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.</p> <p>Hypothesis 5(d): Forgiveness is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.</p> <p>Hypothesis 5(e): Courage is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.</p> <p>Hypothesis 5(f): Authenticity is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.</p> <p>Hypothesis 5(g): Stewardship is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.</p> <p>Hypothesis 5(h): Humility is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.</p>	
<p>RQ: 6 Does employee satisfaction with retention practices predicts employee turnover intentions?</p>	<p>Hypothesis 6(a): Satisfaction with compensation practices is negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.</p> <p>Hypothesis 6(b): Satisfaction with job</p>	<p>Multiple hierarchical regression</p>

	<p>characteristics is negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.</p> <p>Hypothesis 6(c): Satisfaction with training practices is negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.</p> <p>Hypothesis 6(d): Satisfaction with career development opportunities practices is negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.</p> <p>Hypothesis 6(e): Satisfaction with work-life balance practices is negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.</p>	
<p>RQ 7: Does employer branding and employee satisfaction with employee retention practices sequentially mediate the relationships between servant leadership and turnover intentions?</p>	<p>Hypothesis 7: Employer branding and satisfaction with employee retention practices sequentially mediate the relationship between servant leadership and employee turnover intention.</p>	<p>Conditional process analysis (PROCESS) following regression based approach.</p>

3.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter deals with the research design of the current study and also provide detail discussion on data collection and statistical analysis. The chapter also highlighted the description of the sample, procedure for collecting data, research instruments used to assess the variables under study and the statistical analysis approach to test the hypotheses developed to accomplish the objectives of the study. The next chapter on analysis and results provides detailed discussion of the statistical analysis deployed to test the hypotheses and results obtained therein.

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

The research study aimed at investigating the impact of employer branding and servant leadership on employee satisfaction with retention practices and reducing employee turnover intentions. The assessments of the variables under study i.e. employer branding, servant leadership, satisfaction with employee retention practices and turnover intentions has been done by utilizing standardized scales. The various statistical techniques used to test the hypotheses developed includes correlational analysis, multiple hierarchical regressions, conditional process analysis (PROCESS) using regression based approach, t-test and one-way ANOVA. This chapter detailed the process of statistical analyses performed to achieve the objectives of the study. The chapter is divided in to four sub-sections. The first section details the discussion on the preliminary screening of data, normality test and the assessment of common method bias (CMB). The second section entails the process of validation of research instruments in Indian context. The third section highlights the descriptive statistics of the variables under study. The fourth and final section detailed the process followed to test the hypotheses developed on research questions using t-test, one-way ANOVA, multiple regression techniques and conditional process analysis (PROCESS).

4.2 Data Screening, Normality tests and assessment of Common Method Bias (CMB)

While preparing the data for subsequent analysis, the data were first screened for missing values, multiple responses and subjected to normality tests. Out of 520 questionnaires received around 46 questionnaires had missing data and some 14 questionnaires had multiple responses so, these questionnaires had been discarded and were not considered for analysis. This results in a total of 460 usable questionnaires. To test the normality of data, the data were explored in SPSS and normality test with plots have been obtained for all the variables under study. The results thus obtained revealed that the coefficients of normality (Skewness and Kurtosis) when divided by their standard error (SE) were falling in the range of $-.196$ to $+.196$, thereby indicating the normality of data (Malhotra & Dash, 2009). Further Shapiro-Wilk (Shapiro & Wilk, 1965) which is the most powerful test of normality (Razali & Wah, 2011) revealed that the significance p -values for all the variables under study were above $(.05)$ significance level indicating the data set to be normal. The statistics, standard errors (SE) related to skewness

and kurtosis and Shapiro-Wilk's level of significance for normality has been displayed in table 4.1 below. All the measures were self-reported measures as the data have been collected from a single source so; there is a potential threat of common methods bias in the study. Following the methods prescribed by Podsakoff et al. (2003), the current research study has assessed the common method variance by using Harman's single factor test. While performing the test, all the items were allowed to load on a single factor in principal component analysis and the number of factors to be extracted was fixed as one. Examination of the unrotated factor solution depicts that a single factor accounts for only 32% variance. The variance explained by single factor solution i.e. 32% is much lesser than 50% i.e. the minimum threshold for the presence of common method variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012); thereby indicating that common method variance was not an issue for the study.

Table 4.1 Normality Statistics and Shapiro-Wilk's Level of Significance

Variables	Skewness		Kurtosis		Shapiro-Wilk
	Statistic	SE	Statistic	SE	<i>p</i> - Value (Sig.)
<i>N</i> = 460					
Employer Branding (EB)	-.130	.118	.051	.236	.099
Servant Leadership Survey (SLS)	-.052	.118	-.147	.236	.060
Satisfaction with retention practices (SERP)	.128	.118	-.410	.236	.072
Turnover Intentions (TI)	.187	.118	-.382	.236	.081

4.3 Convergent and Discriminant validity of Research Instruments

4.3.1 Validation of Employer Branding Scale (Berthon et al., 2005)

The employee's perception with respect to their employer brand has been assessed by adopting a 25-items scale developed and validated by Berthon et al. (2005). The original scale developed has been named as employer attractiveness scale designed to measure the dimensions of an employer brand from the perspective of potential applicants for organizations. Further, the scale has been utilized to measure the perception of employer branding dimensions from the perspective of existing employees of an organization (Biswas & Suar, 2013; Schlager, Bodderas, Maas & Luc Cachelin, 2011). The scale measures the perception of employees with respect to the five dimensions of an employer brand. These dimensions are interest value, social value, application value, development and economic value attached to an employer brand. Each dimension in the scale consists of 5 items each. The details of dimensions and its corresponding items have been displayed in table 4.2 below. For the purpose of testing convergent and discriminant validity of the scale in Indian context, only

confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) has been deployed as the scale had already been validated by original authors (Berthon et al., 2005). Convergent validity means the extent to which indicators of a specific construct converge or share a high proportion of variance in common (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2013). To test the convergent validity of employer branding scale the researcher performed a confirmatory factor analysis to test the measurement model with 5 dimensions (i.e. interest value, social value, economic value, development value, application value). The five factor model of employer branding was found to be fit with a chi-square of 728.352, $df= 258$, $CMIF/DF= 2.823$ $p <.001$, $TLI= .89$, $CFI= .90$, $RMSEA= 0.63$. Mean, SD, Factor loadings, average variance extracted (AVE), maximum shared variance (MSV), average shared variance (ASV), composite reliability (CR) and reliability coefficient (α) is displayed in table 4.2 below. As shown in table 4.2, all the items loaded significantly on its respective dimensions, internal consistency reliability coefficient Cronbach's alpha (α) ranging from 0.75 to 0.82 and average variance extracted for all the dimensions range from .504 for development value to .621 for economic value indicating that constructs are reliable. Also, as per the guidelines prescribed by Hair, Black, Bain and Anderson (2013) convergent validity of a construct is established if it prevails that composite reliability (CR) of the construct is greater than its average variance extracted (AVE) and AVE is greater than 0.05. Composite reliability is greater than average variance extracted for all the constructs as shown in table 4.2 indicating the constructs to be convergent valid.

Further, discriminant validity means extent to which a construct is truly distinct from other constructs (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2013). Discriminant validity can be established by comparing the maximum shared variance (MSV) and average shared variance (ASV) with average variance extracted (AVE). As prescribed, discriminant validity exists when the values of MSV and ASV are smaller than the values of AVE (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2013). As can be seen from the table 4.2 below, all the values satisfies these above mentioned conditions. Thus, discriminant validity of the five factor model is again confirmed in the study.

Table 4.2: Results of Confirmatory factor Analysis and Overall Reliability and Validity indices for Employer Branding Scale

Dimensions	Item No.	Item Description	Mean	SD	Factor Loadings	Composite Reliability/ α	AVE	MSV	ASV
Interest Value (IV)	EB10	Working in an exciting environment	3.55	1.00	.70	0.82/0.82	0.539	0.240	0.146
	EB11	Innovative employer – novel work practices/forward-thinking	3.45	1.01	.78				
	EB12	The organization both values and makes use of your creativity	3.52	1.01	.83				
	EB13	The organization produces high-quality products and services	4.02	.853	.69				
	EB14	The organization produces innovative products and services	3.66	1.05	.66				
Social Value (SV)	EB2	A fun working environment	3.42	1.03	.82	0.73/0.75	0.606	0.240	0.140
	EB7	Having a good relationship with your superiors	4.10	.857	.78				
	EB8	Having a good relationship with your colleagues	4.29	.746	.76				
	EB9	Supportive and encouraging colleagues	4.05	.826	.79				
	EB23	Happy work environment	3.75	.943	.74				
Economic Value (EV)	EB15	Good promotion opportunities within the organization	3.34	1.14	.74	0.71/0.75	0.621	0.291	0.155
	EB21	Job security within the organization	4.28	.915	.70				
	EB22	Hands-on inter-departmental experience	3.62	.978	.71				
	EB24	An above average basic salary	3.66	1.00	.88				
	EB25	An attractive overall compensation package	3.58	1.07	.89				
Development Value (DV)	EB1	Recognition/appreciation from management	3.56	1.03	.72	0.80/0.79	0.504	0.291	0.151
	EB3	A Platform for future employment	3.61	.953	.53				
	EB4	Feeling good about yourself as a result of working for organization you work with	4.00	.860	.81				
	EB5	Feeling more self-confident as a result of working for a organization you work with	4.01	.837	.72				
	EB6	Gaining career-enhancing experience	3.84	.980	.74				
Application value (AV)	EB16	Humanitarian organization – gives back to society	3.76	.978	.80	0.78/0.78	0.581	0.184	0.107
	EB17	Opportunity to teach others what you have learned	3.77	.926	.76				
	EB18	Opportunity to apply what was learned at a tertiary institution	3.58	1.03	.71				
	EB19	Acceptance and belonging	3.78	.881	.78				
	EB20	The organization is customer-orientated	4.01	1.04	.76				

Notes: N= 460, AVE: Average variance extracted, MSV: Maximum shared variance, ASV: Average shared variance. Items numbers represent the order in which items were placed in the questionnaire.

4.3.2 Validation of Servant Leadership Survey (SLS) (Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011)

Employees' perception of servant leadership style has been measured by Servant Leadership Survey (SLS) developed and validated by Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011). It is the most recent scale to measure servant leadership style. The scale has specifically been selected because of its validity across several cultures (Bobbio et al., 2013; Rodríguez-Carvajal, Rivas, Herrero, Moreno-Jiménez, & Van Dierendonck, 2014). The SLS consists of eight dimensions that measure the characteristics of servant leaders. These eight dimensions include empowerment (7 items), standing back (3 items), accountability (3 items), forgiveness (3 items), authenticity (4 items), courage (2 items), stewardship (3 items) and humility (5 items). The details of dimensions and its corresponding items have been displayed in table 4.3 below. Apart from the items on forgiveness all the other items on the scale are positively framed. The items on the forgiveness dimensions were reverse coded items. For the purpose of current study the items on forgiveness dimension has been reframed in to positive items to make the scale unidirectional following the guidelines of De Vellis (2003). Such an approach helps to reduce confusion on the part of respondent.

The respondents have been instructed to rate the servant leadership dimensions followed by their immediate supervisors on a five-point likert scale (1- strongly disagree to 5- strongly agree). To test the convergent validity of SLS the researcher performed a confirmatory factor analysis to test the measurement model with 8 dimensions (i.e. empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, authenticity, courage, stewardship and humility). The eight factor model of servant leadership was found to be fit with a chi-square of 957.393, $df= 367$, $CMIF/DF= 2.609$ $p <.001$, $TLI= .88$, $CFI= .904$, $RMSEA= 0.59$. Mean, SD, Factor loadings, average variance extracted (AVE), maximum shared variance (MSV), average shared variance (ASV), composite reliability (CR) and reliability coefficient (α) is displayed in table 4.3 below. As shown in table 4.3, all the items loaded significantly on its respective dimensions, internal consistency reliability coefficient Cronbach's alpha (α) ranging from 0.72 to 0.85 and average variance extracted for all the dimensions range from .523 for accountability to .588 for standing back indicating that constructs are reliable. Also, as per the guidelines prescribed by Hair, Black, Bain and Anderson (2013) convergent validity of a construct is established if it prevails that composite reliability (CR) of the construct is greater than its average variance extracted (AVE) and AVE is greater than 0.05. Composite reliability

is greater than average variance extracted for all the constructs as shown in table 4.3 indicating the constructs to be convergent valid.

Further, discriminant validity means extent to which a construct is truly distinct from other constructs (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2013). Discriminant validity can be established by comparing the maximum shared variance (MSV) and average shared variance (ASV) with average variance extracted (AVE). As prescribed, discriminant validity exists when the values of MSV and ASV are smaller than the values of AVE (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2013). As can be seen from the table 4.3 below, all the values satisfies these above mentioned conditions. Thus, discriminant validity of the eight factor model is again confirmed in the study.

Table 4.3: Results of Confirmatory factor Analysis and Overall Reliability and Validity indices for Servant Leadership Survey (SLS)

Dimensions	Item No.	Item Description	Mean	SD	Factor Loadings	Composite Reliability/ α	AVE	MSV	ASV
Empowerment (EMP)	S1	My manager gives me the information I need to do my work well.	3.91	.938	.76	.82/.85	0.562	0.54	0.31
	S2	My manager encourages me to use my talents.	3.94	.936	.74				
	S3	My manager helps me to further develop myself.	3.93	.932	.79				
	S4	My manager encourages his/her staff to come up with new ideas.	3.82	.945	.73				
	S12	My manager gives me the authority to take decisions which make work easier for me.	3.84	.988	.75				
	S20	My manager enables me to solve problems myself instead of just telling me what to do.	3.70	1.02	.76				
	S27	My manager offers me abundant opportunities to learn new skills.	3.80	.980	.72				
Standing Back (STB)	S5	My manager keeps himself/herself in the background and gives credits to others.	3.40	1.07	.74	.72/.72	0.588	0.44	0.35
	S13	My manager is not chasing recognition or rewards for the things he/she does for others.	3.44	.967	.77				
	S21	My manager appears to enjoy his/her colleagues' success more than his/her own.	3.40	.980	.79				

Accountability (ACC)	S6	My manager holds me responsible for the work I carry out.	3.85	.877	.70	.74/.75	0.523	0.21	0.14
	S14	I am held accountable for my performance by my manager.	3.90	.782	.72				
	S22	My manager holds me and my colleagues responsible for the way we handle a job.	3.66	.892	.75				
Forgiveness (FRG)	S7	My manager does not criticize people for the mistakes they have made in their work.	3.43	1.08	.79	.75/.75	0.573	0.20	0.14
	S15	My manager maintains a soft attitude towards people who have offended him/her at work.	3.41	1.08	.73				
	S23	My manager easily forgets things that went wrong in the past.	3.27	1.07	.75				
Courage (CRG)	S8	My manager takes risks even when he/she is not certain of the support from his/her own manager.	3.36	1.07	.78	.70/.79	0.542	0.35	0.24
	S16	My manager takes risks and does what needs to be done in his/her view.	3.58	.992	.69				
Authenticity (AUT)	S9	My manager is open about his/her limitations and weaknesses.	3.37	1.05	.72	.75/.75	0.540	0.49	0.32
	S17	My manager is often touched by the things he/she sees happening around him/her.	3.48	.906	.71				
	S24	My manager is prepared to express his/her feelings even if this might have undesirable consequences.	3.41	.885	.76				
	S28	My manager shows his/her true feelings to his/her staff.	3.50	.977	.75				
Humility (HUM)	S10	My manager learns from criticism.	3.32	.976	.76	.83/.82	0.551	0.49	0.34
	S18	My manager tries to learn from the criticism he/she gets from his/her superior.	3.57	.891	.75				
	S25	My manager admits his/her mistakes to his/her superior.	3.36	.984	.70				
	S29	My manager learns from the different views and opinions of others.	3.69	.898	.73				
	S30	If people express criticism, my manager tries to learn from it.	3.50	.982	.77				
Stewardship (STW)	S11	My manager emphasizes the importance of focusing on the good of the whole.	3.83	.871	.74	.75/.72	0.558	0.54	0.34
	S19	My manager has a long-term vision.	3.81	1.06	.72				
	S26	My manager emphasizes the societal responsibility of our work.	3.56	.893	.78				

Notes: N= 460, AVE: Average variance extracted, MSV: Maximum shared variance, ASV: Average shared variance. Items numbers represent the order in which items were placed in the questionnaire.

4.3.3 Validation of Retention Factor Measurement Scale (RFMS) (Döckel, 2003)

Satisfaction with employee retention practices identified in the literature review has been assessed by adopting the retention factor measurement scale (RFMS) developed and validated by Döckel (2003). The factors and its items on the scale have originally been developed and validated by various other researchers. For instance, the compensation satisfaction items (13 items) were adapted from a pay satisfaction questionnaire (Heneman & Schwab, 1985), job characteristics (4 items: 2 for skill variety and 2 for task autonomy) (Oldham & Hackman, 1976), training (6 items) (Rogg, Schmidt, Shull, & Schmitt, 2001), Career opportunities (6 items) (Landau & Hammer, 1986) and work-life balance (4 items) (Paré, Tremblay, & Lalonde, 2001). A total of 33 items have been identified by the researchers for the current study. All the practices mentioned above has also been studied and validated by Döckel (2003) and Döckel et al. (2006).

In the current research, only two important dimensions of the job characteristics theory i.e., job autonomy and skill variety (Hackman and Oldham, 1976) has been considered. Literature supports the fact that an employees' perception of greater job autonomy results in lowering turnover intentions (Spector, 1986). Dysvik and Kuvaas (2013) found that greater job autonomy leads to lower turnover intentions for employees who receive higher supervisory support. Research work by Singh (1998) indicates that only task variety is significantly associated with employee turnover intentions. Similar findings on the negative association between job characteristics and turnover intentions were reported in the studies of (McKnight, Phillips & Hardgrave, 2009). A total of 33 items identified by the researchers were structured and organized in a questionnaire form and expert opinion was taken following the direction of (De Vellis, 2003). The experts include both academicians and top level executives working in Indian organizations. On the recommendations of experts, some of the reverse coded items were rephrased to make the scale unidirectional. Rephrasing the items to make them unidirectional has also been supported in literature as negative worded items or reversing the polarity of items may confuse the respondents about the difference between expressing their sense of agreement (De Vellis, 2003). After the modifications in the scale, the data were collected from some 40 executives for pilot testing of the scale. The responses on the final scale were then calculated on five practices affecting employee retention i.e. compensation (13 items), job characteristics (4 items, 2 items on job autonomy and 2 items of skill variety),

training (6 items), career opportunities (6 items and work-life practices (4 items). The details of dimensions and its corresponding items have been displayed in table 4.4 below. The respondents were instructed to rate their satisfaction level with the above mentioned practices on a five-point Likert scale ranging from (1-very dissatisfied to 5-very satisfied). Employees' turnover Intentions at individual level were assessed with a 3-item scale developed by Cammann, et al. (1979). All these items were measured on a Likert scale (1- Strongly disagree to 5- Strongly agree). The reliability coefficients Cronbach's alpha (α) for all the five dimensions of retention factor measurement scale are as follows: compensation (13 items, $\alpha = .92$), job characteristics (4 items, 2 items on job autonomy and 2 items of skill variety $\alpha = .71$), training (6 items, $\alpha = .84$), career opportunities (6 items, $\alpha = .79$), work-life practices (4 items, $\alpha = .86$) and turnover intentions (3 items, $\alpha = .91$).

To test the convergent validity of RFMS the researcher performed a confirmatory factor analysis to test the measurement model with 5 practices influencing employee retention (i.e. compensation, job characteristics, training, career development opportunities and work-life balance). The employee turnover intentions have not been included in the measure model as these were measured at an individual level. Also, while computing the aggregation score for satisfaction with employee retention practices Index (SERP), turnover intentions were not included and were considered independently. The five factor model of employee retention was found to be fit with a chi-square of 1140.455, $df = 456$, $CMIF/DF = 2.501$ $p < .001$, $TLI = .89$, $CFI = .905$, $RMSEA = 0.57$. Mean, SD, Factor loadings, average variance extracted (AVE), maximum shared variance (MSV), average shared variance (ASV), composite reliability (CR) and reliability coefficient (α) is displayed in table 4.4 below. As shown in table 4.4, all the items loaded significantly on its respective dimensions, internal consistency reliability coefficient Cronbach's alpha (α) ranging from 0.71 to 0.92 and average variance extracted for all the dimensions range from .530 for job characteristics to .619 for work-life balance indicating that constructs are reliable. Also, as per the guidelines prescribed by Hair, Black, Bain and Anderson (2013) convergent validity of a construct is established if it prevails that composite reliability (CR) of the construct is greater than its average variance extracted (AVE) and AVE is greater than 0.05. Composite reliability is greater than average variance extracted for all the constructs as shown in table 4.4 indicating the constructs to be convergent valid.

Further, discriminant validity means extent to which a construct is truly distinct from other constructs (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2013). Discriminant validity can be established by comparing the maximum shared variance (MSV) and average shared variance (ASV) with average variance extracted (AVE). As prescribed, discriminant validity exists when the values of MSV and ASV are smaller than the values of AVE (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2013). As can be seen from the table 4.4 below, all the values satisfies these above mentioned conditions. Thus, discriminant validity of the five factor model is again confirmed in the study.

Table 4.4: Results of Confirmatory factor Analysis and Overall Reliability and Validity indices for Retention Factor Measurement Scale (RFMS)

Dimensions	Item No.	Item Description	Mean	SD	Factor Loadings	Composite Reliability/ α	AVE	MSV	ASV
Compensation (COMP)	C1	My benefit package.	3.60	.983	.72	.92/.92	.544	0.31	0.19
	C2	My most recent raise.	3.50	.869	.78				
	C3	The information about pay issues provided by the company.	3.61	.982	.70				
	C4	The company's pay structure.	3.65	.991	.74				
	C5	Influence my supervisor has on my pay.	3.38	1.02	.75				
	C6	The value of my benefits.	3.58	.827	.71				
	C7	Consistency of the company's pay policies.	3.48	.984	.75				
	C8	Size of my current financial incentives.	3.37	1.00	.72				
	C9	The number of benefits I receive.	3.45	.959	.76				
	C10	How my raises are determined.	3.39	.909	.67				
	C11	How the company administers pay.	3.57	.934	.68				
	C12	My current total salary package (base pay, benefits and incentives).	3.62	.956	.77				
	C13	The competitiveness of my total salary package (base pay, benefits and incentives).	3.58	.921	.77				
Job Characteristics (JC)	JC1	The job requires me to use a number of complex or high level skills.	3.75	.916	.70	.71/.71	.530	0.09	0.12
	JC2	The job provides me many opportunities to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work.	3.43	1.07	.74				
	JC3	The job is neither simple nor repetitive.	3.12	1.19	.71				

	JC4	The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.	3.72	.898	.75				
Training (TRG)	T1	The company is providing me with job specific training.	3.51	.993	.79	.81/.81	.560	0.36	0.18
	T2	Sufficient time is allocated for product and solution training.	3.40	.999	.75				
	T3	I can apply the training I receive, in this organization.	3.57	.917	.73				
	T4	There are enough development opportunities for me in this company.	3.70	.951	.74				
	T5	Sufficient money is allocated for product and solution training.	3.51	.911	.75				
	T6	I have the opportunity to be involved in activities that promote my professional development.	3.68	.941	.73				
Career Opportunities (CO)	CD1	My chances for being promoted are good.	3.61	.910	.76	.79/.79	.547	.36	.18
	CD2	There are enough career opportunities for me in this organization.	3.55	.875	.73				
	CD3	Job vacancies at this organization are usually filled by people from outside this organization.	3.15	1.16	.77				
	CD4	It would be easy to find a job in another department.	3.14	1.02	.72				
	CD5	An employee who applies for another job at this organization has a better chance of getting that job than someone from outside this organization who applies for the job.	3.31	.997	.74				
	CD6	An employee's career development is important to this organization.	3.52	.941	.72				
Work-life balance (WLB)	WL1	I do not feel there is too much work to do.	2.81	1.11	.57	0.86/.86	.619	0.13	0.08
	WL2	My work schedule is not in conflict with my personal life.	3.19	1.20	.85				
	WL3	My job does not affect my role as a spouse and/or a parent.	3.31	1.19	.88				
	WL4	My job has positive effects on my personal life.	3.51	1.16	.81				

Notes: N= 460, AVE: Average variance extracted, MSV: Maximum shared variance, ASV: Average shared variance. Items numbers represent the order in which items were placed in the questionnaire.

4.4 Results of Descriptive Statistics

This section discusses the descriptive statistics and correlations between the variables under study. The various study variables that are included in the study are 1. Employer branding dimensions (interest value, social value, application value, development value and economic value). 2. Servant leadership dimensions (empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, authenticity, courage, stewardship and humility). 3. Employee retention practices (compensation, job characteristics, training, career development opportunities and work-life balance) and 4. Turnover intentions. The means, standard deviations (SD), reliability coefficients (α) and intercorrelations between the variables under study are displayed in table 4.5 below.

4.4.1 Descriptive Statistics and Independent Variables

The research study considered two independent variables. The first independent variable is employer branding which includes five dimensions. The results displayed in table 4.5 revealed that mean for the social value ($M = 3.90$, $SD = .632$) among all the dimensions of employer branding is highest followed by development value ($M = 3.80$, $SD = .694$), application value ($M = 3.78$, $SD = .712$), economic value ($M = 3.70$, $SD = .726$) and interest value ($M = 3.64$, $SD = .763$). Further the results of correlation matrix revealed that the dimensions of employer branding are strongly associated with each other with highest correlation observed between interest value and application value ($r = .659$, $p < .05$) and the lowest between development value and economic value ($r = .522$, $p < .05$). Also, the reliability coefficient (α) for all the dimensions of employer branding falls between the acceptable limits (> 0.7) with highest reliability coefficient has been obtained for interest value ($\alpha = .82$), followed by development value ($\alpha = .79$), application value ($\alpha = .78$), social value ($\alpha = .75$) and economic ($\alpha = .75$) (Nunnally, 1978).

Further the second independent variable is servant leadership which includes eight dimensions. The results displayed in table 4.5 below revealed that the mean for empowerment ($M = 3.85$, $SD = .708$) is highest among all the dimensions followed by accountability ($M = 3.81$, $SD = .655$), stewardship ($M = 3.73$, $SD = .760$), humility ($M = 3.49$, $SD = .725$), courage ($M = 3.47$, $SD = .906$), authenticity ($M = 3.44$, $SD = .670$), standing back ($M = 3.41$, $SD = .822$), and forgiveness ($M = 3.37$, $SD = .835$). Further the results of correlation matrix revealed that the dimensions of servant leadership are significantly associated with each other with highest correlation among empowerment and stewardship ($r = .741$, $p < .05$) and the lowest

between forgiveness and empowerment ($r = .179, p < .05$). Also, the reliability coefficient (α) for all the dimensions of employer branding falls between the acceptable limits (> 0.7) with highest reliability coefficient has been obtained for empowerment ($\alpha = .82$) followed by humility ($\alpha = .82$), courage ($\alpha = .79$), authenticity ($\alpha = .75$), forgiveness ($\alpha = .75$), standing back ($\alpha = .72$) and stewardship ($\alpha = .72$).

4.4.2 Descriptive statistics and dependent variables

The dependent variable employee retention has been conceptualized at two levels in this study i.e. at organizational level and at individual level. At organizational level employee's satisfaction with retention practices has been measured by using retention factor measurement scale (RFMS) and at individual level employees' turnover intentions has been assessed. The retention factor measurement scale includes five retention practices. The results displayed in table 4.5 revealed that mean for the training ($M = 3.56, SD = .718$) is highest among all the retention practices followed by compensation ($M = 3.52, SD = .684$), job characteristics ($M = 3.50, SD = .537$), career development opportunities ($M = 3.38, SD = .604$) and work-life balance ($M = 3.20, SD = .985$). Further the results of correlation matrix revealed that the retention practices studied are significantly associated with each other with highest correlation among training and career development opportunities ($r = .602, p < .05$) and the lowest between job characteristics ($r = .173, p < .05$). Also, the reliability coefficient (α) for all the employee retention practices falls between the acceptable limits (> 0.7) with highest reliability coefficient has been obtained for compensation ($\alpha = .92$), followed by work-life balance ($\alpha = .86$), training ($\alpha = .81$), career development opportunities ($\alpha = .79$) and job characteristics ($\alpha = .71$).

Further at individual level turnover intentions have been measured. The mean for turnover intentions is 2.51 and standard deviation is 1.13. The results displayed in correlation matrix revealed that the turnover intentions have been negatively associated with five dimensions of employer branding with highest negative correlation with development value ($r = -.318, p < .05$) and the lowest negative correlation with interest value ($r = -.221, p < .05$). It has also been found that out of eight dimensions of servant leadership only three dimensions were found to be significantly associated with turnover intentions i.e. empowerment ($r = -.318, p < .05$), accountability ($r = -.093, p < .01$) and stewardship ($r = -.184, p < .05$). Further turnover intentions have been significantly associated with only two retention practices i.e. compensation ($r = -.210, p < .05$) and training ($r = -.94, p < .01$).

Table 4.5: Mean, SD and intercorrelations between the independent dimensions of variables under study

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
1.IV	3.64	.763	(.82)																		
2.SV	3.92	.632	.628**	(.75)																	
3.DV	3.80	.694	.656**	.639**	(.79)																
4.AV	3.78	.712	.659**	.617**	.641**	(.78)															
5.EV	3.70	.726	.588**	.560**	.552**	.616**	(.75)														
6.EMP	3.85	.708	.511**	.538**	.522**	.519**	.483**	(.85)													
7. STB	3.41	.822	.511**	.429**	.371**	.394**	.408**	.668**	(.72)												
8.ACC	3.81	.655	.447**	.367**	.365**	.383**	.331**	.459**	.437**	(.75)											
9. FRG	3.37	.835	.377**	.266**	.179**	.264**	.196**	.293**	.411**	.316**	(.75)										
10. CRG	3.47	.906	.269**	.307**	.286**	.326**	.271**	.454**	.592**	.277**	.425**	(.79)									
11. AUT	3.44	.670	.390**	.402**	.321**	.346**	.421**	.564**	.656**	.335**	.449**	.555**	(.75)								
12. HUM	3.49	.725	.439**	.424**	.399**	.424**	.463**	.627**	.676**	.391**	.400**	.521**	.702**	(.82)							
13. STW	3.73	.760	.413**	.422**	.410**	.442**	.366**	.741**	.657**	.389**	.351**	.544**	.617**	.689**	(.72)						
14.COMP	3.52	.684	.462**	.394**	.374**	.472**	.717**	.423**	.440**	.285**	.279**	.311**	.418**	.404**	.405**	(.92)					
15. JC	3.50	.587	.334**	.264**	.299**	.337**	.312**	.335**	.338**	.271**	.202**	.266**	.236**	.290**	.272**	.352**	(.71)				
16. TRG	3.56	.718	.462**	.352**	.426**	.516**	.499**	.431**	.443**	.343**	.296**	.326**	.378**	.423**	.425**	.559**	.322**	(.81)			
17. CD	3.38	.604	.410**	.355**	.355**	.450**	.487**	.330**	.394**	.297**	.334**	.275**	.381**	.392**	.293**	.485**	.314**	.602**	(.79)		
18. WLB	3.20	.985	.138**	.157**	.150**	.208**	.240**	.207**	.375**	.196**	.244**	.224**	.388**	.349**	.300**	.322**	.173**	.374**	.239**	(.86)	
19.TI	2.51	1.13	-.221**	-.290**	-.302**	-.265**	-.274**	-.318**	-.035	-.093*	.082	-.021	-.033	-.066	-.184**	-.210**	-.025	-.094*	.073	-.031	(.91)

Notes: N=460, the reliability coefficients (α) are displayed in parentheses and appears in bold on the diagonal of correlation matrix.

Table 4.6: Mean, SD and intercorrelations between the variables under study

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>
1. Employer Branding (EB)	3.77	.587			
2. Servant leadership (SL)	3.57	.573	.602**		
3. Satisfaction with Employee Retention practices (SERP)	3.43	.504	.604**	.616**	
4. Turnover Intentions (TI)	2.51	1.13	-.323**	-.104**	-.084

Note: N=460, $p < .05$

4.5 Investigation related to Research Questions

The section deals with the testing of hypotheses developed to achieve the objectives of the study. The study developed seven research questions based on the objectives of the study. The following section of the chapter described the detailed description of various statistical techniques utilized and the results obtained therein. The interpretations have been elaborated to address various research questions.

4.5.1 Testing Hypotheses developed to address RQ1

RQ1: Does the employees' perception of employer branding dimensions (*Interest value, social value, application value, development value and economic value*) vary with demographic profile (*age, gender, hierarchical level and organization type*) of respondents?

Hypothesis 1(a): Employer branding dimensions (Interest value, social value, application value, development value and economic value) as perceived by existing employees working in Indian organizations will vary depending upon their age.

Hypothesis 1(b): Employer branding dimensions (Interest value, social value, application value, development value and economic value) as perceived by existing employees working in Indian organizations will vary depending upon their gender.

Hypothesis 1(c): Employer branding dimensions (Interest value, social value, application value, development value and economic value) as perceived by existing employees working in Indian organizations will vary depending upon their hierarchical level (Junior, middle and senior level).

Hypothesis 1(d): Employer branding dimensions (Interest value, social value, application value, development value and economic value) as perceived by existing employees working in Indian organizations will vary depending upon the organizational sector (Public and Private) they work for.

To test hypothesis 1 (a) which asserts that employee's perception of employer branding dimensions (interest value, social value, application value, development value and economic value)

will vary according to their age, one-way ANOVA test had been used. The results displayed in table 4.7 below indicates that there exists significant differences among employees of different age groups with respect to their perception of three employer branding dimensions i.e. interest value ($F = 2.368, p < .05$), social, value ($F = 2.387, p < .05$) and development value ($F = 2.449, p < .05$). Further no differences had been observed for other two dimensions of employer brand i.e. application value ($F = 1.377, p > .05$) and economic value ($F = 2.084, p > .05$). Further Tukey's HSD test in post hoc analyses revealed that interest value associated with an employer brand was found to be significantly varying between employees in the age groups of 31-35 and 41-45, 31-35 and above 45, 36-40 and 41-45, and 36-40 and above 45. Further no significant differences have been observed in employees in other age groups. Social value associated with an employer brand was also found to be significantly varying between employees in the age groups of 21-25 and 36-40, 36-40 and above 45. Further the development value associated with an employer brand was found to be significantly varying between the employees in the age groups of 21-25 and 36-40, 26-30 and 36-40, 36-40 and 41-45 and 36-40 and above 45. The results thus obtained and interpretations discussed did not provide full support of hypothesis 1 (a). Thus hypothesis 1 (a) is partially supported.

Table 4.7: Results of one-way ANOVA for Employer branding dimensions depending upon respondent's age

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Variable (Age)</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>		<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Interest Value (IV)	21-25	130	3.60	.771					
	26-30	113	3.63	.730	Between Groups	6.800	5	2.368	.039
	31-35	49	3.49	.708	Within Groups	260.753	454		
	36-40	36	3.40	.777	Total	267.553	459		
	41-45	43	3.81	.970					
	Above 45	89	3.80	.668					
	Total	460	3.64	.763					
Social Value (SV)	21-25	130	3.98	.637	Between Groups	4.701	5	2.387	.037
	26-30	113	3.99	.508	Within Groups	178.855	454		
	31-35	49	3.81	.661	Total	183.556	459		
	36-40	36	3.67	.797					
	41-45	43	3.80	.728					
	Above 45	89	3.98	.602					
	Total	460	3.92	.632					

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Variable (Age)</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>		<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Development Value (DV)	21-25	130	3.78	.719	Between Groups	5.811	5	2.449	.033
	26-30	113	3.79	.611	Within Groups	215.441	454		
	31-35	49	3.73	.714	Total	221.252	459		
	36-40	36	3.52	.884					
	41-45	43	3.90	.808					
	Above 45	89	3.96	.559					
	Total	460	3.80	.694					
Application Value (AV)	21-25	130	3.77	.703	Between Groups	3.479	5	1.377	.232
	26-30	113	3.82	.705	Within Groups	229.437	454		
	31-35	49	3.79	.703	Total	232.916	459		
	36-40	36	3.54	.911					
	41-45	43	3.95	.744					
	Above 45	89	3.77	.618					
	Total	460	3.78	.712					
Economic Value (EV)	21-25	130	3.69	.708					
	26-30	113	3.69	.745	Between Groups	5.437	5	2.084	.066
	31-35	49	3.52	.750	Within Groups	236.843	454		
	36-40	36	3.49	.917	Total	242.280	459		
	41-45	43	3.87	.709					
	Above 45	89	3.80	.604					
	Total	460	3.70	.726					

Notes: N = 460, $p < .05$.

To test the hypothesis 1 (b) which asserts that employee's perception of employer branding dimensions (interest value, social value, application value, development value and economic value) will vary according to their gender, t - test had been utilized. The results displayed in table 4.8 below revealed there was no significant difference among males and females regarding their perception of employer branding dimensions. The results thus did not support hypothesis 1 (b) and could not be accepted. This means that employees' perception with respect to employer branding dimensions will not vary depending upon their gender. The results of t -test have been displayed in table 4.8 below.

Table 4.8 Results of T-test for equality of Means of Employer Branding Dimensions depending upon respondent' Gender

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Interest Value (IV)	Males	387	3.6620	.77318	1.171	458	.242
	Females	73	3.5479	.70713			

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Social Value (SV)	Males	387	3.9375	.61813	.855	458	.393
	Females	73	3.8685	.70492			
Development Value (DV)	Males	387	3.8341	.68928	1.875	458	.061
	Females	73	3.6685	.70885			
Application Value (AV)	Males	387	3.8005	.70520	.970	458	.332
	Females	73	3.7123	.74980			
Economic Value (EV)	Males	387	3.7163	.70587	1.107	458	.269
	Females	73	3.6137	.82753			

Notes: N = 460, $p < .05$.

Further one-way ANOVA test has been utilized to test hypothesis 1 (c) which asserts that employee's perception of employer branding dimensions (interest value, social value, application value, development value and economic value) will vary according to their hierarchical level (junior middle and senior level). The results of one-way ANOVA for equality of means for employer branding dimensions with respect to employee's job hierarchical level has been displayed in table 4.9 below. The results revealed that there exists no significant difference in the perception of employees with respect to employer branding dimensions depending upon their hierarchical. As per results displayed in table 4.9 below it is evident that employee's perception of interest value ($F = 1.942, p > .05$), social value ($F = 2.608, p > .05$), development value ($F = 2.229, p > .05$), application value ($F = 2.229, p > .05$) and economic value ($F = 1.590, p > .05$) associated with an employee brand will not vary depending upon their hierarchical level thus, hypothesis 1 (c) is not supported in the study.

Table 4.9: Results of one-way ANOVA for Employer branding dimensions depending upon hierarchical level

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Variable (hierarchical level)</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>		<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Interest Value (IV)	Junior Level	144	3.54	.722	Between Groups	2.254	2	1.942	1.45
	Middle Level	265	3.68	.797	Within Groups	265.299	457		
	Senior Level	51	3.69	.675	Total	267.553	459		
	Total	460	3.64	.763					
Social Value (SV)	Junior Level	144	3.87	.637	Between Groups	2.072	2	2.608	.075
	Middle Level	265	3.98	.605	Within Groups	181.485	457		
	Senior Level	51	3.79	.728	Total	183.556	459		
	Total	460	3.92	.632					

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Variable (hierarchical level)</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>		<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Development Value (DV)	Junior Level	144	3.70	.721	Between Groups	2.268	2	2.366	.095
	Middle Level	265	3.85	.664	Within Groups	218.984	457		
	Senior Level	51	3.83	.750	Total	221.252	459		
	Total	460	3.80	.694					
Application Value (AV)	Junior Level	144	3.68	.758	Between Groups	2.250	2	2.229	.109
	Middle Level	265	3.83	.687	Within Groups	230.666	457		
	Senior Level	51	3.85	.688	Total	232.916	459		
	Total	460	3.78	.712					
Economic Value (EV)	Junior Level	144	3.71	.663					
	Middle Level	265	3.72	.739	Between Groups	1.674	2	1.590	.205
	Senior Level	51	3.52	.813	Within Groups	240.606	457		
	Total	460	3.70	.726	Total	242.280	459		

Notes: N = 460, $p < .05$.

Further to test the hypothesis 1 (d) which asserts that employees' perception of employer branding dimensions (interest value, social value, development value, application value and economic value) will vary depending upon the organizational sector (public versus private), independent sample t -test was used. The results of t -test for equality of means have been displayed in table 4.10 below. The results revealed that the employees' perception with respect to employer branding dimensions varies between public and private sector organizations only for economic value ($t = -3.294$, $p < .05$).

Also, the mean for economic value of an employer brand associated with public sector organizations ($M = 3.79$, $SD = .623$) was found to be higher in comparison to private sector organizations ($M = 3.55$, $SD = .845$). Further no support was found for significant differences between public and private sector organizations with respect to interest value ($t = .098$, $p > .05$), social value ($t = -1.543$, $p > .05$), development value ($t = -1.926$, $p > .05$) and application value ($t = -.699$, $p > .05$) as shown in table 4.10 below. The results obtained did not provide full support for hypothesis 1 (d). Thus hypothesis 1 (d) is partially supported.

Table 4.10 Results of T-test for equality of Means of Employer Branding Dimensions depending upon organizational sector (Private versus public)

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Sector</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Interest Value (IV)	Private	178	3.6483	.78584	.098	458	.922
	Public	282	3.6411	.75043			
Social Value (SV)	Private	178	3.8663	.71961	-1.543	458	.124
	Public	282	3.9645	.56859			
Development Value (DV)	Private	178	3.7258	.77904	-1.926	458	.055
	Public	282	3.8596	.63099			
Application Value (AV)	Private	178	3.7573	.73828	-.699	458	.485
	Public	282	3.8050	.69618			
Economic Value (EV)	Private	178	3.5517	.84541	-3.294	458	.001
	Public	282	3.7936	.62393			

Notes: N = 460, $p < .05$.

4.5.2 Testing Hypotheses developed to address RQ2

RQ 2: Does the employees' perception of servant leadership dimensions (*empowerment standing back, accountability, forgiveness, courage, authenticity, stewardship and humility*) vary with respect to demographics (Age, gender, hierarchical level and organization type)?

Hypothesis 2(a): Employees' perception of servant leadership dimensions (Empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, courage, authenticity, stewardship and humility) will vary depending upon their age.

Hypothesis 2(b): Employees' perception of servant leadership dimensions (Empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, courage, authenticity, stewardship and humility) will vary depending upon their gender.

Hypothesis 2(c): Employees' perception of servant leadership dimensions (Empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, courage, authenticity, stewardship and humility) will vary depending upon their hierarchical level (Junior, middle and senior level).

Hypothesis 2(d): Employees' perception of servant leadership dimensions (Empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, courage, authenticity, stewardship and humility) will vary depending upon the organizational sector (Public and Private) they work for.

To test hypothesis 2 (a) which asserts that employee's perception of servant leadership dimensions (Empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, courage, authenticity, stewardship and humility) will vary according to their age, one-way ANOVA test had been used. Levene's test for equality of variances was also used to test the homogeneity of variance in independent variables (Tanlamai & Soongswang, 2006). The results displayed in table 4.11 below

indicates that there exists significant differences among employees of different age groups with respect to their perception of only one dimensions of servant leadership i.e. accountability ($F = 4.253, p < .05$). Further no differences had been observed for other seven dimensions of servant leadership i.e. empowerment ($F = 1.507, p > .05$), standing back ($F = .402, p > .05$), forgiveness ($F = 1.847, p > .05$), courage ($F = 1.357, p > .05$), authenticity ($F = .677, p > .05$), stewardship ($F = .784, p > .05$) and humility ($F = .328, p > .05$). Further Tukey’s HSD test in post hoc analyses revealed that accountability was found to be significantly varying between employees in the age groups of 21-25 and 36-40, 26 -30 and 36-40, 36-40 and 41-45. Further no significant differences have been observed in employees in other age groups. The results thus obtained and interpretations discussed did not provide full support of hypothesis 2 (a). Thus hypothesis 2 (a) is partially supported. The results of one-way ANOVA for equality of means for servant leadership dimensions have been displayed in table 4.11 below.

Table 4.11: Results of one-way ANOVA for Servant Leadership dimensions depending upon respondent’s age

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Variable (Age)</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>		<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Empowerment (EMP)	21-25	130	3.926	.632					
	26-30	113	3.767	.792	Between Groups	3.757	4	1.507	.186
	31-35	49	3.822	.478	Within Groups	226.357	454		
	36-40	36	3.670	.591	Total	230.114	459		
	41-45	43	3.827	.928					
	Above 45	89	3.956	.713					
	Total	460	3.852	.708					
Standing Back (STB)	21-25	130	3.448	.794	Between Groups	1.369	4	.402	.848
	26-30	113	3.392	.933	Within Groups	309.270	454		
	31-35	49	3.353	.834	Total	310.639	459		
	36-40	36	3.527	.778					
	41-45	43	3.310	.771					
	Above 45	89	3.438	.758					
	Total	460	3.415	.822					
Accountability (ACC)	21-25	130	3.928	.637	Between Groups	8.825	4	4.253	.001
	26-30	113	3.814	.675	Within Groups	188.402	454		
	31-35	49	3.707	.571	Total	197.227	459		
	36-40	36	3.444	.512					
	41-45	43	3.992	.615					
	Above 45	89	3.756	.708					
	Total	460	3.852	.708					

	Total	460	3.811	.655					
Dimensions	Variable (Age)	N	Mean	SD		Sum of Squares	df	F	Sig.
Forgiveness (FRG)	21-25	130	3.384	.898	Between Groups	6.390	4	1.847	.102
	26-30	113	3.548	.869	Within Groups	314.570	454		
	31-35	49	3.292	.614	Total	320.437	459		
	36-40	36	3.324	.741					
	41-45	43	3.372	.932					
	Above 45	89	3.206	.764					
	Total	460	3.374	.835					
Courage (CRG)	21-25	130	3.353	.959					
	26-30	113	3.446	.912	Between Groups	6.784	4	1.662	.142
	31-35	49	3.724	.500	Within Groups	370.570	454		
	36-40	36	3.625	.936	Total	377.354	459		
	41-45	43	3.348	1.07					
	Above 45	89	3.528	.876					
	Total	460	3.470	.906					
Authenticity (AUT)	21-25	130	3.355	.719					
	26-30	113	3.464	.691	Between Groups	1.526	4	.667	.641
	31-35	49	3.484	.541	Within Groups	204.663	454		
	36-40	36	3.527	.578	Total	206.190	459		
	41-45	43	3.494	.632					
	Above 45	89	3.460	.687					
	Total	460	3.442	.670					
Stewardship (STW)	21-25	130	3.697	.745					
	26-30	113	3.672	.842	Between Groups	2.271	4	.784	.561
	31-35	49	3.836	.660	Within Groups	262.869	454		
	36-40	36	3.685	.755	Total	265.140	459		
	41-45	43	3.759	.794					
	Above 45	89	3.842	.709					
	Total	460	3.739	.760					
Humility (HUM)	21-25	130	3.535	.748	Between Groups	.870	4	.328	.896
	26-30	113	3.479	.772	Within Groups	240.665	454		
	31-35	49	3.559	.642	Total	241.535	459		
	36-40	36	3.438	.642					
	41-45	43	3.418	.733					
	Above 45	89	3.467	.712					
	Total	460	3.492	.725					

Notes: N = 460, $p < .05$.

Further, to test the hypothesis 2 (b) which asserts that employee's perception of servant leadership dimensions (Empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, courage, authenticity, stewardship and humility) will vary according to their gender, *t*-test had been utilized. The results displayed in table 4.12 below revealed there was no significant difference among males and females regarding their perception of servant leadership dimensions i.e. empowerment ($t = -.494, p >.05$), standing back ($t = .366, p >.05$), accountability ($t = .437, p >.05$), forgiveness ($t = -1.630, p >.05$), courage ($t = .402, p >.05$), authenticity ($t = 1.063, p >.05$), stewardship ($t = -.231, p >.05$) and humility ($t = -.112, p >.05$). The results thus did not support hypothesis 2 (b) and could not be accepted. This means that employees' perception with respect to servant leadership dimensions will not vary depending upon their gender. The results of *t*-test have been displayed in table 4.12 below.

Table 4.12 Results of T-test for equality of Means of Servant Leadership Dimensions depending upon respondent's gender

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Empowerment (EMP)	Males	387	3.8457	.70514	-.494	458	.621
	Females	73	3.8904	.72708			
Standing Back (STB)	Males	387	3.4220	.82170	.366	458	.714
	Females	73	3.3836	.83272			
Accountability (ACC)	Males	387	3.8174	.65531	.437	458	.662
	Females	73	3.7808	.66020			
Forgiveness (FRG)	Males	387	3.3471	.84888	-1.630	458	.104
	Females	73	3.5205	.74946			
Courage (CRG)	Males	387	3.4780	.91838	.402	458	.688
	Females	73	3.4315	.84703			
Authenticity (AUT)	Males	387	3.4574	.67390	1.063	458	.288
	Females	73	3.3664	.64963			
Stewardship (STW)	Males	387	3.7356	.76658	-.231	458	.817
	Females	73	3.7580	.72916			
Humility (HUM)	Males	387	3.4910	.73166	-.112	458	.911
	Females	73	3.5014	.69612			

Notes: N = 460, $p < .05$.

Further one-way ANOVA test has been utilized to test hypothesis 2 (c) which asserts that employee's perception of servant leadership dimensions (Empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, courage, authenticity, stewardship and humility) will vary according to their hierarchical level (junior middle and senior level). The results of one-way ANOVA for equality of means for servant leadership dimensions with respect to employee's job hierarchical level has been displayed in table 4.13 below. The results revealed that there exists significant

difference in the perception of employees with respect to only one dimensions of servant leadership i.e. stewardship ($F = 7.212, p <.05$) depending upon their hierarchical level. Further Tukey's HSD test in post hoc analyses revealed that stewardship was found to be significantly varying between employees working at different hierarchical levels. Specifically stewardship perception was found to be varying between employees working at junior level and middle level and between junior level and senior level. Further no significant differences have been observed for other dimensions of servant leadership between employees working at various hierarchical levels. As per results displayed in table 4.13 below it is evident that employee's perception of other servant leadership dimensions i.e. empowerment ($F = 1.585, p >.05$), standing back ($F = .095, p >.05$), accountability ($F = 1.224, p >.05$), forgiveness ($F = .155, p >.05$), courage ($F = .567, p >.05$), authenticity ($F = .038, p >.05$), humility ($F = .473, p >.05$) will not vary depending their hierarchical level thus, hypothesis 2 (c) is partially supported in the study.

Table 4.13: Results of one-way ANOVA for servant leadership dimensions depending upon hierarchical level

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Variable (Age)</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Groups</i>	<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Empowerment (EMP)	Junior Level	144	3.765	.703					
	Middle Level	265	3.893	.695	Between	1.585	2	1.585	.206
	Senior Level	51	3.888	.774	Within	228.529	457		
	Total	460	3.852	.708	Total	230.114	459		
Standing Back (STB)	Junior Level	144	3.391	.884					
	Middle Level	265	3.427	.777	Between	.129	2	.095	.910
	Senior Level	51	3.424	.882	Within	310.510	457		
	Total	460	3.415	.822	Total	310.639	459		
Accountability (ACC)	Junior Level	144	3.817	.641					
	Middle Level	265	3.783	.639	Between	1.068	2	1.244	.289
	Senior Level	51	3.941	.765	Within	196.159	457		
	Total	460	3.811	.655	Total	197.227	459		
Forgiveness (FRG)	Junior Level	144	3.391	.852					
	Middle Level	265	3.357	.805	Between	.217	2	.155	.857
	Senior Level	51	3.418	.949	Within	320.220	457		
	Total	460	3.374	.835	Total	320.437	459		
Courage (CRG)	Junior Level	144	3.409	.921					
	Middle Level	265	3.488	.890	Between	.934	2	.567	.568
	Senior Level	51	3.549	.955	Within	376.420	457		
	Total	460	3.470	.906	Total	377.354	459		

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Variable (Age)</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Groups</i>	<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Authenticity (AUT)	Junior Level	144	3.342	.700					
	Middle Level	265	3.445	.644	Between	.034	2	.038	.963
	Senior Level	51	3.460	.725	Within	206.156	457		
	Total	460	3.442	.670	Total	206.190	459		
Stewardship (STW)	Junior Level	144	3.574	.838					
	Middle Level	265	3.776	.724	Between	8.113	2	7.212	.001
	Senior Level	51	4.031	.596	Within	257.028	457		
	Total	460	3.739	.760	Total	265.140	459		
Humility (HUM)	Junior Level	144	3.509	.776					
	Middle Level	265	3.501	.690	Between	.499	2	.473	.624
	Senior Level	51	3.400	.763	Within	241.036	457		
	Total	460	3.492	.725	Total	241.535	459		

Notes: N = 460, $p < .05$.

Further to test the hypothesis 2 (d) which asserts that employee's perception of servant leadership dimensions (Empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, courage, authenticity, stewardship and humility) will vary depending upon the organizational sector (public versus private), independent sample t -test was used. The results of t -test for equality of means have been displayed in table 4.14 below. The results revealed that the employees' perception with respect to servant leadership dimensions varies between public and private sector organizations only for standing back ($t = 2.382, p < .05$).

Also, the mean for standing back dimensions of servant leadership in private sector organizations ($M = 3.53, SD = .882$) was found to be higher in comparison to public sector organizations ($M = 3.34, SD = .774$). Further no support was found for significant differences between public and private sector organizations with respect to empowerment ($t = -.590, p > .05$), accountability ($t = 1.638, p > .05$), forgiveness ($t = .856, p > .05$), courage ($t = .393, p > .05$), authenticity ($t = -.548, p > .05$), stewardship ($t = -.491, p > .05$) and humility ($t = -.301, p > .05$) as shown in table 4.14 below. The results obtained did not provide full support for hypothesis 2 (d). Thus hypothesis 2 (d) is partially supported.

Table 4.14 Results of T-test for equality of Means of Servant Leadership Dimensions depending upon organizational sector (public versus private)

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Sector</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Empowerment (EMP)	Private	178	3.8283	.66076	-.590	458	.555
	Public	282	3.8683	.73707			
Standing Back (STB)	Private	178	3.5337	.88251	2.382	458	.018
	Public	282	3.3416	.77496			
Accountability (ACC)	Private	178	3.8764	.70756	1.638	458	.102
	Public	282	3.7707	.61821			
Forgiveness (FRG)	Private	178	3.4176	.88852	.856	458	.393
	Public	282	3.3475	.80072			
Courage (CRG)	Private	178	3.4916	.87410	.393	458	.695
	Public	282	3.4574	.92799			
Authenticity (AUT)	Private	178	3.4213	.69359	-.548	458	.584
	Public	282	3.4566	.65595			
Stewardship (STW)	Private	178	3.7172	.75286	-.491	458	.624
	Public	282	3.7530	.76553			
Humility (HUM)	Private	178	3.4798	.71823	-.301	458	.763
	Public	282	3.5007	.73106			

Notes: N = 460, $p < .05$.

4.5.3 Testing Hypotheses developed to address RQ3

RQ 3: Does employee satisfaction with retention practices (*Compensation, job characteristics, training, career opportunities and work-life balance*) vary with respect to demographics (*Age, gender, hierarchical level and organization type*)?

Hypothesis 3(a): Employee satisfaction with retention practices (*Compensation, job characteristics, training, career opportunities and work-life balance*) will vary depending upon their age.

Hypothesis 3(b): Employee satisfaction with retention practices (*Compensation, job characteristics, training, career opportunities and work-life balance*) will vary depending upon their gender.

Hypothesis 3(c): Employee satisfaction with retention practices (*Compensation, job characteristics, training, career opportunities and work-life balance*) will vary depending upon their hierarchical level (*Junior, middle and senior level*).

Hypothesis 3(d): Employee satisfaction with retention practices (*Compensation, job characteristics, training, career opportunities and work-life balance*) will vary depending upon their organization type (*Public or private*).

To test hypothesis 3 (a) which asserts that employee's perception with retention practices (compensation, job characteristics, training, career opportunities and work-life balance) will vary according to their age, one-way ANOVA test had been used. The results displayed in table 4.15 below indicates that there exists significant differences among employees of different age groups with respect to their satisfaction with only one of the retention practices i.e. compensation ($F = 3.053, p < .05$). Further no differences had been observed for other four practices of employee retention i.e. job characteristics ($F = 2.143, p > .05$), training ($F = 1.544, p > .05$), career development opportunities ($F = 1.610, p > .05$) and work-life balance ($F = .729, p > .05$). Further Tukey's HSD test in post hoc analyses revealed that satisfaction with compensation as employee retention practice was found to be significantly varying between employees in the age groups of 21-25 and above 45, 26-30 and above 45 and 31-35 and above 45. Also, mean for compensation satisfaction for employees in age group of 21-25 ($M = 3.45, SD = .757$), 26-30 ($M = 3.51, SD = .679$) and 31-35 ($M = 3.29, SD = .692$) was found to be lower than the mean of compensation satisfaction for employees in the age group of above 45 ($M = 3.52, SD = .684$). This revealed that employees in these age groups are less satisfied with the compensation practices in comparison to the employees in the age group of above 45. Further no significant differences have been observed in employees in other age groups. The results thus obtained and interpretations discussed did not provide full support of hypothesis 3 (a). Thus hypothesis 3 (a) is partially supported.

Table 4.15: Results of one-way ANOVA for satisfaction with employee retention practices depending upon respondent's age

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Variable (Age)</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Groups</i>	<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Compensation (COMP)	21-25	130	3.475	.757					
	26-30	113	3.511	.679	Between	6.992	5	3.053	.010
	31-35	49	3.296	.692	Within	207.918	454		
	36-40	36	3.463	.562	Total	214.909	459		
	41-45	43	3.674	.653					
	Above 45	89	3.708	.584					
	Total	460	3.528	.684					
Job Characteristics (JC)	21-25	130	3.398	.600	Between	3.648	5	2.143	.059
	26-30	113	3.488	.616	Within	154.568	454		
	31-35	49	3.494	.490	Total	158.215	459		
	36-40	36	3.631	.599					
	41-45	43	3.662	.685					
	Above 45	89	3.578	.496					
	Total	460	3.508	.587					

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Variable (Age)</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Groups</i>	<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Training (TRG)	21-25	130	3.498	.769	Between	3.958	5	1.544	.175
	26-30	113	3.570	.827	Within	232.775	454		
	31-35	49	3.581	.553	Total	236.733	459		
	36-40	36	3.356	.649					
	41-45	43	3.689	.636					
	Above 45	89	3.677	.613					
	Total	460	3.566	.718					
Career development opportunities (CO)	21-25	130	3.417	.600	Between	2.921	5	1.610	.156
	26-30	113	3.449	.606	Within	164.739	454		
	31-35	49	3.340	.640	Total	167.661	459		
	36-40	36	3.231	.749					
	41-45	43	3.492	.601					
	Above 45	89	3.286	.504					
	Total	460	3.384	.604					
Work-life balance (WLB)	21-25	130	3.150	1.05					
	26-30	113	3.165	1.01	Between	3.551	5	.729	.602
	31-35	49	3.163	1.03	Within	442.455	454		
	36-40	36	3.152	1.05	Total	446.006	459		
	41-45	43	3.255	.817					
	Above 45	89	3.379	.870					
	Total	460	3.209	.985					

Notes: N = 460, $p < .05$.

Further to test the hypothesis 3 (b) which asserts that employee's perception with retention practices (compensation, job characteristics, training, career opportunities and work-life balance) will vary according to their gender, t -test had been utilized. The results displayed in table 4.16 below revealed there was significant difference among males and females regarding their satisfaction with two employee retention practices i.e. compensation ($t = 2.483, p < .05$) and job characteristics ($t = 2.822, p < .05$). Also, the mean of the compensation satisfaction for males ($M = 3.56, SD = .677$) is higher than the mean of the compensation satisfaction for females ($M = 3.34, SD = .695$). Further the mean of the satisfaction with job characteristics for males ($M = 3.54, SD = .597$) is higher than the mean of the satisfaction with job characteristics for females ($M = 3.33, SD = .494$). No significant differences had been observed between males and females with respect to their satisfaction with rest of the retention practices i.e. training ($t = 1.787, p > .05$), career development opportunities ($t = .505, p > .05$) and work-life balance ($t = 1.825, p > .05$). The results provided partial support for hypothesis 3 (b). Thus hypothesis 3 (b) is partially supported in the study. The results of t -test have been displayed in table 4.16 below.

Table 4.16 Results of T-test for equality of Means of satisfaction with employee retention practices depending upon respondent' Gender

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Compensation (COMP)	Males	387	3.5623	.67757	2.483	458	.013
	Females	73	3.3467	.69564			
Job Characteristics (JC)	Males	387	3.5420	.59766	2.822	458	.005
	Females	73	3.3322	.49486			
Training (TRG)	Males	387	3.5926	.71518	1.787	458	.075
	Females	73	3.4292	.72325			
Career development opportunities (CO)	Males	387	3.3906	.61940	.505	458	.613
	Females	73	3.3516	.52009			
Work-life balance (WLB)	Males	387	3.2461	.98498	1.825	458	.069
	Females	73	3.0171	.97390			

Notes: N = 460, $p < .05$.

Further one-way ANOVA test has been utilized to test hypothesis 3 (c) which asserts that employee's perception with retention practices (compensation, job characteristics, training, career opportunities and work-life balance) will vary according to their hierarchical level (junior middle and senior level). The results of one-way ANOVA for equality of means for employee retention practices with respect to employee's job hierarchical level has been displayed in table 4.17 below. The results revealed that there exists significant difference in the perception of employees with respect to satisfaction with job characteristics ($F= 6.782, p < .05$) depending upon their hierarchical.

Further Tukey's HSD test in post hoc analyses revealed that satisfaction with job satisfaction as employee retention practice was found to be significantly varying between employees at junior level and middle level. Also, the mean of satisfaction with job characteristics for employees at middle level ($M= 3.58, SD = .568$) was higher than the mean obtained for the employees at junior level ($M= 3.36, SD = .586$). Further no significant differences have been observed in employees in other job hierarchical levels. As per results displayed in table 4.17 below it is evident that employee's satisfaction with compensation ($F = .332, p > .05$), training ($F = 2.100, p > .05$), career development opportunities ($F = .370, p > .05$) and work-life balance ($F= 1.767, p > .05$) will not vary depending upon their hierarchical level. The results displayed in table 4.17 below provided partial support for hypothesis 3 (c). Thus hypothesis 3 (c) is partially supported in the study.

Table 4.17: Results of one-way ANOVA for employee satisfaction with retention practices depending upon hierarchical level

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Variable (hierarchical level)</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Groups</i>	<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Compensation (COMP)	Junior Level	144	3.517	.676	Between	.312	2	.332	.717
	Middle Level	265	3.519	.686	Within	214.597	457		
	Senior Level	51	3.601	.701	Total	214.909	459		
	Total	460	3.528	.684					
Job Characteristics (JC)	Junior Level	144	3.362	.586	Between	4.560	2	6.782	.001
	Middle Level	265	3.583	.568	Within	153.655	457		
	Senior Level	51	3.534	.618	Total	158.215	459		
	Total	460	3.508	.587					
Training (TRG)	Junior Level	144	3.473	.777	Between	2.156	2	2.100	.124
	Middle Level	265	3.595	.701	Within	234.578	457		
	Senior Level	51	3.683	.602	Total	236.733	459		
	Total	460	3.566	.718					
Career development opportunities (CO)	Junior Level	144	3.420	.608	Between	.271	2	.370	.691
	Middle Level	265	3.366	.605	Within	167.390	457		
	Senior Level	51	3.375	.595	Total	167.661	459		
	Total	460	3.384	.604					
Work-life balance (WLB)	Junior Level	144	3.316	1.00					
	Middle Level	265	3.186	.970	Between	3.423	2	1.767	.172
	Senior Level	51	3.029	1.00	Within	442.583	457		
	Total	460	3.209	.985	Total	446.006	459		

Notes: N = 460, $p < .05$.

Further to test the hypothesis 3 (d) which asserts that employee's perception with retention practices (compensation, job characteristics, training, career opportunities and work-life balance) will vary depending upon the organizational sector (public versus private), independent sample t -test was used. The results of t -test for equality of means have been displayed in table 4.18 below. The results revealed that the employees' satisfaction with retention practices varies between public and private sector organizations only for compensation ($t = -3.481, p < .05$) and career development opportunities ($t = 3.689, p < .05$). Also, the mean of compensation satisfaction for employees working in public sector ($M = 3.62, SD = .600$) organizations was higher than the mean obtained for private sector ($M = 3.38, SD = .778$) and the mean for satisfaction with career development opportunities for employees working in private sector organizations ($M = 3.51, SD = .649$) was higher than the mean obtained for employees working in public sector organizations ($M = 3.30, SD = .558$). Further no support was found for significant differences between public and private sector organizations with respect to job characteristics ($t = 1.761, p > .05$), training ($t = 1.486, p > .05$) and

work-life balance ($t = -.646, p >.05$) as shown in table 4.18 below. The results obtained did not provide full support for hypothesis 3 (d). Thus hypothesis 3 (d) is partially supported.

Table 4.18 Results of T-test for equality of Means of satisfaction with employee retention practices depending upon organizational sector (Private versus public)

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Sector</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Compensation (COMP)	Private	178	3.3820	.77843	-3.481	458	.001
	Public	282	3.6203	.60089			
Job Characteristics (JC)	Private	178	3.5716	.64724	1.761	458	.079
	Public	282	3.4690	.54321			
Training (TRG)	Private	178	3.6292	.76990	1.486	458	.138
	Public	282	3.5272	.68195			
Career development opportunities (CO)	Private	178	3.5178	.64961	3.689	458	.000
	Public	282	3.3002	.55898			
Work-life balance (WLB)	Private	178	3.1713	1.05739	-.646	458	.518
	Public	282	3.2340	.93884			

Notes: N = 460, $p < .05$.

4.5.4 Testing Hypotheses developed to address RQ4

RQ 4: Does employer branding construct predict satisfaction with employee retention practices and employee turnover intentions?

Hypothesis 4: Employer branding is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention and negatively with turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 4(a): Interest value is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 4(b): Social value is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 4(c): Development value is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 4(d): Application value is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 4(e): Economic value is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

To test hypothesis 4 which asserts that employees' perception of employer branding is positively associated to satisfaction with retention practices and negatively associated with turnover intentions, hierarchical multiple regression technique has been utilized. The results of regression analysis have been displayed in table 4.20 below. Mean, S.D and intercorrelations

among employer branding dimensions, satisfaction with employee retention practices and turnover intentions has been displayed in table 4.19 below. Results revealed that employer branding explain 38.4% variance in satisfaction with retention practices and 31.9% variance in turnover intentions. Further employer branding was found to be significant predictor of satisfaction with employee retention practices ($\beta = .608, p < .05$) and turnover intentions ($\beta = -.289, p < .05$). Hence hypothesis 4 was supported in the study.

Table 4.19: Mean, SD and intercorrelations among the employer branding dimensions, SERP and turnover intentions

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. IV	3.64	.76	(.82)							
2. SV	3.92	.63	.628*	(.75)						
3. DV	3.80	.69	.656*	.639*	(.79)					
4. AV	3.78	.71	.659*	.617*	.641*	(.78)				
5. EV	3.70	.72	.588*	.560*	.552*	.616*	(.75)			
6. EB	3.77	.58	.855*	.818*	.836*	.850*	.800*	(.92)		
7. SERP	3.43	.50	.487*	.415*	.436*	.543*	.620*	.604*	(.91)	
8. TI	2.51	1.13	-.221*	-.290*	-.302*	-.265*	-.274*	-.323*	-.084	(.91)

Notes: $N = 460, p < .05$, IV= interest value, SV= social value, DV = development value, AV = application value, EV = economic value, EB = employer branding, SERP = satisfaction with employee retention practices, TI = turnover intentions.

Table 4.20: Result of Multiple hierarchical regressions for testing the impact employer branding SERP and turnover intentions

Variable	SERP		SERP		TI		TI	
	Step 1		Step 2		Step 1		Step 2	
Step 1: CV								
Constant	3.699	26.809*	1.801	11.344*	5.107	18.724*	7.132	19.042*
AGE	.117	1.988*	.136	2.904*	-.017	-.328	-.026	-.526
GNDR	-.105	-2.166*	-.068	-1.744	-.123	-2.886*	-.141	-3.481*
HRY	-.030	-.561	-.067	-1.615	-.093	-2.011*	-.075	-1.714*
CORG	-.086	-1.668	-.139	-3.413*	-.483	-10.660*	-.457	-10.651*
Step 2: IV								
Employer Branding			.608	16.478*			-.289	-7.451*
F-Value		3.059*		58.209*		36.755*		44.029*
R^2		.026		.391		.244		.327
Adjusted R^2		.018		.384		.238		.319
ΔR^2				.366				.081*

Notes: $N = 460$, standardized beta coefficients are reported in the regression table. * $p < .05$. SERP: satisfaction with retention practices, TI: turnover intentions, Age: age of respondent, GNDR: gender, HRY: hierarchical level, CORG: current organization (public or private), CV = control variables, IV = independent variable.

To test hypothesis 4 (a), 4 (b), 4 (c), 4 (d) and 4 (e) which asserts that employees' perception of employer branding dimensions i.e. interest value, social value, development value, application value and economic value are positively associated to satisfaction with retention practices and negatively associated with turnover intentions, multiple hierarchical regression technique has been utilized. As the dependent variable of the study i.e. employee retention has been conceptualized at two level so, at the organizational level satisfaction with employee retention practices have been aggregated to form an Index i.e. SERP and at individual level employee turnover intentions have been assessed. In multiple hierarchical regression technique, in step 1, the control variables had been entered in block 1 and independent dimensions of employer branding had been entered in to block 2 in SPSS. This process had been repeated twice i.e. first for Satisfaction with employee retention practices Index SERP and second for turnover intentions (TI). The results of multiple hierarchical regression analysis to test the impact of employer branding dimensions on SERP and turnover intentions has been displayed in table 4.21 below. As indicated in the table 4.21 below all the dimensions of an employer brand collaboratively explained 45 % variance in satisfaction with employee retention practices ($F = 42.726, p < .05$).

Also, the results indicate that out of five employer branding dimensions studied only application value ($\beta = .228, t = 4.249, p < .05$) and economic value ($\beta = .463, t = 9.495, p < .05$) were significant predictors of satisfaction with employee retention practices. Further, the other dimensions interest value ($\beta = .050, t = .921, p > .05$), social value ($\beta = -.005, t = -.106, p > .05$) and development value ($\beta = .007, t = .136, p > .05$) were found to be insignificant predictors of satisfaction with employee retention practices. As far the relationship between employer branding dimensions and turnover intentions is concerned, the employer branding dimensions explained 31.9% variance in turnover intentions ($F = 24.889, p < .05$).

Further, out of five employer branding dimensions only social value ($\beta = -.124, t = -2.181, p < .05$) and development value ($\beta = -.120, t = -2.055, p < .05$) were found to be significant predictors of employee turnover intentions. The other dimensions of employer branding i.e. interest value ($\beta = -.006, t = -.101, p > .05$), application value ($\beta = -.087, t = -1.4536, p > .05$) and economic value ($\beta = -.025, t = -.455, p > .05$) were insignificant predictors of turnover intentions. Interestingly the results revealed that application value and economic value associated with employer branding were the factors to influence satisfaction with retention practices and the other hand social value and development value associated with employer brand were the significant

factors to reduce employee turnover intentions. Further, the interest value associated with an employer brand was neither influencing satisfaction with retention practices nor reducing employee's turnover intentions. The results of multiple regression analysis provide no support for hypothesis 4 (a) and thus could not be supported. Further, hypothesis 4 (b), 4(c), 4 (d) and 4 (e) were partially supported in the study.

Table 4.21: Result of multiple hierarchical regression for testing the impact employer branding dimensions on SERP and turnover intentions

Variable	SERP		SERP		TI		TI	
	Step 1		Step 2		Step 1		Step 2	
Step 1: CV	β	<i>t</i>	β	<i>t</i>	β	<i>t</i>	β	<i>t</i>
Constant	3.699	26.809	1.868	12.163	5.107	18.724	7.258	18.926
AGE	.117*	1.988	.123*	2.716	-.017	-.328	-.043	-.863
GNDR	-.105*	-2.166	-.079*	-2.164	-.123	-2.886	-.145*	-3.578
HRY	-.030	-.561	-.032	-.797	-.093	-2.011	-.066	-1.471
CORG	-.086	-1.668	-.167	-4.209	-.483	-10.660	-.448*	-10.182
Step 2:IV								
IV			.050	.921			.006	.101
SV			-.005	-.106			-.124*	-2.181
DV			.007	.136			-.120*	-2.055
AV			.228*	4.249			-.087	-1.453
EV			.463*	9.495			-.025	-.455
F-Value		3.059*		42.726*		36.755*		24.889*
R ²		.026		.461		.244		.332
Adjusted R ²		.018		.450		.238		.319
ΔR^2				.432*				.081*

Notes: *N* = 460, standardized beta coefficients are reported in the regression table. * *p* < .05. SERP: satisfaction with retention practices, TI: turnover intentions, Age: age of respondent, GNDR: gender, HRY: hierarchical level, CORG: current organization (public or private), IV: interest value, SV: social value, DV: development value, AV: application value, EV: economic value, IV = independent variables, CV = control variables.

4.5.5 Testing Hypotheses developed to address RQ5

RQ 5: Does servant leadership construct predict satisfaction with employee retention practices and employee turnover intentions?

Hypothesis 5: Servant leadership is positively associated with employee retention and negatively with turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 5(a): Empowerment is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 5(b): Standing back is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 5(c): Accountability is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 5(d): Forgiveness is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 5(e): Courage is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 5(f): Authenticity is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 5(g): Stewardship is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 5(h): Humility is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

To test hypothesis 5 which asserts that employees' perception of servant leadership is positively associated to satisfaction with retention practices and negatively associated with turnover intentions, hierarchical multiple regression technique has been utilized. The results of regression analysis have been displayed in table 4.23 below. Mean, S.D and intercorrelations among servant leadership dimensions, satisfaction with employee retention practices and turnover intentions has been displayed in table 4.22 below. Results revealed that servant leadership explain 40.0%% variance in satisfaction with retention practices and 24.9% variance in turnover intentions. Further servant leadership was found to be significant predictor of satisfaction with employee retention practices ($\beta = .618, p < .05$) and insignificant predictor of turnover intentions ($\beta = -.113, p > .05$). Hence hypothesis 4 was partially supported in the study.

Table 4.22: Mean, SD and intercorrelations among the servant leadership dimensions, SERP and turnover intentions

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1.STB	3.41	.82	(.72)										
2.ACC	3.81	.65	.437*	(.75)									
3.FGV	3.37	.83	.411*	.316*	(.75)								
4.CRG	3.47	.90	.592*	.277*	.425*	(.79)							
5.STW	3.73	.76	.657*	.389*	.351*	.544*	(.72)						
6.HUM	3.49	.72	.676*	.391*	.400*	.521*	.689*	(.82)					
7.EMP	3.85	.70	.668*	.459*	.293*	.454*	.741*	.627*	(.85)				
8.AUT	3.44	.67	.656*	.335*	.449*	.555*	.617*	.702*	.564*	(.75)			
9.SL	3.57	.57	.848*	.580*	.617*	.744*	.824*	.824*	.787*	.803*	(.93)		
10.SERP	3.43	.50	.565*	.386*	.382*	.393*	.481*	.528*	.475*	.519*	.616*	(.91)	
11.TI	2.51	1.13	-.035	-.093*	.082	-.021	-.184*	-.066	-.318*	-.033	-.104*	-.084	(.91)

Notes: $N = 460$, $p < .05$, STB: standing back, ACC = accountability, FGV = forgiveness, CRG = courage, STW = stewardship, HUM = humility, EMP = empowerment, AUT = authenticity, SL = servant leadership, SERP = satisfaction with employee retention practices, TI = turnover intentions.

Table 4.23: Result of Multiple hierarchical regression for testing the impact servant leadership SERP and turnover intentions

Variable	SERP		SERP		TI		TI	
	Step 1		Step 2		Step 1		Step 2	
	β	t	β	t	β	t	β	t
Step 1: Control Variables								
Constant	3.699	26.809*	1.775	11.375*	5.107	18.724	5.894	15.043
AGE	.117	1.988*	.132	2.859*	-.017	-.328	-.020	-.382
GNDR	-.105	-2.166*	-.102	-2.686*	-.123	-2.886*	-.124	-2.921*
HRY	-.030	-.561	-.069	-1.666*	-.093	-2.011*	-.086	-1.868
CORG	-.086	-1.668	-.073	-1.8829	-.483	-10.660*	-.485	-10.787*
Step 2: Independent Variables								
Servant Leadership			.618	17.066*			-.113	-2.779
F-Value		3.059*		9.505*		36.755*		31.383*
R^2		.026		.407		.244		.257
Adjusted R^2		.018		.400		.238		.249
ΔR^2				.382				.011

Notes: $N = 460$, standardized beta coefficients are reported in the regression table. * $p < .05$. SERP: satisfaction with retention practices, TI: turnover intentions, Age: age of respondent, GNDR: gender, HRY: hierarchical level, CORG: current organization (public or private).

To test hypothesis 5 (a), 5 (b), 5 (c), 5 (d), 5 (e), 5 (f), 5 (g) and 5 (h) which asserts that employees' perception of servant leadership dimensions i.e. empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, courage, authenticity, stewardship and humility are positively

associated to satisfaction with retention practices and negatively associated with turnover intentions, multiple hierarchical regression technique has been utilized. As the dependent variable of the study i.e. employee retention has been conceptualized at two level so, at the organizational level satisfaction with employee retention practices have been aggregated to form an Index i.e. SERP and at individual level employee turnover intentions have been assessed. In multiple hierarchical regression technique, in step 1, the control variables had been entered in block 1 and independent dimensions of servant leadership had been entered in to block 2 in SPSS. This process had been repeated twice i.e. first for Satisfaction with employee retention practices Index SERP and second for turnover intentions (TI). The results of hierarchical multiple regression analysis to test the prediction of servant leadership dimensions on SERP and turnover intentions have been displayed in table 4.24 below. As indicated in the table 4.24 below all the dimensions of servant leadership collaboratively explained 41.1% variance in satisfaction with employee retention practices ($F = 27.688, p < .05$).

Also, the results indicate that out of eight dimensions of servant leadership studied only standing back ($\beta = .226, t = 3.721, p < .05$), accountability ($\beta = .116, t = 2.749, p < .05$), forgiveness ($\beta = .143, t = 3.355, p < .05$) and humility ($\beta = .152, t = 2.528, p < .05$) were significant predictors of satisfaction with employee retention practices. Further, the other dimensions of servant leadership i.e. empowerment ($\beta = .067, t = 1.126, p > .05$) courage ($\beta = -.031, t = -.636, p > .05$), authenticity ($\beta = .108, t = 1.903, p > .05$) and stewardship ($\beta = .035, t = .559, p > .05$) were found to be insignificant predictors of satisfaction with employee retention practices. As far the relationship between servant leadership dimensions and turnover intentions is concerned, the servant leadership dimensions explained 33.6% variance in turnover intentions ($F = 23.065, p < .05$).

Further, out of eight servant leadership dimensions only empowerment ($\beta = -.463, t = -7.523, p < .05$) and forgiveness ($\beta = -.111, t = -2.504, p < .05$) were found to be significant predictors of employee turnover intentions. The other dimensions of servant leadership i.e. standing back ($\beta = .082, t = 1.296, p > .05$), accountability ($\beta = -.053, t = -1.220, p > .05$), courage ($\beta = .013, t = .265, p > .05$), authenticity ($\beta = .090, t = .265, p > .05$), stewardship ($\beta = -.015, t = -.222, p > .05$) and humility ($\beta = .090, t = 1.439, p > .05$) were insignificant predictors of turnover intentions. Interestingly the results revealed that some dimensions of servant leadership such as standing back, accountability, forgiveness and humility were the factors that influence satisfaction

with retention practices and the other hand only empowerment and forgiveness were the significant factors to reduce employee turnover intentions. Further, courage, authenticity and stewardship as servant leadership dimensions were neither influencing satisfaction with retention practices nor reducing employee's turnover intentions. The results of multiple regression analysis provide no support for hypothesis 5 (e), 5 (f) and 5 (g) and thus could not be supported. Further, hypothesis 5 (d) receive full support from the regression results thus could not be rejected and hypothesis 5 (a), 5 (b), 5 (c) and 5 (h) were partially supported in the study.

Table 4.24: Result of Hierarchical multiple regression for testing the impact servant leadership dimensions on SERP and turnover intentions

Variable	SERP		SERP		TI		TI	
	Step 1		Step 2		Step 1		Step 2	
	β	<i>t</i>	β	<i>t</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>t</i>
Step 1: <i>Control Variables</i>								
Constant	3.699*	26.809	1.696*	10.120	5.107*	18.724	6.188	15.855*
AGE	.117*	1.988	.142*	3.061	-.017	-.328	-.030	-.630
GNDR	-.105*	.031	-.098*	-2.573	-.123*	-2.886	-.115*	-2.928
HRY	-.030	-.561	-.053	-1.250	-.093*	-2.011	-.050	-1.143
CORG	-.086	-1.668	-.062	-1.512	-.483*	-10.660	-.547*	-10.742
Step 2: <i>Independent Variables</i>								
EMP			.067	1.126			-.463*	-7.523
STB			.226*	3.721			.082	1.296
ACC			.116*	2.749			-.053	-1.220
FRG			.143*	3.355			-.111*	-2.504
CRG			-.031	-.636			.013	.265
AUT			.108	1.903			.090	.265
STW			.035	.559			-.015	-.222
HUM			.152*	2.528			.090	1.439
<i>F-Value</i>		3.059*		27.688*		36.755*		23.065*
<i>R</i> ²		.026		.426		.244		.382
Adjusted <i>R</i> ²		.018		.411		.238		.336
ΔR^2				.393*				.098*

Notes: *N* = 460, standardized beta coefficients are reported in the regression table. * *p* < .05. SERP: satisfaction with retention practices, TI: turnover intentions, Age: age of respondent, GNDR: gender, HRY: hierarchical level, CORG: current organization (public or private), EMP: empowerment, STB: standing back, ACC: accountability, FRG: forgiveness, CRG: courage, AUT: authenticity, STW: stewardship and HUM: humility.

4.5.5 Testing Hypotheses developed to address RQ6

RQ: 6 Does employee satisfaction with retention practices predicts employee turnover intentions?

Hypothesis 6(a): Satisfaction with compensation practices is negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 6(b): Satisfaction with job characteristics is negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 6(c): Satisfaction with training practices is negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 6(d): Satisfaction with career development opportunities practices is negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 6(e): Satisfaction with work-life balance practices is negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.

To test hypothesis 6 (a), 6 (b), 6 (c), 6 (d) and 6 (e) which asserts that employees' satisfaction with employee retention practices i.e. compensation, job characteristics, training, career development opportunities and work-life balance are negatively associated with turnover intentions, hierarchical multiple regression technique has been utilized. In hierarchical multiple regression technique, in step 1, the control variables had been entered in block 1 and employee retention practices had been entered in to block 2 in SPSS. The results of multiple hierarchical regression analysis to test the impact of satisfaction with retention practices on turnover intentions have been displayed in table 4.26 below. Mean, S.D and intercorrelations among employee retention practices and turnover intentions has been displayed in table 4.25 below.

As indicated in the table 4.26 below satisfaction with employee retention practices collaboratively explained 26.5% variance in turnover intentions ($F = 18.245, p < .05$). Also, the results indicate that out of five employee retention practices studied only compensation ($\beta = -.136, t = -2.532, p < .05$), training ($\beta = -.141 = -2.487, p < .05$) and career development opportunities ($\beta = .139, t = 2.595, p < .05$) were significant predictors of employee turnover intentions. Further, the other employee retention practices i.e. job characteristics ($\beta = -.029, t = -.641, p > .05$) and work-life balance ($\beta = .033, t = .751, p > .05$), were found to be insignificant predictors of employee turnover intentions. Thus, hypothesis 6 (a), (c) and (d) were supported in the study and could not be rejected and hypothesis 6 (b) and (e) were not supported in the study.

Table 4.25: Mean, S.D and intercorrelations among employee retention practices and turnover intentions

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. COMP	3.52	.68	(.92)					
2. JC	3.50	.58	.352**	(.71)				
3. TRG	3.56	.71	.559**	.322**	(.81)			
4. CD	3.38	.60	.485**	.314**	.602**	(.79)		
5. WLB	3.20	.98	.322**	.173**	.374**	.239**	(.86)	
6. TI	2.51	1.13	-.210**	-.025	-.094*	.073	-.031	(.91)

Notes: $N = 460$, ** $p < .05$, * $p < .01$, COMP = compensation, JC= job characteristics, TRG = training, CD = career development, WLB = work-life balance, TI = turnover intentions.

Table 4.26: Result of Hierarchical multiple regression for testing the impact of satisfaction with retention practices on turnover intentions

Variable	Turnover intentions (TI)		Turnover Intentions (TI)	
	Step 1		Step 2	
	β	t	B	t
Step 1: <i>Control Variables</i>				
Constant	5.107*	18.724	5.774*	12.377
Age	-.017	-.328	-.001	-.022
Gender	-.123*	-2.886	-.140*	-3.295
Hierarchy	-.093*	-2.011	-.072	-1.546
Current organization	-.483*	-10.660	-.457*	-9.671
Step 2: <i>Independent Variables</i>				
Compensation			-.136*	-2.532
Job Characteristics			-.029	-.641
Training			-.141*	-2.487
Career opportunities			.139*	2.595
Work-life balance			.033	.751
F -Value		36.755*		18.245*
R^2		.244		.279
Adjusted R^2		.238		.265
ΔR^2				.027*

Notes: $N = 460$, $p < .05$

4.5.7 Testing Hypotheses developed to address RQ7

RQ 7: Does employer branding and employee satisfaction with employee retention practices sequentially mediate the relationships between servant leadership and turnover intentions?

Hypothesis 7: Employer branding and satisfaction with employee retention practices sequentially mediate the relationship between servant leadership and employee turnover intention.

In order to test the hypothesis 7 whether employer branding and employee satisfaction with retention practices sequentially mediate the impact of servant leadership style on employee turnover intentions, the researcher performed a sequential mediation analyses (Model 6 as described in PROCESS) with bootstrap methods (Hayes, 2013) . Figure 4.1 below describes all the paths for the full process model and the coefficients are displayed in table 4.27 below. The total effect (C1) of servant leadership style on employee turnover intentions was found to be significant ($\beta = -.2047, t = - 2.2308, p <.05$), but the total direct effect (C1') without the effect of mediators was found to be non-significant ($\beta = .1718, t = 1.4585, p = .145$). The total indirect effect i.e. the sum of the specific indirect effects, was found to be significant with total indirect effect ($\beta = -.3764, t = - 4.047, p <.05$) with a 95% confidence interval between -.5657 and -.1960. Further, the specific indirect effect through employer brand perception was significant ($a1b1 = -.5475; CI = -.6990$ and $-.4224$) also, specific indirect effect through satisfaction with retention practices was significant ($a2b2 = .1100; CI = .0046$ and $.2272$).

Further, While testing for sequential multiple mediation, the specific indirect effect of servant leadership style on employee turnover intentions through both employer branding and satisfaction with employee retention practices ($a1a3b2$) was found to be significant with point estimate of .0610 and a 95% confidence interval .0052 and .1233, providing full support for hypothesis 7. Thus, the proposition that servant leadership style is a unique aspect that might lead to positive employer brand perception, which in turn might increase the satisfaction with employee retention practices, and the satisfaction with retention practices might decrease employee turnover was supported fully by the statistical analysis carried out by the researcher. Hence, the study proves that positive employer brand perception and the satisfaction with employee retention practices sequentially mediates the relationship between servant leadership style and employee turnover intentions.

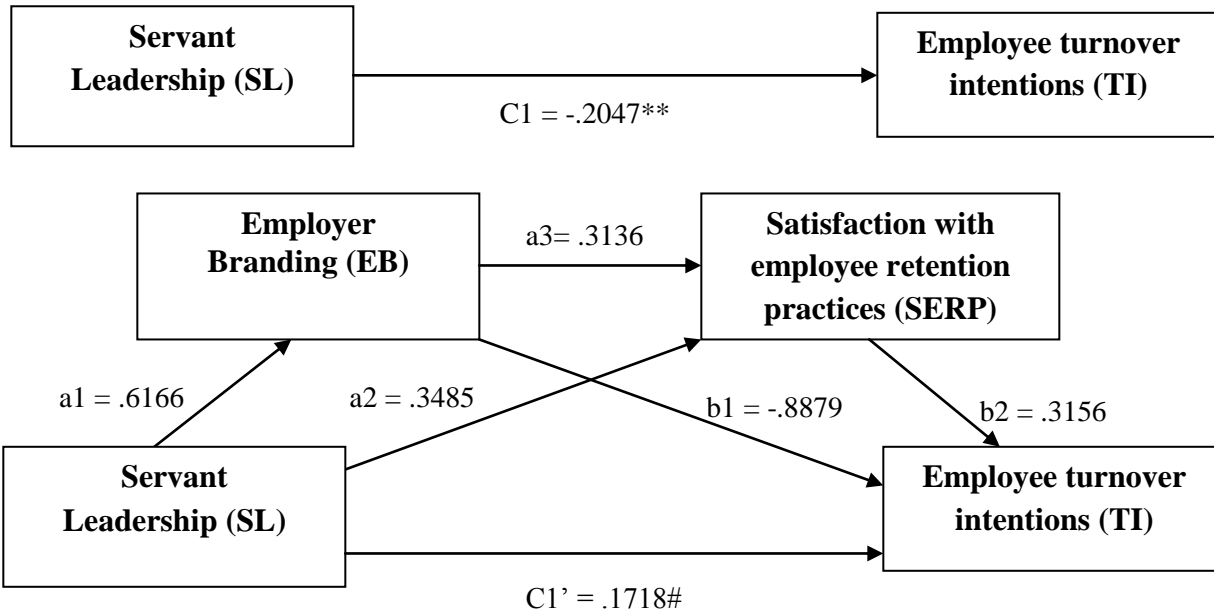


Fig. 4.1 Direct and sequential Model with Path coefficients

Table 4.27: Results of Sequential Mediation Analyses (PROCESS, Hayes, 2013)

Model 6						
Y =	TI					
X =	SL					
M1=	EB					
M2=	SERP					
Sample Size	460					
Outcome:	EB					
Model 1:	Summary					
	R	R-sq	F	Df1	Df2	P
	.6019	.3623	260.1942	1	458	.000
	Coeff	SE	t	P		
Constant	1.5685	.1384	11.3327	.000		
SL	.6166	.0382	16.1305	.000		
Outcome:	SERP					
Model 1:	Summary					
	R	R-sq	F	Df1	Df2	p
	.6814	.4644	198.0998	2	457	.000
	Coeff	SE	t	P		
Constant	1.0105	.1234	8.1889	.000		
EBP	.3136	.0368	8.5165	.000		
SL	.3485	.0377	9.2407	.447		
Outcome:	TI					

Model 1:	Summary					
	R	R-sq	F	Df1	Df2	P
	.3581	.1282	22.3543	3	456	.000
	Coeff	SE	t	p		
Constant	4.1690	.3787	11.0082	.000		
EBP	-.8879	.1136	-7.8169	.000		
SERP	.3156	.1341	2.3544	.000		
SL	.1718	.1178	1.4585	.145		
Total Effect Model						
Outcome:	TI					
Model 1:	Summary					
	R	R-sq	F	Df1	Df2	P
	.1036	.0107	4.9763	1	458	.026
	Coeff	SE	t	p		
Constant	3.2506	.3322	9.7849	.000		
SL	-.2047	.0918	-2.2308	.026		
Total, Direct and Indirect Effects						
Total Effects of X on Y						
	Effect	SE	t	P		
	-.2047	.0918	-2.2308	.026		
Direct Effects of X on Y						
	Effect	SE	t	P		
	.1718	.1178	1.4585	.145		
Indirect Effects of X on Y						
	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI		
Total	-.3764	.0930	-.5657	-.1960		
Ind1:	-.5475	.0718	-.6990	-.4224		
Ind2:	.0610	.0303	.0052	.1233		
Ind3:	.1100	.0565	.0046	.2272		
Indirect Effect Key						
Ind1:	SL → EBP → TI					
Ind2:	SL → EBP → SERP → TI					
Ind3:	SL → SERP → TI					
Analysis Notes						
Bootstrap samples for bias corrected bootstrap confidence intervals: 5000						
Level of Confidence for all confidence intervals in output : 95.00						

Notes: SL= Servant Leadership, EB= Employer Branding, SERP= satisfaction with employee retention practices, TI= Turnover Intentions, Coeff= Coefficient, Boot LLCI: Lower Limit confidence interval and BOOT ULCI: Upper limit confidence interval.

4.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter presented the detailed analyses and results of the study. Further, the details of statistical analyses such as t-test, one-way ANOVA, multiple regression and conditional process analysis have been provided to achieve the objectives of the study. Also, the details of data screening, data preparation, scale validation and assessment of common method bias have been provided. The results obtained in the study are summarized in table 4.28 below.

Table 4.28: Summary of Results obtained in the study

Hypotheses	Results
Hypothesis 1(a): Employer branding dimensions (Interest value, social value, application value, development value and economic value) as perceived by existing employees working in Indian organizations will vary depending upon their age.	Partially supported
Hypothesis 1(b): Employer branding as dimensions (Interest value, social value, application value, development value and economic value) as perceived by existing employees working in Indian organizations will vary depending upon their gender.	Not supported
Hypothesis 1(c): Employer branding dimensions (Interest value, social value, application value, development value and economic value) as perceived by existing employees working in Indian organizations will vary depending upon their hierarchical level (Junior, middle and senior level).	Not supported
Hypothesis 1(d): Employer branding dimensions (Interest value, social value, application value, development value and economic value) as perceived by existing employees working in Indian organizations will vary depending upon the organizational sector (Public and Private) they work for.	Partially supported
Hypothesis 2(a): Employees' perception of servant leadership dimensions (Empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, courage, authenticity, stewardship and humility) will vary depending upon their age.	Partially supported
Hypothesis 2(b): Employees' perception of servant leadership dimensions (Empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, courage, authenticity, stewardship and humility) will vary depending upon their gender.	Not supported
Hypothesis 2(c): Employees' perception of servant leadership dimensions (Empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, courage, authenticity, stewardship and humility) will vary depending upon their hierarchical level (Junior, middle and senior level).	Partially supported

Hypothesis 2(d): Employees' perception of servant leadership dimensions (Empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, courage, authenticity, stewardship and humility) will vary depending upon the organizational sector (Public and Private) they work for.	Partially supported
Hypothesis 3 (a): Employee satisfaction with retention practices (Compensation, job characteristics, training, career opportunities and work-life balance) will vary depending upon their age.	Partially supported
Hypothesis 3 (b): Employee satisfaction with retention practices (Compensation, job characteristics, training, career opportunities and work-life balance) will vary depending upon their gender.	Partially supported
Hypothesis 3 (c): Employee satisfaction with retention practices (Compensation, job characteristics, training, career opportunities and work-life balance) will vary depending upon their hierarchical level (Junior, middle and senior level).	Partially supported
Hypothesis 3 (d): Employee satisfaction with retention practices (Compensation, job characteristics, training, career opportunities and work-life balance) will vary depending upon their organization type (Public or private).	Partially supported
Hypothesis 4: Employer branding positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.	Supported
Hypothesis 4(a): Interest value is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.	Not supported
Hypothesis 4(b): Social value is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.	Partially supported
Hypothesis 4(c): Development value is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.	Partially supported
Hypothesis 4(d): Application value is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.	Partially supported
Hypothesis 4(e): Economic value is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.	Partially supported
Hypothesis 5: Servant Leadership positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.	Partially Supported
Hypothesis 5(a): Empowerment is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.	Partially supported
Hypothesis 5(b): Standing back is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.	Partially supported
Hypothesis 5(c): Accountability is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with	Partially supported

employee turnover intentions.	
Hypothesis 5(d): Forgiveness is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.	Supported
Hypothesis 5(e): Courage is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.	Not supported
Hypothesis 5(f): Authenticity is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.	Not supported
Hypothesis 5(g): Stewardship is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.	Not supported
Hypothesis 5(h): Humility is positively associated to satisfaction with employee retention practices and negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.	Partially supported
Hypothesis 6(a): Satisfaction with compensation practices is negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.	Supported
Hypothesis 6(b): Satisfaction with job characteristics is negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.	Not supported
Hypothesis 6(c): Satisfaction with training practices is negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.	Supported
Hypothesis 6(d): Satisfaction with career development opportunities practices is negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.	Supported
Hypothesis 6(e): Satisfaction with work-life balance practices is negatively associated with employee turnover intentions.	Not supported
Hypothesis 7: Employer branding and satisfaction with employee retention practices sequentially mediate the relationship between servant leadership and employee turnover intention.	Supported

DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

The major aim of the study was to investigate the impact of employer branding and servant leadership style on employee's satisfaction with retention practices and employees' turnover intentions. The basic rationale behind conducting this study was to extend the research on employer branding as a vital human resource strategy to demonstrate its effect in organizations in terms of enhancing employee retention rates. Also, the study aims to continue research in the field of employer branding and its influence in organizational settings along with generating awareness about its importance among academics for future research. The study further seeks to extend the areas of study mentioned above by proposing and testing a model that integrates an interdisciplinary organizational variable i.e. employer brand that may emerge from a unique attribute of "service" as the core value of an organization.

To achieve this, the servant leadership style is emerging as an organizational phenomenon that helps an organization portray and communicate a positive organizational image as a unique employer brand (Zhang et al., 2012) among existing and potential employees and helps influence outcomes of employee behaviour such as perceived employee retention and turnover intentions and disengagement through role modeling and positive social exchange (Hunter et al., 2013). Thus, the main rationale of the study was to investigate and determine the ways in which servant leadership style influences an employee's satisfaction with retention practices with further have an impact on employee's withdrawal cognitions i.e. turnover intentions by building a positive organizational image as an employer brand in the minds of existing employees and by creating an environment where employees trust the people they work for.

5.2 Accomplishment of objectives of the study

5.2.1 Accomplishment of objective 1 of the study

To study the employer branding perception of employees working in selected Indian organizations. The results revealed that the overall perception of a employer branding is above average as perceived by Indian employees ($M = 3.77$). This meant that Indian employees felt that their organizations have a positive employer brand. Further, the employees' perception with respect to employer branding had also been assessed on five dimensions. The employees have rated the various dimensions of an employer brand depending upon the presence of various attributes related

to these dimensions in their organizations. In the results, it has been observed that employees feel that social value is important and its attributes are widely present to a very great extent whereas interest value associated with employer branding and its various attributes are less prevailing in Indian organizations. This meant that employees in Indian organizations feel that they are in an environment that is full of fun, where they possess good relationships with their colleagues and superiors, having supporting and encouraging colleagues. This finding is interesting as the study conducted by Budhwar and Singh (2008) revealed that social relations played an important role in the management of human resources in India. This is also supported by the findings of a recent study which indicates that because of relatively less professionalism in Asian countries like India, social relationships were expected to have a stronger influence on employee outcomes (Frenkel, Sanders & Bednall, 2013). Another justification to this finding is also reflected in the policies and practices followed by the great place to work in India. For instance the great places to work in India like Google, Intel, SAP Labs commonly reported that open culture, informal working environment, culture that depletes power distance between the higher and the lower level positions, emotional support to the employees makes an organization a better place to work where social value of employer branding is encouraged and flourished by top management (Chaturvedi et al., 2014). Further, interest value associated with an employer brand has been found be less prevalent in Indian organizations. This finding might have emerged due to the influence of large sample size from public sector organizations. Although the mean scores for interest value is not varying much between public and private sector organizations however, in public sector organizations the procedures and processes to work flow are commonly framed and developed by top management and employees have little to say in the decision making process. It could probably a reason for the low importance to interest value associated with an employer brand.

Development value associated with employer brand is another dimension that Indian employees feel that has been given importance by organizations. The importance to the development value for employees by organizations is due to the fact that organizations understand that talent will stay with the organizations if they take care of the career advancement of employees. This finding is in alignment with previous research study by DiPietro and Milman (2008) which revealed that career advancement linked with development value of an employer brand is one of the important factors to enhance employee retention. Further, application value and economic value associated with an employer brand have also been reported as crucial by Indian organizations. It is also well elaborated in the policies and practices of Indian organizations. For

instance, Intel India is known for the practice of providing challenging work to their employees and employees are encouraged to challenge old assumptions of doing work and providing them the abundance opportunities to continuously learn and grow (Chaturvedi et al., 2014). Further, the economic value importance in Indian organizations can be well explained by the continuous changes in the pay systems of the organizations through pay commissions that focus upon bringing changes in the pay structure depending upon the changes in various standards of living and increasing inflation. The public organizations have advantage over private sector organizations in terms of higher salaries offered by Indian government. But the private organizations too are trying to bring the pay level at par with the public organizations. There are some private organizations that may also give higher salaries than public sector organizations but the number of such private organizations is limited.

5.2.1.1 Perceived employer branding and employee's age

While examining the impact of employees' age on the dimensions of employer branding, it was found that only interest value, social value and development value associated with an employee brand varied with employees' age and the other dimensions i.e. application value and economic value did not vary with employees' age. The differences in the perception of interest value as perceived by the employees in different age group may be due to the fact that employees in younger age group i.e. 21-25 are more inclined towards their personal goals rather than interested in what organizations does to increase its market worth. On the other hand the employees in the age group of above 45 have attained the higher level position in the organizations and have possibly devoted much time with the organizations. Their position in the organizations demands them to continuously bring change in the existing systems of the work to increase the productivity and market share in the industry. Also, the results revealed that the significant differences in the perception of employees with respect to interest value lie between the employees in the age group of 31-35, 36-40 and above 45. The employees in the age group of 31-35 and 36-40 almost have same kind of perception with respect to interest value as these employees are in the middle stage of their careers and employees who were in above 45 age category perceive interest value importance to be higher in organizations. This may be due to the fact that employees at senior level positions are involved in the decision making in the organizations and these are the individuals those are more aware about the organization's future plans and possibly these are the people those took decisions on collaborations to enhance interest value by enhancing productivity of special products and services as required by customers (Ojha, 2014). Further, employees at senior level in order to

take informed decision from the alternative (Mahdavi, Heidarzade, Sadeghpour-Gildeh, & Mahdavi-Amiri, 2009) take necessary information from the external environment (Kim & Im, 2008) to take care of the changing pattern of customer's needs. On the other hand employees in the starting careers or in the middle stages of their careers are more involved in the implementation of day to day work flow which limits their ability to perceive the organization's future challenges and courses of action to overcome such challenges. The finding is supported by the previous research study by Alniaçık and Alniaçık (2012) which revealed that employees in the older age group were more attracted towards the organizations that produce innovative products and services in comparison to younger employees who might prefer the market value attached to the employer.

In terms of social value associated with an employer brand, the significant differences have been observed between the employees in the age group of 21-25, 36-40 and above 45. Interestingly the employees in the age group of 21-25 and above 45 possess the similar perceptions with respect to social value related to employer brand. It was found that employees who are in age group of 21-25 and above 45 have given the higher importance to social value in comparison to employees in the age group of 36-40. The justification of such observation lies in the changing work culture of the organizations. Most of the organizations in India have started the concept of reverse mentoring where senior level employees feel happy to learn from the junior level employees about new technologies to do the work. Gone are the days when the power distance between the superior and subordinates was higher. The organizations today are developing efforts to reduce the power distance by following the western ways of doing work. One such example of workplace is Hotel Marriott in India which by following the international American culture depleted the power distance in the organization (Chaturvedi et al., 2014). Also, building age friendly social culture in organizations further results in embracing diversity, enhancing organizational learning and reducing the cost of training and retraining (Broughan, 2013). The senior employees can also enhance the organizational human capital by providing trainings to the younger employees and sharing their experiences. Also, literature supports the fact that older people are more satisfied in their social relationships (Luong, Charles & Fingerma, 2011). Further, the literature also suggests that Gen X and Y shared similar motivations for socialization (Hartijasti, 2013).

Development value associated with an employer brand also differs according to the employees' age groups. It has been found that employees in the age groups of 21-25, 36-40 and above 45 have varied perception of development value. Employees in the age group of 21-25 have lower mean scores for development value in comparison to employees in the age group of 41-45

and above 45. This meant that younger employees were not very convinced with the development value given by their employer in comparison the older employees were much appreciating the development value. This finding is interesting in the sense that the changing expectations of the 21st century employees are continuously demanding organizations to be pro-active in bringing organizational changes. This is one of the most common reasons that the organizations which do not adapt themselves to meet the requirement of 21st century employees lose the talented employees to the competing organizations. On the other hand employees in 41-45 and above 45 age groups are happier with the development value associated with their employer brand. It is due to the fact that these employees have crossed their mid-career stages and they are not keen to shift jobs and do not find any relevance in considering the organizations as a platform for future employment. Also for these employees the career enhancing experience will not carry much value as they are not struggling for changing jobs whereas employees in their early career stages always look for better career development opportunities to attain higher growth in their careers.

Now the research divert the attention towards the non-significant results which asserts that application value and economic value associated with employer brand did not vary with employees' age. It has been found in the study that employees in different age groups have similar perception with respect to application value and economic value attached to their employer brands. This finding is in alignment with the previous research study which highlighted that employees irrespective of their age perceived that whatever they have learnt at their college or in the training program at organizations is totally different from what they experiences in real time job environment (Biswas & Suar, 2013). Further acceptance and belongingness as attributes of application value have also been perceived as same as the time today is not to enhance employee's stay with the organizations but it is to take maximum output from them for whatever time they stay with the organizations. Also, employees did not differ in terms of perceiving organization as humanitarian as employees might felt that the primary motive of today's organizations is profit making and whatever they do for corporate social responsibility is due to the legal framework established in India. As far as economic value is concerned employees possess similar perception irrespective of their age. The employees in Indian organizations feel that economic value attached to an employer brand is almost same for all the employees in terms of job security, compensation package and good promotion opportunities. Also, it is supported by the findings obtained by previous research study which indicated that for people in different age groups pay was not more important aspect in terms of employer brand perception. The people in the different age groups

such as less than 26 years, between 26-30 years and 31-35 years preferred challenging work environment and career development opportunities over economic value associated with an employer brand (Sutherland, Torricelli, & Karg, 2002). Also, the findings by Glass (2007) revealed that employees in Gen Y are ready to work at low packages if the workplace provides better work-life balance. This is one of the reasons that employees in different age group might have same preferences for application value and economic value attached with an employer brand.

5.2.1.2 Perceived employer branding and employee's gender

Further, while investigating the impact of employees' gender on the dimensions of employer branding it was found that there exist no differences among the perception of males and females with respect to dimensions of employer branding. This result provide somewhat different finding and is not in alignment with previous studies. As per the study conducted by Tuzuner and Yuksel (2009) males and females have different perceptions in terms of their work place preferences where males preferred to work in an environment full of competition and provide good compensation packages on the other hand females preferred a working environment that is non-competitive. The finding of this study is justified in the sense that perception differences could not be found as the sample of the study is male dominated where number of male respondents (387) participating in the survey is more than the number of female participants (73). Literature provides some support on this finding where very small differences have been reported between males and females in terms of their preference with respect to employer branding (Arachchige & Robertson, 2011).

Another reason for the similar perceptions with respect to employer branding in terms of gender is indicated by the age of the respondents with a majority of respondents lie in the age group of 21-25 and 26-30. The employees in these age groups are young and share similar thought process which ultimately shapes their preferences about employer branding in similar fashion irrespective of their gender. Further, literature suggests that female employees are not differing in their perception with respect to job attributes in comparison to male employees as the gender barriers declined over a period of time (Konard, Ritchie, Lieb, & Corrigall, 2000) and female employees are getting same level of jobs without being discriminating at workplaces. Similar perception of males and females with respect to the dimensions of employer branding is also attributed to the fact that employees in Indian organizations did not feel discriminating on the basis of their gender. For instance, the Indian organizations like American Express (Chaturvedi et al., 2014) are coming up with the practices to develop leadership programmes specifically for women

to provide them higher career growth and achieve the top leadership position in the organizations. Also, the study on great place to work for provide evidence that although males to females ratio in Indian organizations is less however, the female employees are getting same level of training, opportunities and mentoring to learn in their careers and attain higher positions in the organizations.

5.2.1.3 Perceived employer branding and employees' hierarchical level

The results revealed that there are no significant differences among employees' hierarchical levels and their perception with respect to dimensions of employer branding. Although literature provide empirical evidence on the significant differences between employees' hierarchical level and their perception of work place attributes (Payne & Mansfield, 1973; Corley & Gioia, 2004). First, the social value associated with an employer brand is not varying significantly across employees working at different hierarchical levels. The reason for such a finding is due to the fact that in Indian organizations the social relations play an important role in management of human resources (Budhwar & Singh, 2008). The employees at different hierarchical levels enjoy good inter personal relationships with superiors and subordinates. Employees feel that they are working with supporting and encouraging colleagues and can ask for any help in case of adversities. This possibly is because of the reason that India ranks high on humane orientation where people care for each other and are always ready to provide help inherently and leaders are more inclined towards relationship orientation and helping nature (Chhokar, 2007). The differences could have been observed if the distance of power between superiors and subordinates was much higher but here in Indian organizations social relationships are dominating the power distance between junior level employees and higher level employees. Further, the sample statistics revealed that a majority of employees were at junior and middle level in the organizations. It also indicated why the differences in the social values have not been observed as the employees at these levels are in continuous interaction with each other for the smooth functioning of routine tasks.

Further, interest value did not differ across hierarchical levels because the people irrespective of their ages and levels feel challenging environment and exciting work environment are important for them (Sutherland, Torricelli, & Karg, 2002). Also, employees irrespective of their levels feel that the organizations are making use of their creativity to produce high quality and innovative products and services and understand the importance of developing new advanced systems to cater to the needs of global markets (Mahdavi, Cho, & Shirazi, 2007) and bringing rapid innovations (Mahdavi, Mohebbi, Cho, & Shafaei, 2010). The examples of practices followed by Indian

organizations also revealed this phenomenon. As per the findings by Chaturvedi et al. (2014) the practices like providing challenging work environment with a combination of thought leadership and an environment where employees at all levels are encouraged to challenge old assumptions of doing work make employees create a difference and continuously learn in the process without the hierarchical barriers. In terms of development value and application value the employees at all levels perceive that organizations provide them same attributes with respect to these values. This finding is interesting in a sense that literature highlighted that development value perception for older employees at higher levels is higher in comparison to younger employees at junior levels as employees at higher levels wish to increase their market worth (Tornow, 1993). It was also suggested in literature that employees irrespective of their age and hierarchical levels give equal importance to development value (Edgar & Geare, 2004) because employees at higher levels might feel that in order to increase market worth in comparison to junior level employees training and job security in future employment is derived from development value and application value attached to an employer brand. It is because of this reason no differences have been observed between the perceptions of employees at different hierarchical levels with respect to these dimensions of employer brand. Finally economic value associated with an employer brand was also not varying across hierarchical levels because the employees at junior level are ready to work at low packages if the workplace provides better work-life balance. This are some of the reasons that employees in different hierarchical levels might have same preferences for economic value attached with an employer brand.

5.2.1.4 Perceived employer branding and employees' organizational sector

While investigating the impact of employees' organizational sector on employer branding dimensions only economic value differ significantly between employees working in public and private sector organizations. For other dimensions no significant differences have been observed. In terms of economic value associated with an employer brand public sector employees feel more positive in comparison to private sector organizations. This finding receive full support from existing literature that pay systems in public sector organizations are more based on seniority and are much higher in comparison to private sector organizations (Budhwar & Boyne, 2004). On the other hand existing literature also supported the fact that the private sector employees are more satisfied with the pay satisfaction in comparison to public sector organizations (Bordia & Blau, 1998). The higher mean score received for economic value attached with an employer brand of public sector organization is due to the fact that majority of the public sector organizations in the

sample comprises of the organizations that attained the rank of Navratan companies due to which these organizations tend to have more salaries and job security in comparison to private sector organizations. Also, the existing literature claimed that the organizations in public sector tend to follow the seniority based pay structure which is a legal requirement in Indian public sector organizations whereas in private sector competency-based remuneration is prevalent (Khatri, Fern, & Budhwar, 2001). Further in terms of interest value, social value, development value and application value no significant differences have been observed between employees working in public and private sector organizations. Similar perception of employees in both public sector and private sector organizations with respect to development value and application value is interesting as existing literature support this finding. The results of the study conducted by Budhwar and Boyne (2004) revealed that training and development practices that enhance development and application value of an employer brand are similar in both public and private sector organizations and organizations in both the sectors are spending high on developing the human capital. The similar importance to development and application value by both public and private sector organizations is further supported by the previous research studies that claimed employee development in Indian organizations has gained increased importance (Budhwar, 2000; Balaji et al., 1998). Finally the social value associated with an employer brand also did not vary across public and private sector organizations. It is evident that in both public and private sector organizations the communication with employees takes place through immediate supervisors (Budhwar & Boyne, 2004). Further, the organizational supervisors are the one who represent the organizations in front of subordinates and this practice is common in both public and private sector organizations (Whitener, 1997). The main channel through which communication flows in both public and private sector organizations is through immediate supervisors and is ultimate source of enhancing social value for employees. Particularly sharing knowledge with employees is central to effective management (Cho, Li, & Su, 2007). Further literature supported that strategies of communication in interpersonal relationships significantly improve managerial effectiveness (Cho, Park, Su, 2008). In a study conducted in Public sector undertakings (PSUs) of India, Sharma & Kamalanabhan (2012) concluded that internal corporate communication positively impact internal branding which further enhance brand identification, loyalty and commitment among employees. It is because of this reason that employees in both public and private sector organizations possess similar perception with respect to social value associated with an employer brand. As far as interest value is concerned employees in both public and private sector organizations possess

similar perception. The employees feel that employers in both public and private sector organizations are innovative and concentrate on producing highly quality and innovative products and services. This trend has also been highlighted in the literature where India has become the power to produce products and services to the markets globally (Altenburg, Schmitz, & Stamm, 2008) which persuades the Indian public and private sector organizations to move from just production to innovation. There was also a time where public sector organizations were lagging behind private sector organizations in bringing innovation but the findings from existing literature revealed that public sector organizations have produced a large number of innovations (Borins, 2001).

5.2.2 Accomplishment of objective 2 of the study

To study the servant leadership style as perceived by employees working in selected Indian organizations.

The results revealed that servant leadership in Indian organizations has been expressed on an above average level as perceived by Indian employees ($M = 3.57$). Further, the employees' perception with respect to servant leadership style had also been assessed on independent eight dimensions. The employees have rated the various dimensions of servant leadership depending upon the style followed by their immediate supervisors in organizations. In the results, it has been observed that employees gave higher score to their supervisors on the empowering characteristics of servant leadership. This meant that in Indian organizations employees believe that their supervisors encourage them to use their talents, provide them abundant opportunities to learn new skills and authorize them to take decisions. The higher score on empowerment characteristics of leadership is due to the fact that Indian organizations post-liberalization have understood that they can enjoy competitive edge over others by making use of their employees' entrepreneurial skills to create and innovate and this is only possible when people in organizations feel empowered (Bhatnagar, 2007). This specifically is more prevalent when organizational culture is in transforming stage (Hartijasti & Toar, 2015). Forgiveness on the other hand as a servant leadership characteristic is varying between neutral to agree score on employees' perception of their supervisors. This means that for some employees the forgiveness attitude by supervisors is neutral and for some forgiveness by supervisors is existing at workplace. Employees are of opinion that it is not very easy for their supervisors to forget things that went wrong in past and the supervisors usually do not possess soft attitude towards employees. This finding is not in alignment with previous studies. Previous

studies suggested that forgiving behavior is in the Indian value systems and has been highlighted in all the religions practices in India (Gangdev, 2009). So forgiving others should be strong value for leaders in India but at the same time forgiveness as a leadership attribute is difficult to attain and possibly a virtue which is least understood (Cameron & Caza, 2002). Also, forgiveness is not a social phenomenon; it varies from individual to individual as it occurs within an individual (Worthington, 2001) as his/her inherent desire to forgive others. For Indian managers forgiving as a leadership attribute may not be highly practiced because of the high power distance between superiors and subordinates. Also, the relationships between superior and subordinates are likely to be one-sided where subordinates rely on superiors for advice and directions and superiors are highly authoritative (Saini & Budhwar, 2004). The findings of the current study also highlighted the same pattern in terms of forgiving subordinates.

5.2.2.1 Perceived servant leadership and employee's age

While investigating the impact of employees' age on servant leadership dimensions the results revealed that from all the eight dimensions of servant leadership only accountability differs significantly depending upon employees' age and other dimensions did not vary with employees' age. Accountability as a servant leadership characteristic has been perceived differently by employees with respect to their age groups. Significant differences had been found between the employees in age group of 21-25 ($M = 3.92$) and 36-40 ($M = 3.44$), between 26-30 ($M = 3.81$) and 36-40 ($M = 3.44$), between 36-40 ($M = 3.44$) and 41-45 ($M = 3.99$). It is evident from the results that younger employees feel that their supervisors held them accountable for their tasks more in comparison to the employees in the age group of 36-40. On the other hand employees in the age group of 41-45 feel that they are held more accountable than employees in the age group of 36-40. The finding is in alignment with the previous research studies by Parolini (2005). According to this study the accountability behavior of servant leaders are perceived by younger age and older age employees in comparison to the middle aged employees. Employees in the younger age and older age felt that they were held more accountable than middle aged employees. This finding is further supported by the research study by McCuddy and Cavin (2009). Another justification for this finding is that managers control the behaviors of younger employees by directing them how to do the jobs and also monitor their performance to avoid any problems in future (Miles & Creed, 1995), which ultimately is a reason why younger employees feel that they were held accountable for their tasks more than the employees in the age group of 36-40. On the other hand employees in

older age group might be serving on senior level jobs which ultimately bring authority, responsibility and accountability to perform on various projects.

The other dimensions of servant leadership did not vary with employees' age. Empowerment as perceived by employees in varied age groups was found to be similar. This meant employee in Indian organizations feels that their supervisors empower them all without discriminating on the basis of their age group. Employees in the older age groups feel empowered because of their longer stay in the organizations and through their experience they have learnt that competence and performance are the result of their efforts and persistence (Schneider & Bowen, 1993). On the other hand the younger employees also feel that they were being empowered equally by their supervisors. It is because of the fact that younger employees' ability to adapt the change and ability to innovate is fast and possess high energy levels and are more flexible and hence feel more empowered in the organizations (Lin, 2002).

Further, perception with respect to standing back also did not vary with employees' age. But the mean scores obtained in the study revealed that employees irrespective of their age group felt that their supervisor's standing back behavior is almost neutral in Indian organizations. This meant that in some situations supervisors gave credits to the employees whenever it was due and enjoyed the success of his/her subordinate more than his/her own success. It is majorly because of Indian workplace values have always emphasized on respecting the superiors at work, obeying their orders and the obedience is practiced by authority of the superior position and not on rational basis (Budhwar & Debrah, 2009) so, even if leaders did not stand back to employees, employees in lieu of respect and also obedience did not possess aggression against supervisors. Further forgiveness as servant leadership characteristic did not vary across employees in different age groups. The findings revealed that employees felt that the forgiving nature of their supervisors is similar and supervisor's behavior of forgiving others varied from a neutral to an agreement category. This meant that employees felt that sometimes their supervisors forgave them and sometimes this behavior of forgiveness has not been shown. The justification of such behavior of supervisors can be traced from the demographic profiles of immediate supervisors. The current study reported that a majority of supervisors were falling in the category of 46-55 (128) followed by 36-45 (128). Findings revealed that supervisors in the older age were more willing to forgive their subordinates in comparison to younger subordinates. This finding is supported by the previous research studies that claimed older adults to be more forgiving in comparison to younger adults (Mullet & Girard, 2000; Krause & Ellison, 2003; Steiner, Allemand, & McCullough, 2011).

Further discussing about courage as servant leadership characteristics it was found that it did not vary across employees in varied age groups. Employees in Indian organizations felt that their supervisor's courageousness varied from neutral to an agree category. It is because of the reason that India as society believe in high uncertainty avoidance where individuals avoid taking risks in their position in the organizations. This is further attributed by the findings of Hofstede (1980) which revealed that India stands high on the cultural dimension of uncertainty avoidance where individuals do not break company rules even when subordinates feel that breaking rules is in the interest of organizations. It is because of this reason that employees irrespective of their age possess similar perception with respect to courage dimension of servant leadership. Perception of authenticity also did not vary with employees' age group. Employees in Indian organizations felt that their supervisors were open about their limitations and weaknesses and always show true feelings to their subordinates. This similar perception is held by the employees of all age groups. Age has insignificant impact on authentic behaviour of supervisors. It is supported by previous study on talent management in India which claimed that the foundation of engaged workforce is a result of authentic behaviour that senior management and all supervisors possess to treat their employees (Bhatnagar, 2007) irrespective of their age.

Finally stewardship and humility also did not vary across employees in varied age groups. Stewardship at workplace is more inclined towards building employer and employee relationships healthy (Waters, Sevick Bortree, & Tindall, 2013). The study found that practice of stewardship in organizations was found to be significant in improving employer-employee relationships and organizational members should focus on how stewardship can cultivate strong relationships with employees of an organization. It is because of this reason that employee perception of stewardship dimensions of servant leadership did not vary with their age as employees felt that stewardship behavior of supervisors are for social relationships in organizations. Further Indian managers were found to give more preference to social relations over organizational outcomes. This is also supported by the findings of a recent study which indicates that because of relatively less professionalism in Asian countries like India, social relationships were expected to have a stronger influence on employee outcomes (Frenkel, Sanders & Bednall, 2013). The study conducted by Budhwar & Singh (2008) further revealed that Indian managers highly ranked: (i) the significance of cultural assumptions that influenced the way employees thought about, and perceived the organization, (ii) conventional Indian values, standards of customs and behaviors, and (iii) how managers socialized in India. Humility behaviour in leaders has also not perceived differently by

the employees in varied age group. Employees in different age groups in Indian organizations felt that their supervisors show concern for them and learn from their mistakes. It is in alignment with the previous study which claimed that Indian leaders score high on humility dimension of servant leadership in comparison to the USA (Carroll & Patterson, 2014). Specifically behaviour of humility expressed by leader is due to the fact that leaders want to increase follower's performance, satisfaction, engagement and reducing turnover (Owens, Johnson, & Mitchell, 2013).

5.2.2.2 Perceived servant leadership and employee's gender

Further, in the research analysis, it was found that the dimensions of servant leadership did not vary between males and females working in Indian organizations. This research finding is primarily due to the small representation of female respondents in comparison to male respondents in the study. Existing studies revealed that there exists a significant difference among males and females with respect to empowerment they receive in the organizations (Finegan, & Laschinger, 2001). Although the perception of Indian employees with respect to empowerment did not differ significantly however both males and females gave highest score to empowerment in comparison to other dimensions of servant leadership. This meant that employees in Indian organizations believe that their supervisors encourage them to use their talents, come up with new ideas, and provide them opportunities to learn new skills. This finding is interesting in the sense that Indian organizations in lieu of pressure by competitive business environment are starting focusing more on employee empowerment (Pareek, 1997; Ramaswamy & Schiphorst, 2000) as it results in increasing organizational effectiveness (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). Further this study also revealed that employees felt empowered in Indian organizations and gender did not influence the perception of employees with respect to empowerment (Ramaswamy & Schiphorst, 2000).

In terms of standing back, employees irrespective of gender differences perceive this dimension invariant. This meant that employees both males and females perceive that their supervisors possess similar attributes of standing back dimension of servant leadership. This finding is not in alignment with previous research studies as previous research claimed that there exist significant differences between males and females in terms of their supervisors giving credit to them when it was due and stands back and give necessary credits to subordinates (Heilman & Haynes, 2005). This is really interesting because Indian leaders give priority to its people. It was found in a study that Indian leaders give least priority to shareholders. The people like Azim Premji, Sunil Bharti Mittal and Anand Mahindra who themselves are the largest shareholders of the company do not give preference to themselves and gave high preference to guiding and

teaching their employees to excel (Cappelli, Singh, Singh, & Useem, 2010). It is because of this reason that Indian employees felt that their leaders stand back themselves and enjoyed the subordinates' success more than his/her own. Further supervisor's accountability behavior as perceived by both males and females was found to be invariant. This meant that employees were of the view that their supervisors hold them accountable for their tasks and responsibilities irrespective of their gender. The reason for such a finding is due to the prevalence of job autonomy to both males and females at workplace. Supervisors provide necessary powers to employees for successful completion of the tasks assigned. This is also supported by the findings in literature that job autonomy did not differ among males and females at workplaces (Alder, 1993). Supervisors if provide job autonomy to the employees it is expected that the employees should be held accountable for their tasks and targets in the organizations. As far as forgiveness at workplace is concerned males and females both felt that their supervisors possess similar attributes of forgiving subordinates and there exist no significant difference among their perception. This finding is in alignment with the previous studies on forgiveness and gender which claimed that men and women did not differ in the perception of forgiveness at workplace (Mellor, Fung, & binti Mamat, 2012). This finding is justified in the sense that literature suggest that forgiving behavior of leaders differ in collective and individualistic societies (Hook et al., 2009; Kadima Kadiangandu et al., 2007, & von Feigenblatt (2010). India is a country that stands on the collectivist dimensions of national culture (Hofstede, 1983) and in the collectivist societies individuals place high importance to interdependence and one's idea of self is developed by one's relationships with others and not by independence and individuality (Hui & Chau, 2009). Further forgiveness at workplace should be considered as a tool to repair and maintain social harmony for achieving inner peace (Hook et al. 2009). It is because of this attribute of Indian national culture that employees in India organizations did not differ significantly in their perception with respect to forgiveness as servant leadership dimension.

Further the courage dimension of servant leadership received lower score form both males (M = 3.47) and females (M = 3.43) in Indian organizations. But the mean score given to courage dimension did not differ significantly among males and females. This meant that employees felt that their supervisors were not very courageous to take risks at their position in organizations. This finding is primarily due to the fact that although it was expected that industrial organizational system of west would bring change from hierarchical structure to a more egalitarian structure where authority lies with the employees in the organizations. But this expected shift did not result

in such a huge change because of socio-cultural factors (Sinha & Sinha, 1990). These socio-cultural factors in turn result in a management style which is more focused on softer style of management where uncertainties are highly avoided and risk taking is not prevalent in national culture (Hofstede, 1983). So, when supervisors are not authorised to take decision on their own because of highly centralized systems in India (Budhwar & Sparrow, 1997) the risk taking capacity of these supervisors highly depends upon self. It is because of this reason that supervisors at their position with minimum authorities were not perceived as courageous by their subordinates. Finally perception of authenticity, stewardship and humility behavior of supervisors also did not vary significantly between males and females. The importance of authenticity in Indian organizations is well justified because of rising number of corporate scandal like Satyam, which created a strong need for a new perspective of leadership that inculcate authenticity (Cooper, Scandura, & Schriesheim, 2005). The employees in Indian organizations felt that their supervisors without considered the gender biases expressed their true feeling and were well aware of their limitations and weaknesses.

5.2.2.3 Perceived servant leadership and employee's hierarchical level

While investigating the impact of employees' hierarchical level on servant leadership dimensions it was found that only stewardship dimensions was significantly varying between employees' hierarchical levels. Further, empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, courage, authenticity and humility did not vary with employees' hierarchical levels.

5.2.2.4 Perceived servant leadership and employee's organizational sector

While investigating the impact of employees' organizational sector on servant leadership dimensions it was found that only standing back dimension was significantly varying between employees' organizational sector. Further, empowerment, accountability, forgiveness, courage, authenticity, stewardship and humility did not vary with employees' hierarchical levels.

5.2.3 Accomplishment of objective 3 of the study

To study the satisfaction with retention practices and turnover intentions of employees working in selected Indian organizations.

The results revealed that employees in Indian organization were satisfied at an above average level (M= 3.47) with retention practices and also shown lower turnover intentions (M = 2.51). The employees' satisfaction with respect to retention practices had also been assessed on five practices. The employees have rated the satisfaction level with various retention practices depending upon the presence of various attributes related to these practices in their organizations. The results of the

study revealed that out of the five retention practices studied employees in Indian organizations reported that they were satisfied with the training practices ($M = 3.56$) of organizations followed by compensation ($M = 3.52$), job characteristics ($M = 3.50$) whereas career development opportunities ($M = 3.38$) and work-life balance ($M = 3.20$) as retention practices received low satisfaction score. This meant that employees felt that training practices, compensation and job characteristics policies followed by their organizations were a source of satisfaction for them whereas career development opportunities and work-life balance practices were not that satisfactory. This finding is crucial and important in the sense that organizations in India understand the value of providing better training and compensation package to the employees as it results in increasing perceived organizational and market performance (Singh, 2004). Further, it has been revealed in literature that employees in Indian organizations who perceive the job characteristics such as skill variety and job autonomy to be higher in their jobs it gave them a sense of satisfaction (Baral & Bhargava, 2010). As far as the perception career development opportunities and work-life balance practices are concerned, it is also justified in the Indian context. It is due to the fact that more and more women employees are joining the employment (Baral & Bhargava, 2010). Also, the increase in number of dual career couple and nuclear families resulted in pressure on both males and females to attain work-life balance (Bharat, 2003; Rajadhyaksha and Bhatnagar, 2000). It has become all the more important in Indian context because of the extended structure of families in India as individuals have to take care of their parents, parents-in-law and children. So attaining proper work-life balance is becoming more prevalent amongst Indian employees to fulfil their social obligations (Rajadhyaksha, 2012). Indian organizations are quite in the initial phase of providing better work-life balance practices to its employees. Work-life balance practices in Indian organizations have gained the attention of employers little late. It is because of this reason that employees felt less satisfied with the work-life balance practices followed by their organizations. Further low satisfaction score of career development opportunities in Indian organizations was not surprising at all as existing literature revealed that Indian organizations provide limited growth and career development opportunities to its employees and also it was found to be stronger factor enhancing employee turnover rates (Budhwar, Varma, Malhotra, & Mukherjee, 2009) in Indian organizations.

5.2.3.1 Satisfaction with retention practices and employee's age

While investigating the impact of employee's age on satisfaction with retention practices it was found that out of five retention practices studied only compensation satisfaction differs

significantly among employees in different age groups. Further no significant differences have been observed among employees in varied age groups. Significant differences in the satisfaction score on compensation practices between employees in different age groups is well justified. The results revealed that employees in the age group of 21-25, 26-30 and 31-35 were found to be less satisfied with the compensation in comparison to the employees in the age group of above 45. The finding is in alignment with the previous studies which claimed that age has a significant impact on extrinsic factor such as compensation and rewards where younger group of employees felt less satisfied in comparison to older group of employees (Lee & Wilbur, 1985). Specifically in Indian context this finding is interesting as younger employees face the social pressure to get married and settled in life and for them compensation is utmost important factor whereas older employees at the same time look for position in the organizations instead of compensation satisfaction. Also, income is associated with social and economic status in India (Shashtri, 2009). Further as per Maslow's need hierarchy theory of motivation (Robbins, Judge, & Sanghi, 2009) for younger employees physiological needs that cater to salary are more important than older employees who might have quest for higher order needs such as position and power. Another most important justification for the higher mean score of compensation satisfaction for older employees is due to the fact that still in majority of Indian organizations seniority based pay systems are prevalent in comparison to competency based pay systems (Budhwar & Boyne, 2004). In India respect for age still has been considered as important factor for designing pay structures (Pio, 2007). Further younger employees might have felt less satisfied because pay might not have linked with performance and it is likely reason for further building frustrations (Ojha, 2014). Further, job characteristics as retention practice did not vary significantly among employees in different age groups. Employees irrespective of their age groups possess similar perception related to job characteristics and felt that in their jobs both skills variety and task autonomy are important for completion of jobs. Employees felt that skills variety was important for all the jobs in the organizations and the autonomy that they receive to carry on their jobs are equally provided to all irrespective of their age groups. The finding of similar perception of job characteristics among employees in different age groups is attributed to the fact that technology has brought a lot of changes in the job contents of the employees and the use of information technology in HR has become crucial in organizations (Ojha, 2013) and further technology has resulted in business performance enhancement specially in service industry (Tanlamai, 2006) and since when the internet was allowed to be used for commercial purposes (Cho & Park, 2001). Employees in the

organizations have to adapt themselves according to the fast changes that are occurring in the dynamic business environment as the methodologies to do business also changes with the evolution in technologies (Kim, Hwang, & Lee, 2001; Kim, Koo, Lee, 2005). Younger and older employees both have to possess necessary skills to carry on their tasks that are highly technology driven. Training and career development opportunities also did not vary with employees' age. This finding is contradictory to the existing literature. Literature suggests that employees in the younger age are more inclined towards training and career development opportunities to attain career growth and higher positions in the organizations in comparison to their counterparts. Also, Literature pointed out that younger employee although found to be more productive in their sense of adapting to the new technology however, their less experience was considered a risk for various organizational tasks. On the other hand older employees maintain the high quality standard by imparting better methods of working but their adaptation to the new technology is slow (Brooke & Taylor, 2005). Even the practices of Indian organizations shows the similar pattern where older employees are getting trained by younger employees on technological aspects and this process is termed as reverse mentoring in organizations. Younger employees in return learn a lot of other aspect of the jobs from their seniors based on their experiences. But the finding of the study is justified in the sense that older employees too in lieu of increasing their market worth also get inclined towards more training and career development opportunities in the organizations. It is because of this reason no significant differences have been observed between employees at different age groups regarding their perception of training and career development opportunities provided by the organizations. As far work-life balance is concerned no significant differences have been observed in the perception of employees in different age groups. This finding receive some support from existing literature which claimed that employees from different age groups struggled to achieve the balance between work and life whether they are in the initial stages of their career or may be approaching end of their careers (Darcy, McCarthy, Hill, & Grady, 2012). It is because of these reasons employees in different age groups possess similar perceptions with respect to work-life balance initiatives by their organizations.

5.2.3.2 Satisfaction with retention practices and employee's gender

While investigating the impact of employee's gender on satisfaction with retention practices it was found that significant differences exists between males and females with respect to compensation and job characteristics. Further no differences have been observed in the perception of males and females with respect to training, career development opportunities and work-life balance.

Perception of compensation satisfaction significantly differs between males and females where males ($M = 3.56$) were found to be more satisfied than their females counterparts ($M = 3.34$). There are a number of reasons for such finding. First and important reason is the small number of women employees working at higher pay in organizations. It is well attributed to the fact that in India still gender inequality prevails where men are encouraged to study more and women are taught to take care of households (Padhi & Pattnaik, 2013). Although, the trend is changing however the pace of such a change is very slow with a very small number of women employees entering into organization's employment.

Also, it is highlighted in literature that women those are employed in the organizations were found to be working at lower levels i.e. clerical jobs (Alkadry & Tower, 2006) with a very small number of women taking higher positions resulting from organizational and family support (Nath, 2000). Also, for women entrepreneurs, family support, social support and government support is highly required (Shashtri & Sinha, 2010). Second is the prevalence of glass ceiling for women in organizations which acts as a barrier for them to attain higher position with higher salary packages. Although the equal remuneration act, 1976 demands employer not to discriminate between employees in terms of fixation of wages however, unequal pay for men and women still prevails in Indian organizations. Apart from organizational issues, there also exist some psychological factors that determine the pay gaps between men and women. For instance, the women employees may not be willing to accept job offers that demand higher work timings in comparison to their male counterparts who may be willing to work for extended hours for increase in compensation. This psychological factor further result in lower levels job for women employees with lower salaries in organizations (Booth, 2009). As far as job characteristics are concerned male employees ($M = 3.54$) feel more satisfied in comparison to female employees ($M = 3.33$). This meant that female employees felt that in their jobs no skill variety is required and also job autonomy to carry on tasks has not been provided. This is attributed to the fact a majority of female employees in the organizations may be involved in routine tasks which may not require skill variety and task autonomy. On the other hand male employees serving the middle and senior level position may require skill variety and task autonomy to successfully complete their jobs. Also the existing literature support this finding that organizations in the past have shown the tendency to allot repetitive or routine jobs to female employees in comparison to male employees catering to same organizational positions (Neil & Snizek, 1987). Further the satisfaction with respect to training, career development opportunities and work-life balance did not differ significantly

between males and females. The training and career development practices provided by the company provided satisfaction to the employees varied from neutral to satisfied category. This meant that although the organizations provide these practices but the employees were not very satisfied with these practices. It is primarily due to the reason that whatever employees learn in training programs was entirely different from what they actual face in their jobs and also there might not be a link between training and career development practices of an organization. It is in alignment with the previous studies that there exist a huge difference between the training received and the actual job content so employees felt less satisfied with these training programs (Biswas & Suar, 2013). It is further supported by the existing literature that training satisfaction did not differ significantly among males and females (Schmidt, 2009). To avoid this, managers should plan training and development is such a way that it is directly linked to performance appraisals (Patwardhan & Alumnus, 2014).

Finally in terms of work-life balance no significant differences have been observed between males and females. Although no significant differences have been observed however both male and female employees gave the least satisfaction score to work-life balance practices of the organizations. This meant that employees irrespective of their gender were not very satisfied with the work-life balance practices provided by their organizations. The similar perception of male and female employees with respect to work-life balance practices is due to the fact that both males and females struggled for maintaining work-life balance and specifically Gen Y started combining their professional and personal lives (Hartijasti & Fathonah, 2014). Female employees are concerned with work-life balance because of their responsibilities towards families and children. Male employees have to take care of their parent, extended families and some time parent-in-laws specifically in Indian context (Rajadhyaksha, 2012). In order to fulfill their social obligations both males and females at workplace required their work-life to be balanced to an extent so that they could possibly fulfill both the personal and professional commitments. But organizations in India are still lagging behind these initiatives. The major reason behind this is the necessity for such a practice. Also, the increase in number of dual career couple and nuclear families has recently resulted in pressure on both males and females to attain work-life balance (Bharat, 2003; Rajadhyaksha & Bhatnagar, 2000).

5.2.3. 3 Satisfaction with retention practices and employee's hierarchical level

While investigating the impact of employees' hierarchical level on satisfaction with retention practices it was found that out of five retention practices studied only job characteristics were

found to be significantly varied among employees at different hierarchical levels. Further no significant differences have been observed in the perception of employees at different hierarchical levels with respect to compensation, training, career development opportunities and work-life balance. In the analysis it has been found that employees at middle ($M = 3.58$) and senior level ($M = 3.53$) felt more positive about job characteristics in comparison to employees at junior level ($M = 3.36$). This meant that employees at middle and senior level felt that their jobs require more skill variety and task autonomy in comparison to the employees at junior level. This finding is justified in a sense that employees at higher levels in an organization attach more importance to human and conceptual skills as they are involved in strategic decision making whereas employees at lower levels have importance for technical skills to carry out their routine jobs effectively (Guglielmino, & Carroll, 1979; Paolillo, 1981). This might be one of the reason that why employees at different hierarchical levels might possess different perception with respect to job characteristics.

Further compensation satisfaction did not vary among employees at different hierarchical levels. The findings revealed that employees at their respective hierarchical levels felt moderately satisfied with their compensation package. The finding is justified in a sense that employees at different levels might be getting the compensation as per principle of equity whereby higher level jobs were fetching higher level salaries and employees at junior levels were fetching lower level salaries. Further it has been highlighted in literature that organizations with hierarchical structures pay their executives by considering their span of control. Generally the senior level positions have a wider span of control and enjoys more salaries in comparison to the junior level employees who might not be having subordinates working under them (Leonard, 1990). It is because of this reason no significant differences have been observed between employees at different hierarchical levels. Further on training and career development opportunities employees at different hierarchical levels did not differ significantly. The mean scores on satisfaction with training and career development opportunities revealed that employees at different hierarchical levels were moderately satisfied.

5.2.3.4 Satisfaction with retention practices and employee's organizational sector

While investigating the impact of organizational sector (public versus private) on employees' satisfaction with retention practices, it was found that only compensation and career development opportunities significantly differs among public and private sector organizations. Further training, job characteristics and work-life balance did not differ significantly among public and private sector organizations. The mean scores on compensation satisfaction in public sector organizations ($M = 3.62$) was found to be higher than private sector organizations ($M = 3.38$). This meant that

employees in public sector organizations felt more satisfied with compensation in comparison to employees working in private sector organizations. This finding is in alignment with the previous research findings which claimed that public sector organizations being more focused on seniority based pay in comparison to private sector organizations where performance or competency based compensation system is prevalent (Budhwar & Boyne 2004; Bordia & Blau, 1998). Employees in the private sector organizations might have shown less satisfaction due to the fact that tough target to achieve might have an influence on their lower compensation package as compensation is performance based. Further, in a study conducted by Padhi (2010) it was found that aggressive targets in service sector organizations also demands extended working hours which may also cause work stress in employees. In terms of career development opportunities the mean scores revealed that employees in private sector organizations ($M = 3.51$) were more satisfied than employees in public sector organizations ($M = 3.30$). This finding is in contradiction with previous research studies which claimed that career development opportunities in public sector organizations are more in comparison to private sector organizations (Budhwar & Boyne, 2004). Prior research studies claimed that in public sector organizations the prevalence of formal career plans, annual career development interview highlighted the picture of structured training and development systems whereas private sector organizations in order to save money and time did not follow such structured systems (Budhwar & Boyne, 2004). But the finding in the current research study is well attributed to the fact that although in public sector organizations formal plans are prevalent for career development however, the promotions are time and experience bound and the time frame in which an employee receive promotion is huge in comparison to private sector organizations where promotion speed is fast and depends upon employees' performance.

Further satisfaction with training, job characteristics and work-life balance practices did not differ significantly among public and private sector organizations. Similar satisfaction on training is well attributed to the fact that Indian organizations started giving importance to employee development (Balaji et al., 1998; Budhwar, 2000). Also, the employees surveyed in both the sectors belonged to executive level jobs and organizations in both public and private sector organizations spend high money on training of these executives and this is further supported in the literature (Budhwar & Boyne, 2004). It is because of these reasons employees irrespective of sector possess similar perception with respect to training practices. As far work-life balance practices are concerned both public and private sector organizations are adopting best possible practices to provide employees with good work-life balance. In case of private sector organizations

Intel India is providing their employees with five days working plus flexible working hours, benefits for self and dependents. Some of the benefits include hospitalization insurance policy for medical re-imburement for employees and their dependents, maternity leave for female employees for 89 days. IBM provides flexible working hours, work from home, family counseling and part-time employment etc. (Baral & Bhargava, 2011). On the other hand organizations in public sector like NTPC provide their employees with work ambience and have always been an integral part of their work culture. The creation of the philosophy of positive engagement at workplace helps NTPC to retain the best talents. Practices like theatre workshops, yoga, corporate social responsibility and outbound training are some of the practices followed by NTPC (Chaturvedi et al., 2014).

5.2.4 Accomplishment of objective 4 of the study

To study the impact of perceived employer branding dimensions on employees' satisfaction with retention practices and turnover intentions.

5.2.4.1 Employer branding and satisfaction with retention practices

The objective 4 of the study investigated the impact of perceived employer branding dimensions on employees' satisfaction with retention practices and turnover intentions. The first section in accomplishment of objective 4 is the discussion on the relationships between perceived employer branding and employees' satisfaction with retention practices. The results revealed that overall employer branding is significantly associated with employee retention. Further, the results of the study indicated that out of five employer branding dimensions only application value and economic value significantly predict employees' satisfaction with retention practices. Further social value, interest value and development value did not predict employees' satisfaction with retention practices. Application value associated with an employer brand was found to increase employee satisfaction with retention practices. The finding is in alignment with the previous studies which indicated that the development of mutually benefitted long term relationships between employer and employees are specifically important which may in turn enhance employee satisfaction with retention practices (King & Grace, 2008). Recent literature also revealed that the inclusion of rich experience in work practices and abundant opportunities for learning may also help in retaining skilled workforce in an organization (Kyndt, Dochy, Michielsen & Moeyaert, 2009). Interestingly it was found that if the internal mobility opportunities are available within the organization; it will help the organization to deal with employee turnover behavior effectively (Mobley, 1982 as cited by Zheng & Lamond, 2010). The finding is well justified in the sense that

employees in Indian organizations felt that their employer provided them abundant opportunities to learn and encourage internal mobility which ultimately results in enhancing their satisfaction with organizational policies. Economic value associated with an employer brand also influence employees' satisfaction with retention practices. This finding is also in alignment with the previous research studies which claimed that economic value significantly enhances employees' satisfaction with retention practices (Ash & Bendapudi, 1996; Huang, Lin and Chuang, 2006). It is because of this reason that economic value associated with an employer brand was found to be influencing employees' satisfaction with retention practices.

Further, development value associated with an employer brand was not found to increase employee satisfaction with retention practices. This finding did not receive enough empirical support from existing literature. First the findings from Schlager, Bodderas, Maas and Luc Cachelin (2011) revealed that aspects such as mentoring and empowering environment are considered important for enhancing development value. Mentoring, specifically psychosocial mentoring was found to be a significant predictor of employee retention (Hall & Smith, 2009). Also, the study conducted by Payne and Huffman (2005) revealed that commitment mediated the negative relationship between mentoring and actual turnover behavior. Advancement opportunities that include career enhancing experience have also been reported as an important factor for employee retention (DiPietro & Milman, 2008; Ramlall, 2003). Empowering environment is said to be linked with organizational commitment which further leads to reducing employees' intent to turnover (Albrecht and Andretta, 2011; Dewettinck & Van Ameijde, 2011) and enhance employee retention. But in case of Indian organizations mentoring systems are not that formalized that it could enhance employees' satisfaction with various organizational attributes. Although, mentoring systems are somehow prevalent in Indian private sector organizations but the number of such organizations is limited to a very small number. These are some of the reason which justified the finding on the association between development value associated with an employer brand and employee satisfaction with retention practices. Further social value did not significantly predict employee satisfaction with retention practices. This finding is not in alignment with previous studies. The existing literature revealed that environment full of fun and happiness has been reported as one of the important motivators for employee retention (Moncarz, Zhao & Kay, 2009; Milman, 2003; Wildes, 2007a). Although social value associated with an employer brand is significantly associated with employee retention however, the results of the current study did not present the similar trend. Thus, it clearly indicated that social value associated with an employer

brand will not influence employees' satisfaction with retention practices. Literature also revealed that socialization process in organizations might influence employees' decision to turnover but might not influence satisfaction with retention practices (Boles et al., 1995; Pizam and Ellis, 1999)

Interest value was also not predicting employees' satisfaction with retention practices. Interest value of an employer brand assess the level to which an organization provides a great work environment for effective utilization of employee's skills to develop innovative products and services (Berthon et al., 2005). Literature also reveals that attributes related work environment are specifically related to various important organizational outcomes (Westerman & Yamamura, 2007; Shalley, Gilson & Blum, 2000; Monsen & Boss, 2009; Wright & Davis, 2003; Lee & Way, 2010). But the findings of the study did not reveal such trend. Employees in Indian organizations felt that interest value associated with an employer brand was not important for them in influencing their satisfaction with retention practices. Another reason for such a finding is organization's least focus on the intrapreneurial policies with the help of which employees' can venture into new businesses and could enhance interest value of an employer brand. But in case of Indian organizations it is not true so it is because of this reason interest value have not influenced employees' satisfaction with organizational retention practices.

5.2.4.2 Employer branding and turnover intentions

The second section in the accomplishment of objective 4 is the discussion on the relationships between employer branding dimensions and employees' turnover intentions. The results revealed that overall employer branding resulted in reducing employees' turnover intentions. The results of the study indicated that out of five employer branding dimensions only social value and development value significantly predict employees' turnover intentions. Further interest value, application value and economic value were found to be insignificant predictors of employees' turnover intentions. It is interesting to note here that factors which were not found to be predictors of employees' satisfaction with retention practices are significant predictors of employees' turnover intentions. First, social value associated with an employer brand was found to be a significant predictor of employees' turnover intentions. This finding revealed that although social value did not predict employees' satisfaction with retention practices however, it was an important predictor of employees' turnover intentions. This clearly indicates that employees' in Indian organizations might not leave their organizations because of not so attractive retention policies but they might leave their superiors. This finding is in alignment with previous studies which indicated that factor such as relationships with superiors and co-workers were important predictors of

employee decision to stay with an organization (Hausknecht, Rodda & Howard, 2009). Also, the study conducted by Golden and Veiga (2008) revealed that superior-subordinate relationships have a salient impact on individual work related outcomes such as organizational commitment which further leads to lower absenteeism and turnover (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Riketta, 2002). People tend to stay with organizations for varied reasons. Out of the various reasons studied compatible supervisors was regarded as important for individual to stay and work for a supervisor who is supportive to them (Retaining employees, 2010). Another important aspect to socialization models of employee turnover suggested that if employees fit well in the organizational social culture then the tendency of such employees to stay in a particular organization increases (Sheridan, 1992; Taormina, 2009; Zheng & Lamond, 2010). Second, development value associated with an employer brand was not found to be significant predictor of employees' satisfaction with retention practices but was found to be a significant predictor of employees' turnover intentions. This meant that development value is an important consideration while deciding whether an employee wish to remain or leave the organization. This finding also receives enough empirical support from existing literature. While explaining why individuals stay with a particular organization Hausknecht, Rodda and Howard (2009) in their study concluded that there are certain work-related factors and personal factors that results in explaining employee turnover process. According to the authors, advance opportunities which is a work-related factor is often relational and intangible aspect (Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, & Bravo, 2007) that results in reducing employees' turnover intentions.

Interest value as in case employees' satisfaction with retention practices was not found to even influence employees' turnover intentions. It is interesting here to note that interest value associated with an employer brand was neither a significant predictor of employees' satisfaction with retention practices nor employees' turnover intentions. This meant that employees did not consider interest value in an employer brand as an important consideration for staying or leaving an organization. This probably is due to the fact that majority of respondents in the study are below 30 years of age and for these employees lower level needs are more crucial. Development value and social value satisfy employees' lower level needs that employees felt were important to them in comparison to the interest value. This is how interest value has not been considered important by the respondents to influence their retention or turnover decisions. Further, economic value was not a significant predictor of turnover intentions due to the fact that employees in the GEN Y sometimes are ready to work on lower packages if the employer is providing better social working

environment (Glass, 2007). Also, the result further revealed that economic value is more associated with the staying reason than leaving an organization. This meant that economic value is a key factor influencing employees' satisfaction with organizational retention practices but the employees will not leave organizations just because of lower economic value attached to their employment brand.

5.2.5 Accomplishment of objective 5 of the study

To study the impact of perceived servant leadership style on employee's satisfaction with retention practices and employee's turnover intentions.

5.2.5.1 Servant leadership, satisfaction with retention practices and employees' turnover intentions

The objective 5 of the study investigated the impact of perceived servant leadership style on employees' satisfaction with retention practices and turnover intentions. The results of the study highlighted that overall servant leadership is significantly associated with employee retention but not to employees' turnover intentions. Further, the results revealed that out of the eight dimensions of servant leadership only standing back, accountability, forgiveness and humility were significantly predicting employees' satisfaction with retention practices. Further empowerment, courage, authenticity and stewardship were found to be insignificant predictors of employees' satisfaction with retention practices. As far as the relationships between servant leadership dimensions and employees' turnover intentions only empowerment and forgiveness were found to be significant predictors. Standing back dimensions of servant leadership is significantly predicting employees' satisfaction with retention practices but was found to be insignificantly related to turnover intentions. This meant that leader's standing back behavior is related to employees' satisfaction with retention practices but was not influencing employees' intent to turnover. This finding is in alignment with the previous research studies. As standing back include the aspect of necessary support by leaders to subordinates. The support provided by leaders is regarded as a sign of leader's efforts to take care of employees' needs. The findings of the study conducted by Maertz, Griffeth, Campbell and Allen (2008) revealed that perceived supervisor support is directly influencing employee retention. The researchers also postulate that the leaders can regularly ask their subordinates regarding any help they need to complete the tasks and shows personal considerations. Further Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski and Rhoades (2002) concluded that employees who feel that their leaders value their contributions and take care of their well being resulted in increasing perceived organizational support which ultimately result in

increasing retention. Also, the results revealed that standing back dimension of servant leadership is the most significant predictor of employees' satisfaction with retention practices. This also meant that even if the organizations are not adopting the best practices but the organizational leaders if provide necessary support to the employees, they will remain with the organizations. This also indicates that individuals are highly identified with the person they are engaged with not the organizations itself (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002). It is because of this reason that employees don't leave their organizations rather they leave their supervisors.

Further, accountability dimension of servant leadership was found to be significantly predicting employees' satisfaction with retention practices but was not associated with turnover intentions. This finding received partial support from the previous research studies which postulated that the role of leader's authentic behavior is important in influencing employee retention and turnover intentions. The findings of the study conducted by Mendes and Stander (2011) revealed that accountability is related to work engagement which further results in employees' satisfaction. Accountability also postulates that providing clear goals to the subordinates is an important aspect of leader's authentic behavior. Goal clarity is widely investigated as an important antecedent to commitment (Cheng & Stockdale, 2003) and commitment further help in reducing employee turnover intentions (Mosadeghrad, Ferlie, & Rosenberg, 2007; Lam, Lo, & Chan, 2002) and enhancing employee retention. Leader's role in providing unambiguous goals to employees is very crucial as the literature revealed that role ambiguity is strongly associated with employee turnover intentions negatively (Hang-yue, Foley, & Loi, 2005) while role clarity is strongly associated with organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Mukherjee & Malhotra, 2006). In case of Indian organizations collaborative culture prevails where accountability is shared between employees. Individuals in Indian organizations work in teams for the achievement of objectives and they are collaboratively held accountable for their jobs. This is an important aspect as individual employee feel motivated in this type of environment and learns from colleagues and did not think of leaving organizations in this context. It is because of this aspect that accountability leads to employees' satisfaction with retention practices but did not influence employees' intent to turnover.

Further forgiveness dimension of servant leadership was found to be the only dimension that influences both employees' satisfaction with retention practices and employees' turnover intentions. This finding is in alignment with the previous research studies by Fehr and Gelfand (2012) which proposed that forgiveness climate in organizations is associated with relational

commitment and interpersonal citizenship. Also, forgiveness at workplace is linked with employee retention. Further, Stone (2002) in his research work concluded that true forgiveness supports employee retention, fosters creativity and innovation; generate flexibility to deal with ever changing market conditions. While forgiveness climate at workplace is associated with high employee retention rates, on the other hand environment that is full of abusive supervision tends to heighten employee withdrawal intentions and reducing employee retention (Tepper, Carr, Breaux, Geider, Hu, & Hua, 2009). As per the suggestions proposed by Caldwell and Dixon (2010) trust and forgiveness are very crucial aspects of leadership. These values of trust and forgiveness can further help leaders to create an environment in the organization where employees wish to stay longer (Chitra, 2013). Existing literature also highlighted the indigenous social values such as humanism which inculcate the forgiveness values are the strongest social values in Asian societies (Tripathi, 1990). It is because of these aspects that forgiveness dimension of servant leadership was found to influence employees' satisfaction with retention practices and reducing their turnover intentions.

Humility as dimension of servant leadership was only found to influence employees' satisfaction with retention practices. Further humility did not predict employees' turnover intentions. This finding is supported by the previous research study by Somos (2014) who suggested that there is a need to humanize the workplaces to deal with the issue of employee retention. The researcher propounds the five ways with which organizational leaders can humanize the workplace. According to author (Somos, 2014) being authentic, simplifying the complex things, face to face conversation in difficult times, creation and communication of meaning to others and infusion of appropriate fun are the five pillars that can help in increasing employee retention. Also, the one trait that makes Indian leaders stalwarts is the humility which is considered an important virtue of leadership (Singh, 2014). Some of these leaders include Indira Nooyi, Satya Nadella, Nitin Nohria and Rajeev Suri who were found to possess strong instincts of humility behavior in their organizations. In an article published in Times of India it was reported that Indian leaders' strong emphasis on family and social relationships helps them to work in groups with humility (Singh, 2014). This aspect is also supported by the empirical findings of the study conducted by Owens, Johnson and Mitchell (2013) which indicated that leader's expressed humility is strongly associated with employee retention and the relationship is mediated by increased job satisfaction.

Further empowerment as servant leadership dimension was found to be insignificant predictor of employees' satisfaction with retention practices but was significantly predicting employees' turnover intentions. This finding received partial support from existing literature. Although literature suggested that empowerment as a leadership trait was found to be significantly associated with employee retention outcomes and turnover intentions however, the findings of current study revealed that empowerment is only significantly related to turnover intentions. The negative relationships between empowerment and turnover intentions is well supported by the findings of previous research studies that postulated when employees felt that their leaders possess empowering style, they themselves start feeling empowered. This as a result led to motivate employees to be engaged and show commitment and belongingness to their respective organizations (Albrecht & Andretta, 2011). Further this enhanced commitment because of empowerment received led employees to incline less towards thinking of leaving an organization. This also suggests that empowering style of leadership is helpful in creating an environment where employees feel emotionally attached to the organizations and their staying intentions increases. The companies in India like HCL provided their employees with a culture that fosters empowerment. The culture at HCL is inverted pyramid culture where most of the initiatives are taken by employees at ground level rather than top level. This kind of culture provides employees with more autonomy with which employees deliver beyond their work responsibilities (Biswas & Bhattacharyya, 2014).

Courage dimension of servant leadership was found to be insignificant predictor of employees' satisfaction with retention practices and employees' turnover intentions. This meant that courage expressed by leaders was not influencing employees' satisfaction with retention practices and reducing their turnover intentions. Although existing literature claimed that courageous behavior of leaders is significantly associated with employee turnover behavior (Alder, 2006; Kyndt et al., 2009) however, in Indian context this finding of insignificant relationships between courage and turnover is justified. As per the national culture study by Hofstede (1983) India is a country that stands high on uncertainty avoidance. This meant that individuals try to avoid risks and wish to keep themselves safe at their positions apart from the fact that risk taking in business has been emphasized in literature (Kamalanabhan, Sunder, & Manshor, 2006). This aspect further inhibits leaders to show courageous behavior of taking risks and setting examples for the followers. It is because of the national culture influence that leaders or managers in Indian organizations might be less inclined towards experimenting new ways of doing things and taking

risks. This may be an appropriate reason why employees' turnover behavior in Indian organizations was not influenced by courage expressed by their supervisors.

Further authenticity and stewardship as servant leadership dimensions were found to be insignificantly associated with employees' satisfaction with retention practices and employees' turnover intentions. This meant that authenticity and stewardship behavior of leaders in Indian organizations was not influencing employees' satisfaction with retention practices and turnover intentions.

5.2.6 Accomplishment of objective 6 of the study

To propose and test a model on interrelationships among employer branding, servant leadership, satisfaction with employee retention practices and employee turnover intentions.

Before presenting the discussion on proposed model and its empirical findings, the research study elaborated the discussion on the impact of satisfaction with retention practices on employees' turnover intentions. It is interesting to note here that only three practices out of five employee retention practices studied, only Compensation, training and career opportunities were found to be significant predictors of turnover intentions. Further, compensation and training practices were negatively predicting turnover intentions whereas career development opportunities were positively associated with turnover intentions. There are two possible explanations that why only three practices (Compensation, training and career opportunities) are significant predictors of turnover intentions. First, the demographic variables described in the results section revealed that majority of respondents (211, 45.9%) have experience between 0-5 years, indicating that these executives are in their initial career stages. This could be the reason that existence and relatedness needs as per Alderfer's ERG theory of motivation (Robbins & Judge, 2013) are preferred by the executives. Compensation satisfaction is utmost important for the executives to satisfy their existence needs. Second, in a tough competitive environment, where talent poaching is inevitable, the organizations tries to attract and retain talent pool by adopting the best possible compensation benefits, and providing great training and career development experience which are of primary concern for employees. The other practices like job characteristics and work-life balance which may be seen as market driven strategies may not be very attractive for the employees and take the back seat in alluring potential candidates and retain existing employees. Also, as per Maslow's theory of hierarchy needs (Robbins & Judge, 2013) the individuals first tries to satisfy their lower level needs and then move forward to higher order needs. Job characteristics on the other hand are regarded as practices helps in increasing the self esteem (in terms of job autonomy) of the

employees, which is a higher order needs that may take a longer time to satisfy individuals in comparison to the lower order needs such as compensation.

The analysis of the practices on each practice of employee retention will be helpful for organizational executives to frame better retention strategies. For example, the practice of “How the company administers pay” on the compensation practice can help organizations ensure that employees know how the procedure of compensation works in the system with full transparency; this can help employees feel there is fairness of pay. The suggested argument is well supported by the research findings of (Tekleab et al., 2005) which revealed how the communication of pay raise procedures provided satisfaction to the employees and increased their staying intentions with the current employers. In addition, employees feel that pay raise procedures and the administration are more important than the actual pay level (Kochanski & Ledford, 2001).

Another important and interesting finding of the study indicated that training is negatively and career opportunities are positively associated with employee turnover intentions, thereby implicating that career opportunities may not result in reducing employee turnover intentions. There could be two possible explanations for training to be insignificant predictor of employee’s turnover intentions. First increase in the knowledge, skills and abilities results in increased competence of individuals, which ultimately results in increasing employee’s turnover intentions. This fact is supported by the results of the recent study by Marescaux, et. al. (2013) which indicates that employee’s perceive their labour market worth and job alternatives to be high if their competence satisfaction is high. This competence satisfaction thus subsequently reduces their commitment towards the organization and further result in increasing their intent to turnover. Second, employees may perceive assigned training as a sign of incompetence which reduces his/her competence satisfaction, thereby increasing their chances to look for other job alternatives and accepting offers from competing organizations and ultimately results in their turnover. This finding is in alignment with previous studies. It has been found in the literature that training is positively related to turnover intention, which means that increasing the abilities and skills of employees increases their movement to other organizations (Dhiman & Mohanty, 2010). Therefore, managers need to make sure that trained employees should have enough opportunities inside their organizations so they should not think of moving to other organizations.

One possible reason for significant but positive prediction of employee’s turnover intentions by career opportunities is organization’s establishment of narrow career paths for which promotion may be quicker, but career opportunities for employees may be limited in long run (Schuler &

Jackson, 1987). This possibly influences employee's decision to leave an organization which might lack in alignment of competitive strategies with human resource management practices. The researcher would like to suggest to managers that training and career development opportunities for employees should be in alignment with the business strategies of the firm so that employees can apply whatever they have learned in the training, helping them to advance their career in long run. This suggestion is supported by the argument of Thite (2001) which states that organizations can play a proactive and constructive role in employees' career management by removing internal boundaries of career movements.

As far as practices of job characteristics are concerned, it has been found in the study that employees might feel satisfied with work that is challenging, and require a higher level of skill and ability in comparison with the jobs that are highly monotonous and never allow employees the freedom to work but it may not result in reducing their turnover intentions. This is not in alignment with previous work of Ready et al., (2008), which indicated that one of the pillars of retaining talent is the opportunity of challenging tasks and an accelerated career track. Literature supports the fact that employee's perception of greater job autonomy results in lowering their turnover intentions (Spector, 1986). Another possible explanation for job characteristics as insignificant predictors of employee's turnover intentions lies in self-determination theory of motivation that postulates need of autonomy as one of the three basic needs (Van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte and Lens, 2008). The authors acclaimed that the need of autonomy can be satisfied by making personal choices in work and enjoying freedom at work. But employees in younger age might not possess that maturity to handle job autonomy and could misuse it in organizational settings to enjoy more freedom and focusing less on work outcomes. Another important aspect is the tough hierarchical structures in Indian organizations where power lies at the top and employees need to follow the instruction to do their work. Now, in this case job autonomy and skill variety as job characteristics dimensions may not be very important for employees to decide whether they wish to stay with the organizations or not.

Finally, the study aimed at investigating and addressing servant leadership theory – a premise that has attracted great attention and gained much significance in recent times, and its impact on an important organizational outcome i.e. employee turnover intentions. The study further sought to investigate an important component of internal branding i.e. employer brand perception along with another important phenomenon i.e. employee satisfaction with retention practices, explaining the interrelationships between servant leadership style and turnover intentions

to fully understand the mechanisms shaping an employee's work related attitudes. Capitalizing on the theories of social identity (Tajfel, 1982) and social exchange relationships (Blau, 1964), the researcher conceptualized and extended employer brand perception and satisfaction with employee retention practices as two underlying mediating mechanisms establishing the relationships between servant leadership and employee turnover intentions. The results of the study indicate that servant style of leadership, if followed by organizational leaders, may prove to be an effective tool to portray a positive organizational image amongst potential and existing employees. This positive organizational image may help in building a strong employer brand perception which in turn might increase the level of satisfaction employees have in retention practices thus reducing their turnover intentions. The findings of the study are supported well by earlier research which indicates that evaluation of the support received from organizational representatives by employees and employees' perceived identity with the organization jointly influence employees' withdrawal from the job (Van Knippenberg, Van Dick and Tavares 2007).

Further, the total direct significant relationship between perceived servant leadership style and employee turnover intentions indicates that servant style of leadership helps in influencing employees' decision to stay or leave a particular organization. The finding is also supported by the previous research (Jaramillo et al. 2009b; Hunter et al. 2013). It can, therefore be concluded that the characteristics with which servant leaders influence the attitudes of their followers are important in dealing with high employee turnover intentions. It is more likely that followers of leaders with service orientation will stay with them for longer periods of times as compared to other leaders who are not service oriented. This possibly is due to the fact that the characteristics of servant leaders such as forgiveness, standing back etc. are crucial in modulating employees' work related attitudes. The continuous emotional support by the servant leaders to their employees thus results in reducing employee turnover intentions as previous research proves that focus on employee welfare and development (which is an inherent value of servant leadership style) are more relevant factors for an employee deciding whether or not to stay in the organization.

To answer the call for future research by Van Dierendonck (2011) on examining the underlying mechanisms that might better explain the relationship between servant leadership style and organizational outcomes, the research have proposed and empirically investigated employer brand perception and the level of satisfaction employees have in retention practices as important mediating mechanisms explaining this relationship. The results of the study indicate that employer brand perception significantly mediates the relationship between servant leadership style and

employee turnover intentions. Further employee satisfaction with retention practices was also found to be a significant mediator between these relationships. The findings indicate that the servant style leadership followed by leaders helps in creating and reinforcing a strong employer brand image in the minds of existing employees which in turn influences their decision to extend their association with the organization. To explain this process as a vital mediating mechanism, the authors wish to highlight the role of self-esteem which according to Pierce and Gardner (2004) is likely to increase with the employee's perception of working with a unique and distinctive employer brand.

Further, the fact that employees' satisfaction with retention practices prove to be a significant mediating mechanism between servant leadership style and employee turnover intentions can have two possible explanations: First, the servant leadership style followed by the leader may result in increasing the subordinate's trust in the leader as the characteristics of servant leaders only may not influence the employee's beliefs about organizational fair procedures and practices. These characteristics of servant leaders must be exercised and shown by implementing the best possible policies and practices adopted by organizations. Since there is evidence of how these characteristics directly influence the level of trust employees place in their leaders, satisfaction with retention practices have a powerful influence on the employee's intent to turnover. Second, India is the country that stands high on human orientation where individuals show concern for others (Gupta et al. 2002); it is in the culture and roots of the Indian value system to express concern and extend a helping hand to others. Therefore, a leadership style with an inherent service orientation is actually expected from Indian leaders. At the same time, India ranks high on power distance which is evident by the fact that there is a wide social gap between a leader and an employee; leaders believe that they are somehow superior, and want to 'enjoy' their superior and powerful status. As a result, this gap inhibits service oriented behaviour from the very people who are expected to be service oriented. In any relationship whether personal or professional, mutual trust is a vital prerequisite. If in a relationship, one party displays trust towards the other party while the other party does not do the same, the relationship will not develop and grow stronger. In the case of a leader-employee relationship, if there is lack of trust on the part of either the leader or the employee, the relationship will not be strong enough a factor to influence the employee's decision to leave the particular organization.

Finally, the research investigated the role of employer brand perception and the level of satisfaction employees have in retention practices as sequential mediating mechanisms explaining

the relationship between servant leadership style and employee turnover intention. Findings show a significant indirect relationship between servant leadership style and turnover intention through both employer brand perception and the level of trust employees place in their leaders. There could be three possible explanations for this indirect relationship: First, the servant leadership style followed by leaders helps in influencing the employees' belief about their employer brand as distinctive and unique because of service as a core value. This proposition is also supported by the findings of Zhang et al. (2012) where they proved that servant leaders through their behavior reinforce the importance of serving within and without the organization which emphasizes service as a unique characteristic of an organization. Second, fair planning and execution of best possible policies and practices along with their effective communication through servant leaders build a strong employer brand image in the minds of potential and existing employees enhancing the level of trust employees put in their leaders which further result in increased satisfaction with retention practices. This finding is in alignment with the finding of Whitener (1997), which state that that the level of trust employees place in their leaders and organizations will increase with the implementation of the organization's innovative practices as these practices convey a message of organizational support to its employees. Also, leaders play a vital role in implementing practices such as fair assessment and distribution of rewards which in turn enhance employee motivation. Implementation of such activities has a significant impact on their relationships with employees and the trust which employees have in them because of fair outcomes, procedures, open communication and interactions. Third, the mutual trust between leaders and their subordinates developed through fair implementation of employer brand policies and practices further influences employees' decision to stay longer with organizations that provide a unique employer identity and encourage leaders that sacrifice their own interests for the growth and development of their subordinates.

5.3 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter detailed the discussion on the results obtained in the study. The introduction section presented the rationale for the study. The basic rationale was to investigate the impact of employer branding and servant leadership on employees' satisfaction with retention practices and employees' turnover intentions. Further section one elaborated the discussion on employer branding in Indian organizations. It was found that employees in Indian organizations perceived their employer brand at an above average level. This meant that Indian employees felt that their

organizations focused upon the creation and maintenance of employer brand to attract and retain the talent. Further various dimensions associated with an employer brand in Indian organizations revealed that social value and development value were considered two most important factors while creating and employer brand. Interest value on the other hand was not found to be very attractive as perceived by employees. Also, overall perception of an employer brand was found to influence employee retention practices and employees' turnover intentions. Second section elaborated the discussion on servant leadership in Indian organizations. The findings revealed that empowerment and accountability dimensions of servant leadership were found to be more exercised attributes in Indian managers. On the other hand forgiveness was found to be least exercised behavior by Indian managers. Overall servant leadership was found to influence employees' satisfaction with retention practices but was not found to be influencing employees' turnover intentions. The third section elaborated the discussion on employee retention in Indian organizations. It was revealed that employees were found to be more satisfied with training and compensation practices followed by their organizations. Further practices such as job characteristics, career development opportunities and work-life balance were perceived at an average satisfaction level by Indian employees. Additionally the researcher has tested a model of turnover in which it was found that servant leadership helped the enhancing the employer brand perception which further enhances employees' satisfaction with retention practices and reducing their turnover intentions. The researcher concluded that employer branding and servant leadership was significantly associated with employee retention practices. Further, the relationship between servant leadership and turnover intentions was found to be sequentially mediated by employer branding and employees' satisfaction with retention practices.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter highlights the conclusion made and implications drawn on the basis of review of literature, analysis and findings of the study. The chapter is divided into two sub-sections. Section one discusses the conclusions and the other section narrates the implications of the study.

6.1 CONCLUSION

The rationale behind this study was to measure the perception of Indian employees with respect to employer branding, servant leadership, employee retention practices and turnover intentions. The study specifically addresses how the organizational efforts to create and maintain a strong employer brand and principles of servant leadership influence employee retention practices and reducing their turnover behavior.

The objective one of the study was to assess the employer branding in selected Indian organizations. The findings revealed that Indian organizations were found to be focusing on employer brand creation and its management. The employees perceived their organizational employer brand at an above average level. This meant that employees felt that while attracting and retaining talent in organizations employer branding plays a crucial role as the organizations were found to be serious about this. The results of the study further indicated that employees in Indian organizations felt that higher social value and development value are the two most important factors that help organizations in creation of an employer brand. It can be concluded that employees in Indian organizations gave importance to these two dimensions more than the other dimensions of an employer brand. This meant that for retaining the employees in Indian organizations, the employers are adopting the best workplace practices that enhance social value and development value for employees. Further, economic value and application value associated with an employer brand was found to influence employees retention practices. This meant that although these dimensions will not reduce employees' turnover intentions however, these dimensions were reported as a source of satisfaction for employees. In comparison interest value was not found to be very attractive dimension of employer branding as perceived by existing employees of an organization.

The second objective of the study was to assess servant leadership in selected Indian organizations. The findings revealed that employees in Indian organizations felt that their supervisors or managers were expressing some of the attributes of servant leadership. Specifically

empowerment and accountability behavior was found to be expressed more by Indian managers. This meant that employees were empowered by their supervisors but at the same time they were also held accountable for the tasks they were assigned to. It can be concluded that empowerment provided by leaders to subordinates also brings accountability for employees in organizations. Forgiveness on the other hand was found to be least exercised behavior by Indian leaders. This meant that employees in Indian organizations felt that their supervisors/ managers were not possessing very high degree of forgiving their employees. This might be one of the reasons that forgiveness was found to influence both employee retention practices and reducing employees' turnover intentions. The other dimensions of servant leadership such as standing back, authenticity, courage, stewardship, humility were found to be perceived at a similar level by Indian employees. This meant that employees felt that these behaviors were expressed by the managers sometimes not always.

The objective three of the study was to assess employee retention in Indian organizations. As far as employee retention practices are concerned, it was found that employees in Indian organizations although gave average score to employee retention practices however, employees were found to be more satisfied with training and compensation practices provided by their respective organizations. Also, these practices influence their turnover behavior. Further, career development opportunities, job characteristics and work-life balance were not found to be very satisfactory by employees. This meant that either these practices were not very important for employees or the organization's efforts to devise and implement such practices might not have strategically aligned.

The objective four of the study was to investigate the impact of employer branding on employee retention. The results revealed that overall positive perception of employer branding was found to be significantly associated with employee retention practices. This meant that organizational efforts to create and maintain an employer brand helped the organizations to deal with the employee retention. Further, investigation of the impact of independent dimensions of employer branding on employee retention practices. The results revealed that only application value and economic value associated with employer brand were found to influence employee retention practices. This revealed that application value and economic value were the most important predictors of employee retention.

The objective 5 of the study was to investigate the impact of servant leadership on employee retention. The results revealed that overall perception of servant leadership was

significantly associated with employee retention practices. One can conclude that servant leadership behavior expressed by Indian managers or supervisors might help the organizations to deal with employee retention. The objective five of the study was to investigate the combined effect of employer branding and servant leadership on employee retention practices. The results revealed that both employer branding and servant leadership were significantly associated with employee retention practices. This meant that strong employer branding in collaboration with servant leadership style were found to influence employee retention practices. Additionally, this study also examined a model of employee turnover related to servant leadership, employer brand perception, satisfaction with retention practices and employee turnover intentions, and found that both employer brand perception and the level of satisfaction with retention practices sequentially mediated the servant leadership-turnover relationship. Earlier research does shed light on the role of servant leadership in influencing employee turnover intentions, but the underlying mechanisms explaining these relationships have not been widely explored. By accepting that the role of servant leadership helps in building and influencing a positive employer brand image, organizations would do well to inculcate the ethos of servant leadership behaviour in their value system. Specifically, this research provides organizations with guidelines on how leaders can exhibit service oriented behaviour and help subordinates grow and develop and ultimately encourage them to become servants and believe in serving others.

6.2 IMPLICATIONS

In good or bad times, in every sector, a key metric for any successful organization is its ability to attract and retain talent (Sonier, 2011). These are the organizations those stands different from their competitors by driving growth, increasing profits and developing and enhancing the best practices to nurture the talent, which ultimately provide organizations a competitive edge over the others. The findings of the study provide several implications for the organizations.

First, the study suggested that creation of employer brand image is not limited to the process of recruitment. The organizations need to continuously build and maintain their employer brand throughout the employment life cycle as lack of brand promise fulfilment at any stage of employment cycle, will likely to affect employee's satisfaction which ultimately results in severe behavioral outcomes such as low performance, morale, high turnover intentions. In order to attract and build a strong human capital, not working on employer brand strategies is no longer a choice for any organization. Not devising market driven strategies for a unique employer brand is destructive not only for the existing employees but also makes it difficult for the organizations to

attract top talent due to employee's lack of trust in organizations. Organizations should understand the importance of culture that helps in building the trustworthy relationships in a workplace and create an employer brand that helps increase the employee's identification with the organizations and keep them motivated to work beyond their normal limits to enhance the workplace performance.

Second, the results provide insights on the role of leadership in enhancing the relationships between employer brand perception and employee retention. Organizations can make use of and can train their leaders to enhance and communicate the employer brand message consistently to all the stakeholders. Continuous interactions between employees and their leaders will help organizations receive the feedback on the various best practices adopted by the organizations and help them improving the culture according to the needs of specific target audience i.e. existing employees. The organizations should take the employee's feedback and exit interviews seriously to overcome the problems of dissatisfaction and high employee turnover. If the organizations stop maintaining the employer brand image the employees will always look for the better opportunities with other competitors that provide an exciting workplace, attainment of new skills for advancement of careers and ultimately feel pride in working. Even the results of the study revealed that employees prefer an employer brand which believes in enhancing the social and development value for employees. Organizations can help creating a social value for the employees by encouraging the open communication between superior and subordinates to create a culture of openness where colleagues support and encourage each other. In order to enhance the development value for the employees' organizations should align their business strategy with the human resource strategies of the organization so that employees can find the alignment of their career with the goal of the organization. Human resource strategies of the organization should be devised in a manner that employees get enough opportunities to apply what they have acquired during the training programs. Also, it will help employees attain high competence level that ultimately help organizations build a rare and non-substitutable human capital.

Further, the results of the study effectively contribute to existing literature on servant leadership, employer branding, satisfaction with retention practices and employee turnover intentions in following ways: First, a lack of existing framework establishing the relationship among the variables under study persuaded the researcher to theoretically establish and empirically investigate a conceptual model that linked servant leadership theory with employer brand perception to deal with employee attitude at work. The results of the study empirically

demonstrated for the first time that servant leadership style with internal branding concept i.e. employer brand perception, influenced employee perception regarding their leaders and this perception in turn, influenced the level of satisfaction with retention practices, which in turn, reduced their intent to turnover.

Second, drawing on the social identity theory, the researcher found that employer brand perception was a strong factor that mediated the servant leadership-turnover intentions relationship significantly and was a factor that may enhance the self-esteem of the employees. Theory of social identity states that it is more likely that individuals seek membership of organizations that help in enhancing their self-esteem. This study contributes to existing literature on servant leadership, employer branding, satisfaction with retention practices and turnover intentions by investigating and reporting employer brand perception as an important underlying mechanism influencing servant leadership-turnover relationship.

The theoretical model proposed and its empirical findings have some important implications for organizations as well. For many decades, high employee turnover has remained one of the major concerns for organizations and subject of focus for academics (Yang, Wan and Fu 2012). Organizations worldwide are struggling hard to attract and retain the talent pool to gain competitive advantage. In today's ever-changing business environment, managing high employee turnover of highly skilled technical, professional and managerial employees is a major challenge for organizations, especially in the 21st century where tight labour markets are prevalent and the economy is experiencing a slowdown (Batt and Valcour 2003). In a scenario like this, it becomes important for organizations to understand the impact of servant leadership style in portraying a positive organisational brand image to attract the talent pool and increase employee retentions.

According to a survey conducted by Hay Group India, 161.7 million employees are set to leave their jobs globally (Biswas 2013). As per the findings of the study, expected employee turnover rate in India in 2013 was 26.9% followed by Russia (26.8%), Indonesia (25.8%), Brazil (24.4%), U.S (21.8%), China (21.3%) and UK (14.6%) posing employee turnover as a critical issue confronting organizations worldwide (Biswas 2013). The study also highlights that one in four employees in the Indian organized sector is set to switch jobs contributing to highest attrition rate globally in 2013. Indian organizations should give a serious thought to the issue of employee turnover as findings reveal that out of the total Indian employees surveyed, 55% employees were concerned about the fairness of their compensation and 37% employees felt a lack of confidence in achieving their career goals with the current employer and were always looking for better

opportunities in emerging markets (Biswas 2013). The study seeks to draw the attention of employers to inculcate servant leadership behaviour in their leaders through training and counseling to develop an organizational culture of mutual trust where development of the employees is encouraged and is the foremost concern of the leaders. This might help organizations deal with high employee turnover rates in today's competitive arena.

6.3 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter on conclusion and implications presents the discussion on conclusion made and implication drawn from the research findings. The research conclude that although some the independent dimensions of employer branding and servant leadership might have not influenced the employees' satisfaction with retention practices and turnover intentions however, the overall perception of employer branding and servant leadership style was helpful in influencing employees' satisfaction with retention practices and reducing their turnover intentions. This meant that if the employer branding strategy of an organization is demonstrated effectively by leaders with service orientation it will help the organizations to retain and attract the top talent and diminish the effect of voluntary turnover. This mechanism could also possibly give organizations a competitive advantage over others in a sense that long term stay of employees in any organization builds the strong human capital which is a non-imitable and non-substitutable resource of any organization.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

This chapter highlights the limitations of the study and proposes future research direction in light of research findings of the study. The chapter is divided into two sub-sections. Section one discusses the limitations of the study and the other section propose the future research directions.

7.1 LIMITATIONS

As no research study is free from limitations, the current research study also has certain limitations.

1. The results obtained and inferences drawn were based on cross-sectional research design. Although the literature supports that cross-sectional research designs are helpful in collecting data from large sample size however, the cross-sectional research designs are not suited to establish the relationships of causality. For instance, in the current research the satisfaction with retention practices and reduced turnover intentions might not be due to the only effect of strong employer brand perception and servant leadership style followed by Indian supervisors. It may also be because of other factors that have not been studied in the current research. For instance, one can argue than employees' satisfaction with the retention practices and reduced turnover intentions might be a result of employees' needs at specific point of time. Other organizational factors such as co-worker support, emotional attachment with the organization, children education or distance of organizations from one's home may also have certain influence on employees' turnover behavior.
2. The researchers focus on only one style of leadership i.e. servant leadership that might have influenced the results because in different organizations different leadership styles prevails. So, it also becomes confusing for respondents to differentiate between the traits of leaders and might have possibly perceived different leadership style and could possibly have observed some overlap between the leadership styles such as transformational leadership or charismatic leadership.
3. A small representation from female respondents in the study made it more difficult to draw inferences based on gender differentiation in terms of their perception with respect to employer branding, servant leadership and employee retention. For instance no significant differences have been observed between males and females in their perception of some

variables of the study. This might be because of small representation of female participants. So, the generalization of such findings is not possible to the whole population.

4. Although the researcher has checked for the common method bias in the study however, this cannot be ruled out specifically when the data has been collected one time. But at the same time the findings and implications have been drawn in light of the strong theoretical framework.
5. The current research study has focused on only two mediating variables to establish the relationships between servant leadership and turnover intentions. There could be some other mediators also in organizational settings that might better explain the relationships between the variables under study.
6. The study considered only perception of employees with respect to retention practices and their withdrawal cognitions. It might be possible that employees have reported socially desirable answers to be on safer side. The respondents self-serving bias is another limitation of the study as the data collected is survey based.
7. The data collected for the current research study was heterogeneous as no industry specific employees had been surveyed. This meant that findings of the study are not generalizable to the other industries which have not been covered in the study.
8. Another limitation of the study is the assessment of the employee's turnover intentions. Although turnover intentions was found to be a better predictor of actual turnover (Carmeli and Weisberg, 2006) yet, more accurate conclusions from the study can be made with data on actual turnover rather than intentions. It may be possible that employees might be afraid that a high turnover intention will harm their internal careers so that lying might be a dominant strategy.

8.2 FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

1. Future research studies could focus on longitudinal research design to reach more valid conclusions. Employer branding is not a stable strategy for any organization. Organizations need to continuously build and maintain its employer brand as per the changing expectations of employees and market demands. It would be interesting to study the effects of employer brand perception on employee withdrawal cognitions over a period of time and to find out how this relationship changes with change in the business environment.
2. The study has opened new avenues for further research: this study investigated only employee turnover intentions, so apart from analysing only the turnover intentions, actual

turnover rates could also be considered by future researchers as respondents may have given inaccurate or biased responses regarding their intent to turnover.

3. Other organizational variables such as employee job performance, organizational commitment, organizational performance, firm's productivity and profits may be looked into as areas of study to investigate the influence of servant leadership style on these variables. Also, it will be interesting to find out the difference in the firm's profits and productivity between the companies with employer brand or without employer brand.
4. Other social exchange relationships such as employees' relationships with their respective organizations and colleagues and the influence of such relations on employees' decisions to turnover may be further studied. It would be interesting to determine which social exchange relationship is the most important in influencing the employees' beliefs while working with servant leaders.
5. Self-esteem, socialization processes and organizational cultures may further be observed as underlying mechanisms establishing the relationship between servant leadership, employer brand perception, trust in leaders and turnover intentions.
6. Future researcher can also focus on the scale development and validation for measuring employer brand perception Indian context as no scale has been developed so far in measuring the employer brand image in Indian context.
7. Future research studies should also include the employee's trust in co-workers as it may provide more clarity on the whole employer brand management process. Specifically, future researchers should focus on how the other concepts of organizational behavior like motivation, leadership are related with the creation of a successful employer brand.
8. The future research studies should take into consideration the equal representation from both males and females regarding their perception about variables of the study so that better conclusions can be drawn on gender differentiation.
9. Further industry specific research should be focused so that one can conclude that which organizational sector is commanding in the creation of employer branding strategy to retain the talented employees. Also, this will shed light on the various aspects of leadership attitude of top management across industries regarding their seriousness on the issue.
10. Another important consideration for future research studies can be the inclusion of trust in organizations, trust in leaders and trust in co-workers in the model of employee turnover to test the impact of trust on employee retention.

7.3 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter highlighted the limitations and future research directions. Cross-sectional research designs, data collected on self-report survey were the major limitations of the study. Future researchers are encouraged to use longitudinal research designs to establish the relationships of causality and to generalize the findings. Specifically future researchers are encouraged to develop and validate the scales to measure employer branding and servant leadership in Indian context. Additionally other variables such as organizational identification, external prestige and other leadership style should also be focused while investigating employee retention.

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ANNEXURE-1

Indian Institute of Technology, Roorkee

Department of Management Studies

Dear Participants,

Greetings!

Employee retention has always been an important issue facing the organizations worldwide. Retention of employees in an organization largely depends upon the employee satisfaction with organizational policies and practices and organizational leadership. Employer brand perception and servant leadership are recent trends that organizations adopt to retain their valuable employees. In this study we aim to investigate the impact of employer branding and servant leadership on employee retention.

In this direction the attached research instrument is a tool that helps us understand your perceptions about the organizational policies and practices and organizational leadership. Your response will add value to our research as well as to the literature. We therefore request your response to the survey. Your response will enhance the reliability of the findings of this research. In return for your participation, we undertake to respect strictly your anonymity by using your responses only as statistical data for the research.

Completed questionnaire may be sent through email at following email id:
Vaneet21kashyap@gmail.com

Thank you in anticipation, for your helpful response.

Yours sincerely
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PART-A

1. Name: (Optional) _____
2. Name of the organization: _____
3. Age: 21-25 26-30 31-35 36-40 41-45 Above 45
4. Gender: Male Female
5. Designation/ Job Position: _____
6. Current Job hierarchy: Junior Level Middle Level Senior Level
7. Current Organization is: Private Public Not for profit others
8. Experience with Current organization (in Years): 0-5 6-10 11-15 16-20 Above 20
9. Total Experience:(in Years): 0-5 6-10 11-15 16-20 Above 20
10. Name of my Leader is: Mr./ Ms. _____
11. Age of the Leader: a) 25-35 b) 35-45 c) 45-55 d) Above 55
12. My Email ID is: _____
13. My Contact No. is: _____

Employer Branding

Please respond to the following items as per their rating while evaluating your employer. Mark (√) for the extent at which following attributes are present with your current employer as per the following statements as per directions.

How important are the following to you when considering your employers?

1. Recognition/appreciation from management

1- To a very little extent 2- Some little extent 3-Neutral 4-Some great extent 5- To a very great extent

2. A fun working environment

1- To a very little extent 2- Some little extent 3.Neutral 4-Some great extent 5- To a very great extent

3. A Platform for future employment

1- To a very little extent 2- Some little extent 3-Neutral 4-Some great extent 5- To a very great extent

4. Feeling good about yourself as a result of working for organization you work with

1- To a very little extent 2- Some little extent 3-Neutral 4-Some great extent 5- To a very great extent

5. Feeling more self-confident as a result of working for a organization you work with

1- To a very little extent 2- Some little extent 3-Neutral 4-Some great extent 5- To a very great extent

6. Gaining career-enhancing experience

1- To a very little extent 2- Some little extent 3-Neutral 4-Some great extent 5- To a very great extent

7. Having a good relationship with your superiors

1- To a very little extent 2- Some little extent 3-Neutral 4-Some great extent 5- To a very great extent

8. Having a good relationship with your colleagues

1- To a very little extent 2- Some little extent 3-Neutral 4-Some great extent 5- To a very great extent

9. Supportive and encouraging colleagues

1- To a very little extent 2- Some little extent 3-Neutral 4-Some great extent 5- To a very great extent

10. Working in an exciting environment

1- To a very little extent 2- Some little extent 3-Neutral 4-Some great extent 5- To a very great extent

11. Innovative employer – novel work practices/forward-thinking

1- To a very little extent 2- Some little extent 3-Neutral 4-Some great extent 5- To a very great extent

12. The organization both values and makes use of your creativity

1- To a very little extent 2- Some little extent 3-Neutral 4-Some great extent 5- To a very great extent

13. The organization produces high-quality products and services

1- To a very little extent 2- Some little extent 3-Neutral 4-Some great extent 5- To a very great extent

14. The organization produces innovative products and services1

1-To a very little extent 2- Some little extent 3-Neutral 4-Some great extent 5- To a very great extent

15. Good promotion opportunities within the organization

1-To a very little extent 2- Some little extent 3-Neutral 4-Some great extent 5- To a very great extent

16. Humanitarian organization – gives back to society

1-To a very little extent 2- Some little extent 3-Neutral 4-Some great extent 5- To a very great extent

17. Opportunity to teach others what you have learned

1-To a very little extent 2- Some little extent 3-Neutral 4-Some great extent 5- To a very great extent

18. Opportunity to apply what was learned at a tertiary institution

1- To a very little extent 2- Some little extent 3-Neutral 4-Some great extent 5- To a very great extent

19. Acceptance and belonging

1- To a very little extent 2- Some little extent 3-Neutral 4-Some great extent 5- To a very great extent

20. The organization is customer-orientated

1- To a very little extent 2- Some little extent 3-Neutral 4-Some great extent 5- To a very great extent

21. Job security within the organization

1- To a very little extent 2- Some little extent 3-Neutral 4-Some great extent 5- To a very great extent

22. Hands-on inter-departmental experience

1- To a very little extent 2- Some little extent 3-Neutral 4-Some great extent 5- To a very great extent

23. Happy work environment

1- To a very little extent 2- Some little extent 3-Neutral 4-Some great extent 5- To a very great extent

24. An above average basic salary

1- To a very little extent 2- Some little extent 3-Neutral 4-Some great extent 5- To a very great extent

25. An attractive overall compensation package

1- To a very little extent 2- Some little extent 3-Neutral 4-Some great extent 5- To a very great extent

Servant Leadership

Please mark a (√) for the following leadership attributes of your immediate supervisors as per the following directions:

1. My manager gives me the information I need to do my work well.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly Agree

2. My manager encourages me to use my talents.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly Agree

3. My manager helps me to further develop myself.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly Agree

4. My manager encourages his/her staff to come up with new ideas.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly Agree

5. My manager keeps himself/herself in the background and gives credits to others.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly Agree

6. My manager holds me responsible for the work I carry out.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly Agree

7. My manager does not criticize people for the mistakes they have made in their work.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly Agree

8. My manager takes risks even when he/she is not certain of the support from his/her own manager.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly Agree

9. My manager is open about his/her limitations and weaknesses.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly Agree

10. My manager learns from criticism.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly Agree

11. My manager emphasizes the importance of focusing on the good of the whole.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly Agree

12. My manager gives me the authority to take decisions which make work easier for me.

1- *Strongly disagree* 2- *Disagree* 3- *Neutral* 4- *Agree* 5- *Strongly Agree*

13. My manager is not chasing recognition or rewards for the things he/she does for others.

1- *Strongly disagree* 2- *Disagree* 3- *Neutral* 4- *Agree* 5- *Strongly Agree*

14. I am held accountable for my performance by my manager.

1- *Strongly disagree* 2- *Disagree* 3- *Neutral* 4- *Agree* 5- *Strongly Agree*

15. My manager maintains a soft attitude towards people who have offended him/her at work.

1- *Strongly disagree* 2- *Disagree* 3- *Neutral* 4- *Agree* 5- *Strongly Agree*

16. My manager takes risks and does what needs to be done in his/her view.

1- *Strongly disagree* 2- *Disagree* 3- *Neutral* 4- *Agree* 5- *Strongly Agree*

17. My manager is often touched by the things he/she sees happening around him/her.

1- *Strongly disagree* 2- *Disagree* 3- *Neutral* 4- *Agree* 5- *Strongly Agree*

18. My manager tries to learn from the criticism he/she gets from his/her superior.

1- *Strongly disagree* 2- *Disagree* 3- *Neutral* 4- *Agree* 5- *Strongly Agree*

19. My manager has a long-term vision.

1- *Strongly disagree* 2- *Disagree* 3- *Neutral* 4- *Agree* 5- *Strongly Agree*

20. My manager enables me to solve problems myself instead of just telling me what to do.

1- *Strongly disagree* 2- *Disagree* 3- *Neutral* 4- *Agree* 5- *Strongly Agree*

21. My manager appears to enjoy his/her colleagues' success more than his/her own.

1- *Strongly disagree* 2- *Disagree* 3- *Neutral* 4- *Agree* 5- *Strongly Agree*

22. My manager holds me and my colleagues responsible for the way we handle a job.

1- *Strongly disagree* 2- *Disagree* 3- *Neutral* 4- *Agree* 5- *Strongly Agree*

23. My manager easily forgets things that went wrong in the past.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly Agree

24. My manager is prepared to express his/her feelings even if this might have undesirable consequences.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly Agree

25. My manager admits his/her mistakes to his/her superior.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly Agree

26. My manager emphasizes the societal responsibility of our work.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly Agree

27. My manager offers me abundant opportunities to learn new skills.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly Agree

28. My manager shows his/her true feelings to his/her staff.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly Agree

29. My manager learns from the different views and opinions of others.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly Agree

30. If people express criticism, my manager tries to learn from it.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly Agree

Employee Retention Practices and Turnover Intentions

Please read the following statements carefully and mark your responses as per the directions.

The statements below describe various aspects of your compensation (Pay, benefits, etc.) For each statement, decide how satisfied or dissatisfied you feel about your compensation.

1. My benefit package.

1- Very dissatisfied 2- Dissatisfied 3-Neutral 4- Satisfied 5- Very Satisfied

2. My most recent raise.

1- Very dissatisfied 2- Dissatisfied 3-Neutral 4- Satisfied 5- Very Satisfied

3. The information about pay issues provided by the company.

1- Very dissatisfied 2- Dissatisfied 3-Neutral 4- Satisfied 5- Very Satisfied

4. The company's pay structure.

1- Very dissatisfied 2- Dissatisfied 3-Neutral 4- Satisfied 5- Very Satisfied

5. Influence my supervisor has on my pay.

1- Very dissatisfied 2- Dissatisfied 3-Neutral 4- Satisfied 5- Very Satisfied

6. The value of my benefits.

1- Very dissatisfied 2- Dissatisfied 3-Neutral 4- Satisfied 5- Very Satisfied

7. Consistency of the company's pay policies.

1- Very dissatisfied 2- Dissatisfied 3-Neutral 4- Satisfied 5- Very Satisfied

8. Size of my current financial incentives.

1- Very dissatisfied 2- Dissatisfied 3-Neutral 4- Satisfied 5- Very Satisfied

9. The number of benefits I receive.

1- Very dissatisfied 2- Dissatisfied 3-Neutral 4- Satisfied 5- Very Satisfied

10. How my raises are determined?

1- Very dissatisfied 2- Dissatisfied 3-Neutral 4- Satisfied 5- Very Satisfied

11. How the company administers pay?

1- Very dissatisfied 2- Dissatisfied 3-Neutral 4- Satisfied 5- Very Satisfied

12. My current total salary package (base pay, benefits and incentives).

1- Very dissatisfied 2- Dissatisfied 3-Neutral 4- Satisfied 5- Very Satisfied

13. The competitiveness of my total salary package (base pay, benefits and incentives).

1- Very dissatisfied 2- Dissatisfied 3-Neutral 4- Satisfied 5- Very Satisfied

The statements below describe various aspects of your job (job characteristics, training, career development opportunities and work-life balance etc.) For each statement, decide how agree or disagree you feel about your job related factors as per the following statements.

14. The job requires me to use a number of complex or high level skills.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly agree

15. The job provides me many opportunities to use my personal initiative or judgement in carrying out the work.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly agree

16. The job is neither simple nor repetitive.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly agree

17. The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly agree

18. The company is providing me with job specific training.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly agree

19. Sufficient time is allocated for product and solution training.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly agree

20. I can apply the training I receive, in this organization.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly agree

21. There are enough development opportunities for me in this company.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly agree

22. Sufficient money is allocated for product and solution training.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly agree

23. I have the opportunity to be involved in activities that promote my professional development.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly agree

24. My chances for being promoted are good.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly agree

25. There are enough career opportunities for me in this organization.

1- *Strongly disagree* 2- *Disagree* 3- *Neutral* 4- *Agree* 5- *Strongly agree*

26. Job vacancies at this organization are usually filled by people from outside this organization.

1- *Strongly disagree* 2- *Disagree* 3- *Neutral* 4- *Agree* 5- *Strongly agree*

27. It would be easy to find a job in another department.

1- *Strongly disagree* 2- *Disagree* 3- *Neutral* 4- *Agree* 5- *Strongly agree*

28. An employee who applies for another job at this organization has a better chance of getting that job than someone from outside this organization who applies for the job.

1- *Strongly disagree* 2- *Disagree* 3- *Neutral* 4- *Agree* 5- *Strongly agree*

29. An employee's career development is important to this organization.

1- *Strongly disagree* 2- *Disagree* 3- *Neutral* 4- *Agree* 5- *Strongly agree*

30. I do not feel there is too much work to do.

1- *Strongly disagree* 2- *Disagree* 3- *Neutral* 4- *Agree* 5- *Strongly agree*

31. My work schedule is not in conflict with my personal life.

1- *Strongly disagree* 2- *Disagree* 3- *Neutral* 4- *Agree* 5- *Strongly agree*

32. My job does not affect my role as a spouse and/or a parent.

1- *Strongly disagree* 2- *Disagree* 3- *Neutral* 4- *Agree* 5- *Strongly agree*

33. My job has positive effects on my personal life.

1- *Strongly disagree* 2- *Disagree* 3- *Neutral* 4- *Agree* 5- *Strongly agree*

34. I will actively look for a new job in the next year.

1- *Strongly disagree* 2- *Disagree* 3- *Neutral* 4- *Agree* 5- *Strongly agree*

35. I think about quitting my job.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly agree

36. I probably look for a new job by the next year.

1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly agree