Impact Of Psychological Empowerment On Academic Staff Turnover With Mediating Role Of Job Satisfaction In An Underdeveloped Country

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ABSTRACT

This research article investigates the effects of psychological empowerment on academic staff members' turnover as mediated by job satisfaction in the higher education sector in an underdeveloped country. Data was collected from 255 academic staff members working at 11 conveniently selected private universities in Kabul, the capital city of Afghanistan. Statistical procedures such as descriptive statistics, reliability, validity, the goodness of fit, and SEM were utilized to analyze the data quantitatively. The analysis results showed that psychological empowerment significantly affected faculty turnover (Beta = -0.448, t = -5.531) and job satisfaction (Beta = 0.718, t = 15.956) in private universities in Afghanistan. In addition, the results indicated that job satisfaction mediated the relationship between psychological empowerment and turnover (Beta = -0.223, t = -3.982).

Keywords: psychological, empowerment, academic, staff, turnover, job, satisfaction, underdeveloped, country

1. INTRODUCTION

Turnover of skilled personnel is problematic and perilous for the very kinds of organizations as it fetters organizations' competitive advantage and impedes organizational capabilities to achieve their strategic milestones (Memon et al., 2015). It is undeniable that the withdrawal of competent and talented employees upturns the staffing and training cost of the organizations (Allen et al., 2010); it also reduces the optimal output quality and productivity level of the organizations (Juhdi, Pa'wan, & Hansaram, 2013, p.3002); it adversely influences the moral level of the staff members remaining in the organization (Johnson, 1995, p.54). Similarly, Johnson (1995, p.54) depicted that the increase in enterprise's direct cost, work disruption, delays in meeting the objectives, and institutional amnesia are the other foremost concerns associated with employee excessive quitting. He contended that these issues could have intense undesirable impacts on an organization's overall performance to remain competitive in the global arena (p.48).

Turnover is a curse for all kinds of organizations; however, its negative impacts are extremely pervasive in the education sector. Educational institutions such as universities play a pivotal role in a country's social growth and economic development (Grant, C. 2017). They increase the efficiency and effectiveness of a country's human capital and determine a society's competencies, skills, and other productivity-enhancing potentials (p.2).

Meanwhile, teachers are the most critical human resource in every educational institution since they have the potential to fulfill the mission of educational institutions to transform the upcoming generations of a country (Shetty, B. R., & Gujarathi, R. 2012, p. 2). Faculty turnover is a severe problem for institutes of higher education. It increases the cost to select, recruit and train the replacement personnel (Kim et al., 2012, p. 39); besides the financial loss, turnover causes disruption in the educational programs and harms the quality, reputation, and overall effectiveness of universities (De, 2004, p. 593).

Kim et al. (2012, p. 39) argued that a high rate of voluntary faculty turnover could be interpreted as a sunk cost for higher educational institutions as they invest heavily in faculty development. Similarly, Ehranenberg, Rizzo, and Condie (2003) maintained that US universities in technology and engineering annually spend four to five hundred thousand US dollars on their faculty development program at the assistant professor level. They maintained that faculty development cost reaches from seven hundred thousand to one and a half million US dollars at a more senior level (p. 6). In addition, to the financial loss, faculty turnover can have detrimental impacts on the morale of the remaining faculty and the students who strive to impart and receive quality educational services (Olsen, 1992). She maintained that faculty withdrawals disturb the continuity of educational and research programs in a university, cause students' dissatisfaction with and reduce their trust in the university (p. 36). Similarly, Terry and Kritsonis (2008) claimed a direct link between the student's educational attainment and retention and faculty turnover rate, finding that students attain better education in schools with lower faculty turnover rates.

Managing employee turnover is one of the greatest challenges for universities everywhere, especially for the ones in the least developed countries with limited skillful human resources, such as Afghanistan. In addition, due to the continuous devastating war and infighting for the last four decades in Afghanistan, most of its talented and skillful workforce have fled the country and have not returned yet. The intensive migration of highly qualified Afghans to foreign countries has created a

severe shortage of competent human resources in the country. Given the acute shortage of talented, qualified teachers in the country, faculty retention assumes significance for the university administration in Afghanistan. This led inspired researchers and practitioners to remain inquisitive to know about the factors that could influence teachers' job satisfaction within the universities in Afghanistan.

The massive amount of research findings described that an enhanced level of job satisfaction deters employee turnover in organizations (e.g., Griffeth et al., 2000; Kim and Park, 2014; Ghada et al., 2017). In fact, scholars such as (Tett and Meyer 1993, p. 260) claimed that compared to other attitudinal factors, job satisfaction more strongly prevents employee turnover in the organization.

Similarly, Rosser (2004) and Kim et al. (2012) depicted that in academia, the level of job satisfaction among faculty members strongly predicts their intent to quit. Instructors with a lower level of job satisfaction are more inclined to withdraw behaviors such as alternative job search and actual quitting than those with a higher level of satisfaction (Kim et al., 2012, p. 39). Given that job satisfaction has a significant negative relationship with faculty turnover, the leadership of the universities should find out how various factors could enhance faculty level of job satisfaction to create a holistic knowledge about the association between job satisfaction and faculty turnover.

Psychological empowerment enhanced faculty job satisfaction in the universities (Abd Patah et al. 2009, p. 128). Similarly, Iftikhar M. & Khan S. (2019, p. 3) suggested that psychological empowerment improves employees' level of job satisfaction that undeniably reduces the turnover rate.

However, there are very few studies investigating the linkages between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, and turnover in higher education institutions, particularly in underdeveloped countries. The current study aimed to investigate the relationship between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, and faculty turnover in private universities in Afghanistan. The findings of this study will develop a holistic understanding of the relationship between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, and faculty turnover in the universities of Afghanistan. Such an understanding will help the university leadership increase the job satisfaction level of faculty members and deter their intention to quit.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW
2.1. Psychological Empowerment
The notion of empowerment is thoroughly studied in the field of political sciences, sociology, psychology, and management (Eljaaidi, N. M. 2016). Scholars of these various fields provided different insights and interpretations of empowerment (p. 450). The number of definitions of empowerment in the reviewed literature portrays the multiple facets of this notion.

Thorlakson and Robert (1996) called empowerment a process intended to enhance individuals' self-efficacy and prevent them from feeling powerless (p. 2). Similarly, Blanchard (2003, P.39) preserved that through the process of empowerment, organizations assist their personnel in increasing their self-confidence level, effectively coping with the feeling of helplessness, and in raising their internal motivation to successfully accomplish their tasks. According to Conger and Kanungo (1988), through empowering, organizations increase individuals' self-efficacy and motivational level that in turn enhances their level of productivity at the workplace (P. 478). Moreover, Thomas &Velthouse (1990) denoted that power is positive energy and empowerment is a process through which employees are stimulated and energized at the workplace to perform their duties with more confidence and enthusiasm (p.667).

However, others referred to empowerment as an organizational strategy for descending responsibilities and authority from the upper echelon to the lower positions in the organization (Ghosh 2013). In taking the empowerment strategy, organizations enable the individuals at lower ranks of the hierarchy to make their routine decision at the workplace independently. Unlike the classical bureaucracy, where subordinates are recipients of the orders and control of their superiors, empowerment facilitates self-determination and self-control among the low-level employees performing their jobs (Han, 2015). It encourages individuals to straightforwardly take part in decision-making and openly express their concerns regarding work-related issues and organizational problems.

The literature review indicates that there are two main approaches (macro and micro) for investigating employee empowerment in the organization. The first perspective denotes formal and informal managerial practices and procedures for shifting responsibilities and related authority down the organizational hierarchy (Empowerment, W. E. 2018). It is also referred to as structural empowerment. Hechanove et al. (2006, p. 72) referred to structural empowerment as sharing four organizational constituents with lower order employees; 1) information related to organizational performance, 2) performance-based rewards, 3) knowledge about individual's contributions to the organizational outcomes, 4) the authority to make decisions that effects organizational outcomes.

Structural empowerment incorporates HRM techniques such as job enrichment, job enlargement, participative decision making, a delegation of authority, and decentralization that facilitate the transfer of managerial power and responsibilities from higher order positions to the lower order positions in the organization (Geralis and Terziovski 2003).

On the other hand, the micro perspective endorses empowerment as an individual's motivational and psychological state. Psychological empowerment delineates individuals' attitudes and perceptions toward their jobs and roles in the organization (Huang et al., 2006). From this perspective, empowerment is realized as an individual mental and emotional state through which individuals perceive themselves as empowered members of the organization. According to Conger and Kanungo (1988), managerial practices and structural arrangements related to empowerment are the essential precursors for actual empowerment; however, they are not enough. They preserved the real empowerment is engendered from an individual's state of mind; employees are empowered only if they perceive that they are empowered (p. 478). In addition, they maintained that individuals' enhanced level of self-confidence and strong belief in their self-efficacy improves their level of self-empowerment.

Thomas & Velthouse (1990) referred to psychological empowerment as a multifaceted construct of intrinsic motivation and a stimulation process rather being a delegation process (p.667). They preserved that employees, through their cognitive system, interpret their work-environment characteristics onto empowerment behaviors.

Similarly, Spreitzer (1995, p. 1443) referred to empowerment as an intrinsic motivational conception underpinning four cognitive states; 1) meaning, 2) competence, 3) self-determination, and 4) impact. They preserved that all of them reveal a lively orientation to a workplace environment.

1. Meaning: it refers to the concurrence between employees' values, standard, and beliefs and their work role in the organization. If the work role that an individual has in the organization is more fit to and privileged by the values and standards he/she posits, a greater sense of Meaning will be possessed. Spreitzer (1995) maintained that the enhanced level of a perceived sense of Meaning within employees increases their level of motivation and productivity at the workplace.

2. Competence: it refers to an individual's level of self-efficacy related to his/her duties in the organization. Employees who are more proficient and competent in their job feel more empowered at the workplace. Conger and Kanungo (1988) maintained that a state of self-empowerment is the aftermath of an increased level of self-efficacy and self-confidence.

3. Self-determination: refers to the level of control or autonomy that an individual has regarding the instigation or regulation of his/her actions at the workplace. Employees who have a higher level of discretion about work procedures, pace, time, and efforts have a greater sense of self-determination.

4. Impact: it refers to an individual's belief that he/she can signify the managerial process in the organization; and that he/she could affect operational outcomes within their work unit. Employees who are engaged in the decision-making process and who feel at ease to state their viewpoints about their issues at the workplace will have a greater sense of Impact.

Spreitzer (1995, P.1444) depicted that the above four cognitive states together reveal an individual's lively orientation to his/her work role and workplace environment.

In this study, the author utilized Spreitzer's (1995) four-dimension psychological empowerment construct to examine faculty empowerment and its Impact on faculty job satisfaction and turnover in private universities in Afghanistan.

Since the very beginning, universities have been dominated by the traditional tall hierarchal structures and bureaucratic models of management. Under the traditional perspective, universities are extensively conquered by formalized strategies, predefined policies, well-known procedures, distinct processes, and scripted roles. The excessive amount of formalization limits human discretion and autonomy in the workplace as well as makes the work itself extremely automatic and habitual (Vohora, A. et al., 2004).

However, due to the rapid change and increasing competition in higher education, the traditional hierarchal model seems not to be viable any longer. The work processes of the contemporary higher education institutions operating in a turbulent environment are absolutely vulnerable to a high level of variability and uncertainty that requires the cognitive ad emotional engagement of the employees at work in order to recognize and react to the contextual cues to analyze the obscure and avoid the potential risk (Joyner, P. 2008).

As a result, to mitigate the Impact of the dynamism and increasing complexity involved in the higher education sector, universities need to change the traditional managerial model and adopt new management approaches that not only value the acknowledgment and liberation of knowledge workers but also enhance the cognitive and emotional engagement at work and promote their innovative behaviors. According to Yilmaz (2015, P.35), employees' innovative behaviors and creativity are crucial for all types of organizations in the modern age to survive and stay competitive in the marketplace, particularly for the ones in the service sector.

Jose & Mampilly (2014) suggested that organizations of all kinds should implement empowerment strategies to endorse flexibility, discretion, creativity, and innovation in the workplace. They preserved that employee empowerment is a key distinguishing element of an organization's prime performance (P. 95). Employees who are empowered enthusiastically perform their jobs and improve the quality of the services that the organization provides that in return increases customer satisfaction (Shahril et al. 2013).

Similarly, Lawrence, Ott & Bell (2012) depicted that in academia, faculty empowerment positively correlates with faculty motivation, satisfaction, and performance. In a study conducted in the higher education sector of Pakistan, Abd Patah et al. (2009, p. 128) recommended that faculty members who felt empowered were more satisfied with their jobs as compared to the faculty members who felt powerless.

In addition, Sinha et al. (2016) indicated that psychological empowerment significantly deters turnover in the organization. According to Jordan et al. (2017, p. 17), faculty empowerment improves their level of job satisfaction and deters faculty turnover in universities.

H1: Psychological empowerment of university faculty members has a negative and significant impact on their turnover.

H2: Psychological empowerment of university faculty members has a positive and significant impact on their level of job satisfaction.

2.2 Job Satisfaction

Scholars have defined the concept of job satisfaction in different ways. Lock (1976) defines job satisfaction as a pleasurable emotional state that individuals gain from evaluating their jobs or job-related experiences. Hulpia et al. (2009) refer to job satisfaction as the positive emotions that individuals gains from the experience of job performance. Robbins (2003) urges that it is the positive attitudes of individuals for their job. Beck (1983) states that job satisfaction is the sum of an individual's attitudes regarding multiple aspects of his/her job. Spector (1997) defines job satisfaction as the degree to which individuals like or dislike their job or different aspects of their job.

Job satisfaction is not as simple as it seems. It is a multidimensional personal response from individuals to their job, and these psychological responses contain affective, cognitive, and behavioral components that require different scales for measurement (Hulin and Judge 2003). For example, effective satisfaction, which refers to individuals' emotional feelings about their job, is a subjunctive phenomenon that reflects the degree of pleasure and delight that individuals gain by performing their job. On the other hand, cognitive satisfaction refers to the logical evaluation of different aspects of an individual's job. Cognitive satisfaction tends to be more objective when individuals compare different job facets with their own expectations as well as with other jobs.

Maslow (1943, 1954) was the first who introduce the job satisfaction and job motivation theory. He states that individuals' motives arise to satisfy certain needs, which are hierarchically ranked based on their salience. The important point about Maslow's hierarchy is the belief that individuals will seek the higher order need only if their lower needs are fulfilled. Two factors influence individual need satisfaction: a) the level of significance of various needs for an individual and b) the individual's perception of how various aspects of his/her life indeed address these needs. In an organizational context, individuals develop positive or negative attitudes toward their jobs on the bases of their perception of the presence or absence of positively-valued job facets that address individual specific needs (Porter, 1961).

In contrast, Herzberg (1959) argues that work facets that are indicative of job satisfaction are different from the factors that are indicative of job dissatisfaction. He called external job facets such as salary or remuneration, job security, working conditions, company policies, and supervisor as hygiene, factors that lead to dissatisfaction if employees perceive them as inadequate or inappropriate; whereas he called internal job facets such as a sense of achievement, recognition from superiors and colleagues, responsibility and opportunity for personal growth and advancement as motivators, factors that leads Job satisfaction. Bogler (2001) and Pearson &Moomaw (2005) call opportunities for professional advancement, empowerment, collaboration, and employee autonomy contributing factors to job satisfaction. Crossman and Harris (2006) classify the overall job satisfaction contributors as i) environmental, ii) psychological, and iii) demographic.

Moreover, employee satisfaction is positively correlated with work-related behaviors such as organizational citizenship. On the other hand, employee satisfaction is negatively correlated with employee absenteeism and turnover (Organ et al. 1995). Griffith (2003) and Hulpia et al. (2009) state that teacher job satisfaction can be a great indicator of teachers' retention in and commitment to the school, leading to overall school effectiveness. Similarly, faculty members' satisfaction with their job deter their intention to leave; thus, those who are more satisfied are less likely to leave their jobs (Kim et al., 2013).

In addition, Bin Abdullah et al. (2015, p. 36) stated that psychological empowerment is a significant precursor of employee job satisfaction in the workplace. Moreover, Jordan et al. (2017) examined the linkages between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, and faculty turnover and indicated that psychological empowerment significantly deters turnover in the organization. They preserved that faculty empowerment improves their level of job satisfaction and deter faculty turnover in the universities (p. 17).

H3: Job Satisfaction has a significant and negative relationship with faculty turnover intention.
H3b: Job Satisfaction mediates the association between faculty psychological empowerment and turnover intention.

2.3 Turnover Intention

Turnover intent denotes the idiosyncratic perception of quitting the present job shortly or in the future by an individual to employ new opportunities (F. S. 2016). Three are various available definitions in the literature for turnover intent. For instance, it is described as an individual's willingness and purposefulness to leave the current job (Tett and Meyer 1993, p.262). Likewise, Allen and Meyer (1990) stated that turnover intention portrays an employee's decision to resign from the job and cease working relationship with the employed organization willingly or unwillingly.

Contrastingly, the actual turnover occurs when an employee, in a real sense, quits the job and ceases organizational membership (Price 2001, p. 600). According to Panigrahi T. & Rout M. (2020), turnover represents the number of individuals who quit their jobs and were replaced by new members within an organization during a specific time frame (p.3959).

It is quite difficult to measure the actual turnover, particularly in areas where data about employee turnover is not available. Therefore, researchers use turnover intention to examine turnover since it is the most approximate and valid measure of the actual turnover (Mobley et al. 1979; Castro and Shepherd 2007). Given its practical implication, most of the empirical studies persistently utilize turnover intention to predict employee turnover in organizations. According to Fang Y. (2001, p. 861), turnover intention can be a very safe and appropriate substitute for measuring employees' turnover behaviors in the organization. The present study, therefore, used the construct of turnover intention to the same approach to examine the linkages between psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, and faculty turnover in the universities of Afghanistan.

The negative consequences of employee turnover are examined in a variety of work settings. Faculty members' turnover poses serious concerns for higher educational institutions. It increases the cost to select, recruit and train the replacement personnel (Kim et al., 2012, p. 39); besides the financial loss, turnover causes disruption in the educational programs and harms the quality, reputation, and overall effectiveness of universities (De, 2004, p. 593). Faculty turnover can also have detrimental impacts on the morale of the remaining faculty and the students who strive to impart and receive quality educational services (Olsen, 1992). She maintained that faculty withdrawals disturb the continuity of educational and research programs in a university, cause students' dissatisfaction with and reduce their trust in the university (p. 36).

Universities are coping with the problem of faculty turnover globally. Nevertheless, faculty turnover is a more serious issue for the universities in underdeveloped states the inadequate qualified human resource, like Afghanistan. Therefore, the management of the universities in Afghanistan should understand the factors that deter faculty turnover to successfully manage faculty retention.

An employee's intent to leave is significantly influenced by his/her perceived desirability to quit and the easiness of quitting the present job (March and Simon 1958). Moreover, they preserved that job satisfaction highly predicts an individual's desire to leave; thus, employees with lower job satisfaction have a strong desire to quit, whereas employees with higher job satisfaction have a weak desire to leave. Similarly, Porter and Strees's (1973) met expectation model depicted that an individual's intent to leave the present job stems from the unmet expectations in a work setting. They preserved that employees have certain predisposed expectations from their job and the working environment; when organizations fall short of fulfilling individuals' expectations, they become dissatisfied with their job, that in turn engenders withdrawal behaviors (p.152).

In addition, Mobley's (1977) process model indicated that an individual's process of resignation is linear and sequential, and it begins with individuals feeling dissatisfaction with their jobs or job facets. Employee turnover is significantly and inversely affected by their level of job satisfaction. Scholars suggested job satisfaction should be incorporated in all models that measure individuals' voluntary turnover. Similarly, Islam et al. (2014, p. 257) declared that job satisfaction intervened in the relationship between employee empowerment and intent to leave.

Conceptual Framework
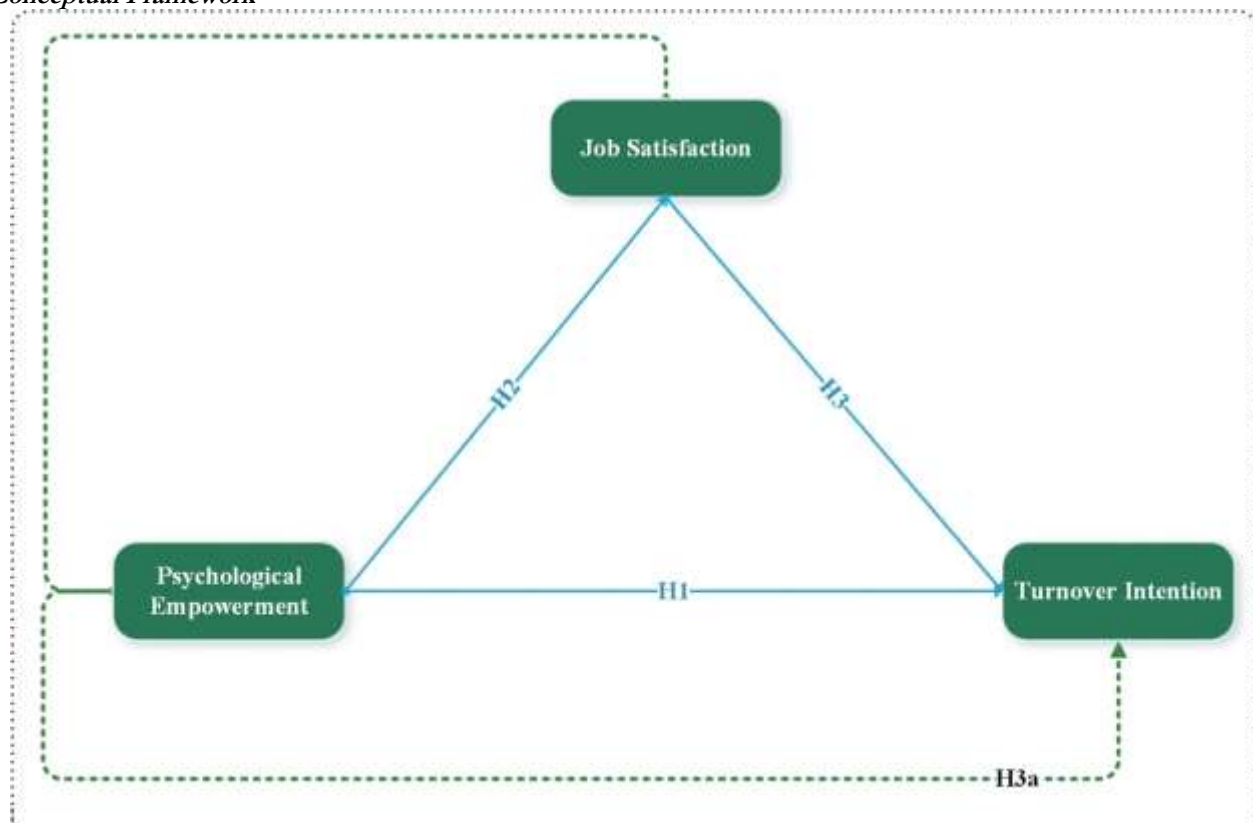
2.4. Research Questions

Q1. Is there any relationship between psychological empowerment and turnover?
Q2. Is there any relationship between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction?
Q3. Is there any relationship between job satisfaction and turnover?
Q4. Does job satisfaction mediate the relationship between psychological empowerment and turnover?

2.5. METHOD

This is a quantitative research study. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) examines the relationship between independent, mediating, and dependent variables. SEM analysis is an effective approach to testing complicated models. It is the best approach to estimate separated multiple-regression equations simultaneously. Moreover, SEM analysis can estimate the direct and indirect relationship between the independent mediating and dependent variables all together in a single model. The current study aimed to examine the Impact of psychological empowerment on faculty turnover as mediated by job satisfaction in higher education in Afghanistan. SEM analysis and model fit indices are used to test the accuracy of the hypothesized model in the context of higher education in Afghanistan.

2.6. Population and Sample Framework

The current study's population is the total number of university lecturers (18991) working at private and public universities in Afghanistan. One hundred seventy-two universities are operating in 34 districts of Afghanistan. Data is collected from 255 university lecturers working at 11 conveniently selected private universities in Kabul, the capital city of Afghanistan. The survey questionnaire was sent to 255 randomly selected teachers from the list provided by the ministry of higher education. The author received 243 filled responses from the lecturers.

2.7. Study Variables and Instrumentation

This section delineates the study variables and their relevant instrumentation included in the data collection survey designed for this study.

2.7.1. Exogenous Variable

Psychological empowerment is the only latent independent variable in the current study. Psychological empowerment questionnaire developed by Spritzer (1995) is used to gather data about faculty empowerment in private universities in Afghanistan. It consists of four observed variables: Meaning, Self-determination, Competence, and Impact. The validity and reliability of the scale were tested and approved by Spreitzer and Quinn (2001).

2.7.2. Endogenous Variables

Turnover and job satisfaction are the two dependent variables in the current study. The scale intent to stay by Mobley (1978) is utilized to investigate faculty turnover in higher education in Afghanistan. Chen et al. (2014) examined and approved the validity of the scale.

2.7.3. Mediating Variable

It is hypothesized that job satisfaction intervenes in the relationship between psychological empowerment and faculty turnover. The sub-scale developed by cammann et al. (1983) was used to collect the opinions of study respondents about the general job satisfaction of university lecturers in Kabul, the capital city of Afghanistan. The scale has three items: All in all; I am satisfied with my job; In general, I do not like my job; In general, I like working here.

2.8. Data Collection

Primary data was collected through a survey questionnaire. The survey had four parts; the first part of the survey contained five items about the demographics of the survey respondents. The second part of the survey included 11 items about psychological empowerment; items1 up to 3 were related to Meaning; items 4 to 6 were about Competence; items 7 and 8 were about Self-determination; and from Item 9 up to 12 were about Impact. The third part of the survey contained three items from 13 to 15 about job satisfaction. The fourth part of the survey contained three items from 16 to 18 about turnover intent.

The Survey questionnaire was emailed to 255 randomly selected university lecturers. The lecturers' lists were collected on the formal request from the administration of 11 universities selected on a convenience-based basis. The author received filled survey questionnaires from 243 lecturers, out of which two questionnaires were blanked and disengaged. Finally, the data from 241 questionnaires were utilized for data analysis.

3. DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis contained descriptive statistics, reliability analysis, factor analysis, the goodness of fit analysis for the measurement model, fit indices for the structural model, and hypothesis testing through SEM path analysis. The SPSS 21 and Amos 21 software packages were used for data analysis.

Results

3.1 Demographics of Respondents

The following table 1 provides the complete detail of the demographic characteristics of respondents who participate in this study.

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics

Items	Frequency (N=241)	(%)
Gender		
Male	217	90
Female	24	10
Nationality		
Afghan	208	86.3
Foreign	33	13.7
Age		
25-35	182	75.5
36-45	15	6.2
46-55	23	9.5
>55	21	8.7
Education		

Graduate	40		16.6
Master	184		76.3
PhD	17		7.1
Marital Status			
Single	41		17
Married	200		83
Experience			
0-3	36		14.9
4-6	65		27
7-10	80		33.2
>10	60		24.9

3.2 Common Method Bias

This research also applied the common method bias using Harman's single-factor approach. The variance extracted using one factor is 7.359%, less than 50%, indicating no common method bias in this study (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

3.2.1 Descriptive Statistics

The constructs were measured on five points Likert scale from "1- strongly disagree to 5 - strongly agree". Table 1.1 reveals Minimum, Maximum, Mean, Standard deviation, Kurtosis, and Skewness. According to Hair et al. (2010) and Bryne (2010), data is reflected to be normal if skewness is between -2 to +2 and kurtosis is between -7 to +7. Another research scholar Kline (2015), suggested that if Skewness and kurtosis values fall between -3 to +3, that indicates that the data is normally distributed. In this research, all Skewness and kurtosis fall between -1 to +1. The following table 1.1 provides the complete detail of descriptive statics

Table: 2

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Gender	241	1	2	1.10	0.300	2.691	5.286
Nati	241	1	2	1.14	0.344	2.126	2.539
MS	241	1	2	1.83	0.377	-1.767	1.131
Age	241	1	4	1.51	0.984	1.655	1.193
Edu	241	1	3	1.90	0.478	-0.273	1.163
T.Exp	241	1	4	2.68	1.009	-0.208	-1.045
IPT_1	241	1	5	3.52	1.162	-0.608	-0.407
IPT_2	241	1	5	3.54	1.076	-0.529	-0.257
IPT_3	241	1	5	3.53	1.176	-0.571	-0.518

IPT_4	241	1	5	3.53	1.137	-0.745	-0.103
ME_1	241	1	5	3.39	1.196	-0.526	-0.560
ME_2	241	1	5	3.54	1.125	-0.778	-0.065
ME_3	241	1	5	3.41	1.170	-0.642	-0.383
CMP_1	241	1	5	3.46	1.172	-0.591	-0.434
CMP_2	241	1	5	3.55	1.169	-0.764	-0.197
CMP_3	241	1	5	3.44	1.150	-0.589	-0.336
SD_1	241	1	5	3.60	1.204	-0.802	-0.286
SD_2	241	1	5	3.62	1.188	-0.663	-0.508
JS_1	241	1	5	3.64	1.051	-0.654	0.021
JS_2	241	1	5	3.59	1.061	-0.880	0.281
JS_3	241	1	5	3.66	1.064	-0.655	-0.029
TI_1	241	1	5	2.74	1.307	0.340	-1.030
TI_2	241	1	5	2.69	1.150	0.284	-0.857
TI_3	241	1	5	2.71	1.165	0.169	-0.835

3.3 Assessment of Model Fit and Measurement Model

The present research has three measurement models. The model fit indices for all measurement models successfully achieved the fit criteria (see table 2). The goodness of fit values, i.e., X2/DF for PsyEmp, Zero-order, and second-order, are 1.146, 1.064, and 1.069, respectively. The threshold limit for RMSEA and SRMR is <0.08, and this research magnificently achieved the threshold limit (see table 2). Next, this research checked all measurement models' NFI, IFI, TLI, and CFI values. All values fall within the acceptable range (see table 2).

The next step in this process is to check the reliability and validity of each construct for all three measurements. For composite reliability, the values must be greater than 0.7 (See table 2) (Hair et al., 2010). For convergent validity, the outer loadings must be higher than 0.704 and AVE greater than 0.5 (Hair et al., 2010). All CFA loadings and AVE values achieve the threshold limits (see table 3). For discriminant validity, this research applied the Fornell Larcker criterion technique. This technique has been used in numerous studies. According to the Fornell Larcker criterion assessment, the square root of AVE must be higher than below and right side values (see table 4).

Table 3: Model fit Indices

Model fit Indexes

Fit Index	Cited	Fit criteria	Results (PsyEmp Measurement Model)	Results (Zero Order Measurement Model)	Results (Full Measurement Model)	Fit (Yes/No)
X2			54.992	127.712	136.891	
DF			48	120	128	
X2/DF	(Kline,2010)	1.00 -5.00	1.146	1.064	1.069	Yes
RMSEA	(Steiger,1990)	<.08	0.025	0.016	0.017	Yes
SRMR	(Hu&Bentler,1999)	<.08	0.0302	0.0347	0.040	Yes
NFI	(Bentler&G.Bonnet,1980)	>0.80	0.964	0.946	0.942	Yes
IFI	(Bollen, 1990)	>.0.90	0.995	0.997	0.996	Yes
TLI	(Tucker & Lewis, 1973)	>.0.90	0.993	0.996	0.995	Yes
CFI	(Byrne, 2010)	>.0.90	0.995	0.996	0.996	Yes

Table 4: Reliability & Validity Analysis

Alpha, Composite Reliability & Validity Analysis (PsyEmp Measurement Model)

Construct	Items	Loading >0.704	CR >0.7	AVE >0.5
IPT	IPT_1	0.748***	0.859	0.605
	IPT_2	0.772***		
	IPT_3	0.752***		
	IPT_4	0.835***		
ME	ME_1	0.815***	0.852	0.658
	ME_2	0.812***		
	ME_3	0.807***		
CMP	CMP_1	0.809***	0.840	0.637
	CMP_2	0.798***		
	CMP_3	0.786***		
SD	SD_1	0.781***	0.837	0.720
	SD_2	0.911***		

Alpha, Composite Reliability & Validity Analysis (Zero Order Measurement Model)

Construct	Items	Loading	CR	AVE
IPT	IPT_1	0.746***	0.859	0.605
	IPT_2	0.773***		
	IPT_3	0.752***		
	IPT_4	0.836***		
ME	ME_1	0.815***	0.852	0.658
	ME_2	0.806***		
	ME_3	0.811***		
CMP	CMP_1	0.811***	0.840	0.637

	CMP_2	0.796***		
	CMP_3	0.787***		
SD	SD_1	0.795***	0.835	0.717
	SD_2	0.896***		
JS	JS_1	0.755***	0.808	0.585
	JS_2	0.822***		
	JS_3	0.713***		
TI	TI_1	0.873***	0.865	0.681
	TI_2	0.808***		
	TI_3	0.793***		

Alpha, Composite Reliability & Validity Analysis (Second Order Measurement Model)

PsyEmp	IPT	0.822***	0.847	0.582
	ME	0.799***		
	CMP	0.773***		
	SD	0.647***		
JS	JS_1	0.751***	0.808	0.585
	JS_2	0.828***		
	JS_3	0.71***		
TI	TI_1	0.871***	0.865	0.681
	TI_2	0.808***		
	TI_3	0.795***		

*Indicates significant paths: *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, NS = not significant

Table 5: Discriminant Validity Analysis (Fornel Larcker)

Discriminant Validity Analysis PsyEmp Model (Fornel Larcker)

Constructs	1	2	3	4
1. IPT	**0.778**			
2. ME	0.687	**0.811**		
3. CMP	0.639	0.62	**0.798**	
4. SD	0.521	0.458	0.486	**0.849**

Discriminant Validity Analysis Zero Order Model (Fornel Larcker)

Constructs	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. IPT	**0.763**					
2. ME	0.677	**0.758**				
3. CMP	0.741	0.691	**0.761**			
4. SD	0.697	0.667	0.694	**0.744**		
5. JS	0.384	0.348	0.381	0.398	**0.752**	
6. TI	0.356	0.306	0.36	0.358	0.677	**0.761**

Discriminant Validity Analysis Second-Order Model (Fornel Larcker)

Constructs	1	2	3

1. JS	**0.765**		
2. TI	-0.554	**0.825**	
3. PsyEmp	0.622	-0.588	**0.763**

Note: *Values on the diagonal (italicized) represent the square root of the average variance extracted, while the off diagonals are correlations*
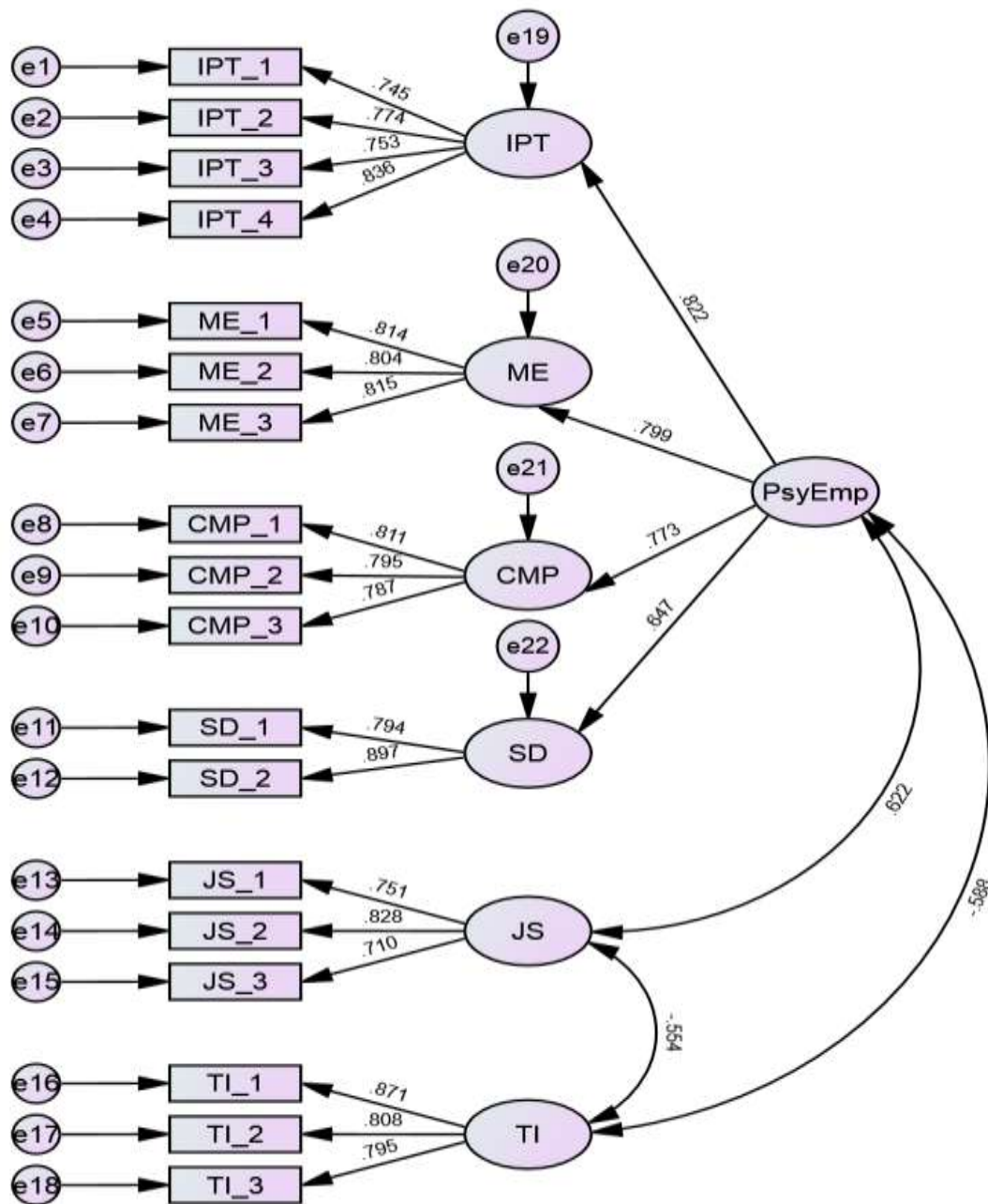
Graphical Representation of Assessment of Measurement Model (Psyemp)
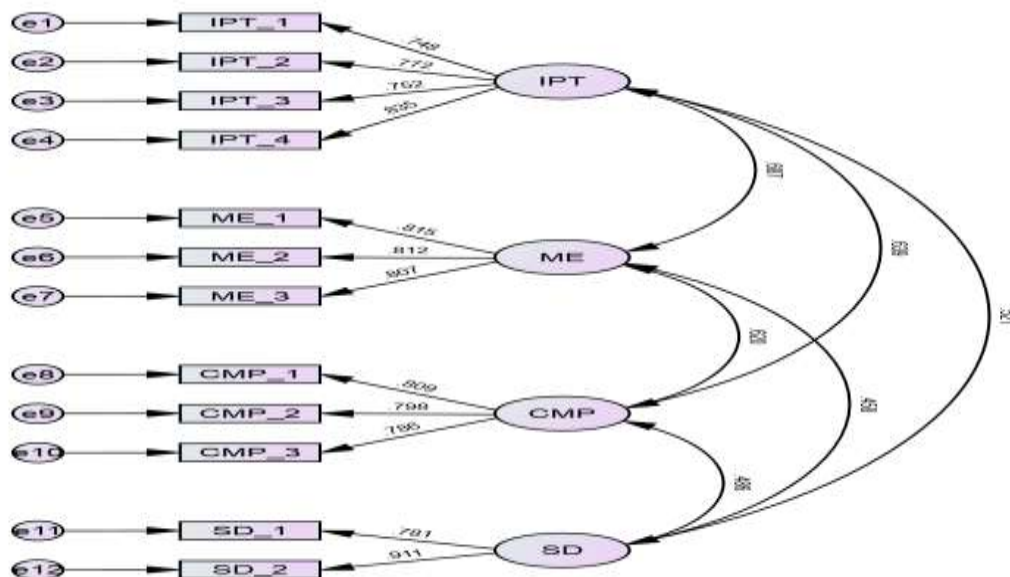
Graphical Representation of Assessment of Measurement Model (Zero Order Model)
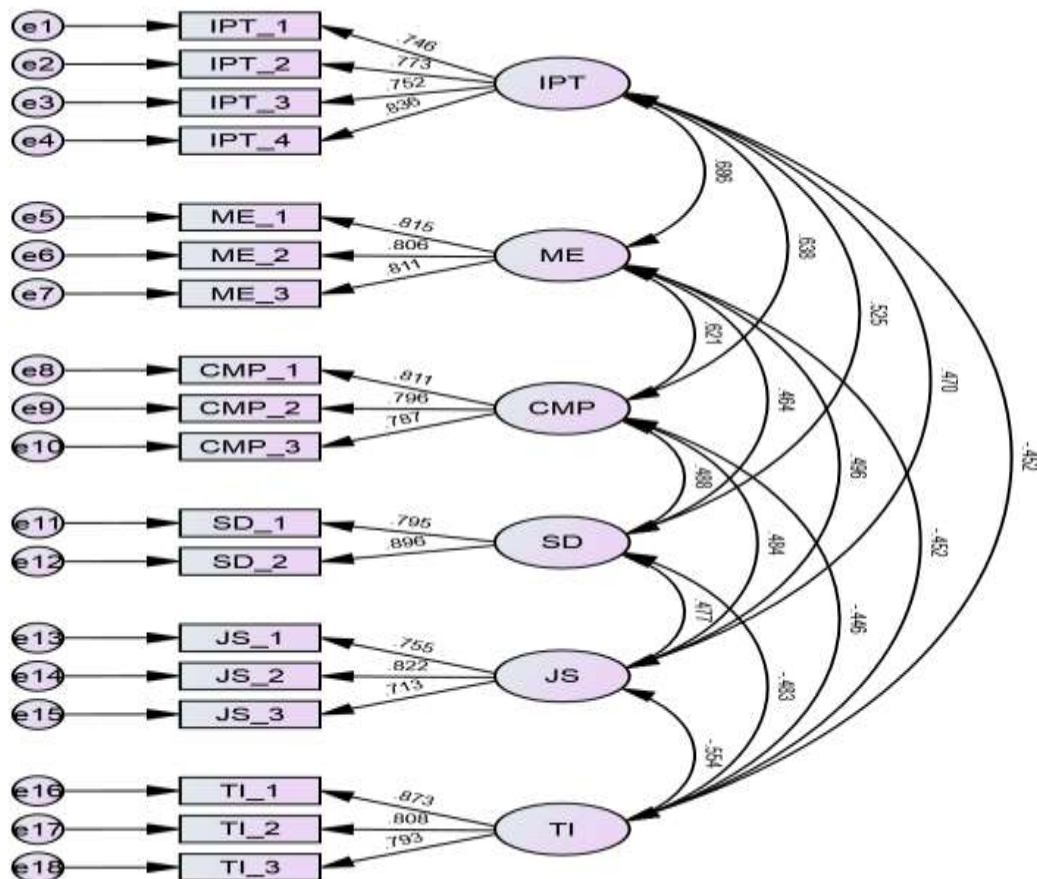
Graphical Representation of Assessment of Measurement Model (Full Model)

3.4 Hypotheses Testing

The hypothesis testing was done by using IBM Amos 27. The bootstrap procedure was applied to obtain the hypothesis results with recommended 5,000 samples. In the H1 hypothesis, the relationship between PsyEmp and TI was accepted (Beta = -0.448, t = -5.531). H2 and H3 have also confirmed the significant effect between PsyEmp➔JS, and JS➔TI (Beta = 0.718, t = 15.956,   Beta = -0.310, t = -3.735, respectively).

Table 6: Hypotheses testing Direct & Indirect Effect

Hypothesis	Direct Relationships	Std. Beta	Std. Error	T Values	P Values
H1	PsyEmp ➔ TI	-0.448	0.081	-5.531	**
H2	PsyEmp ➔ JS	0.718	0.045	15.956	**
H3	JS ➔ TI	-0.310	0.083	-3.735	**

*Indicates significant paths: *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, NS = not significant
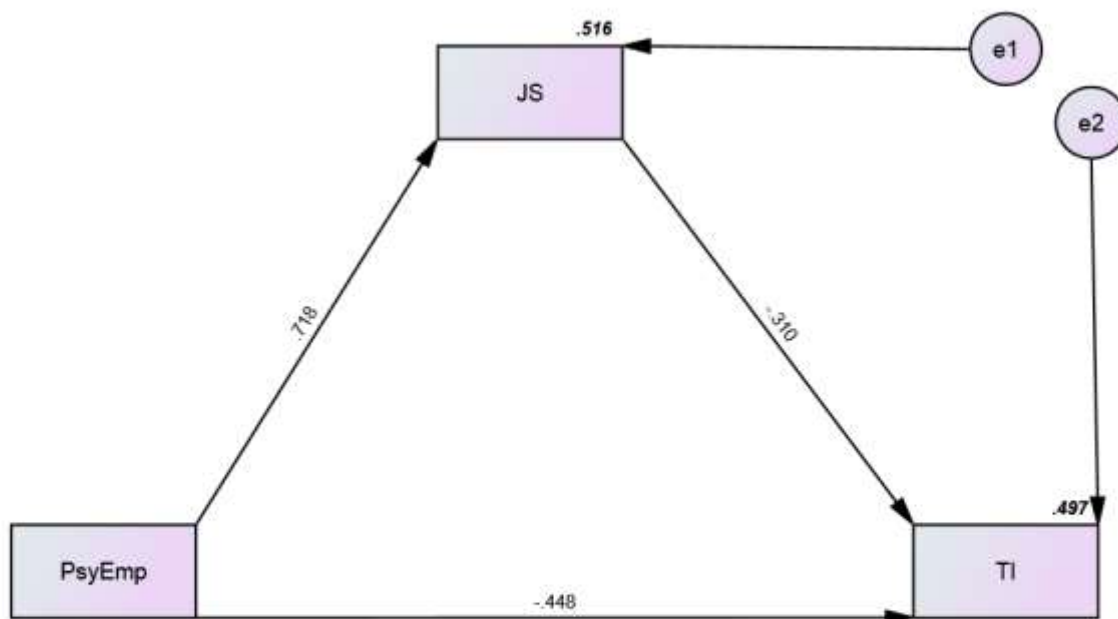
Table 7: Indirect Effect

In H3a, the mediation effect between PsyEmp➔JS➔TI is also recognized (Beta = -0.223, t = -3.982).

Hypothesis	Direct Relationships	Std. *Beta*	Std. Error	T Values	P Values
H3a	PsyEmp➔ JS ➔ TI	-0.223	0.056	-3.982	**

*Indicates significant paths: *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, NS = not significant

Graphical Representation of Structural Model

3.5 Quality criteria
3.5.1 R²
R square is a "measure of the proportion of an endogenous construct's variance explained by its predictor constructs (Hair et al., 2010)." R-square values (R^2) 0.25, 0.50, and 0.75 related to endogenous constructs might be interpreted as correspondingly weak, moderate, or substantial weak. The following table shows R2 values.

Table 8 R² Values

Latent variables	R²
TI	0.497
JS	0.516

4. DISCUSSION
Given the rapid globalization and increasing complexity, it becomes a must for organizations of all kinds to adapt employee empowerment strategies to become more fixable to move swiftly with the changes in the external environment (Meyerson and Kline, 2008). In addition, research findings supported the positive correlation between empowerment and job satisfaction in organizations (Hechanove et al., 2006). In the higher education sector, research findings showed that

empowerment of the academic staff in universities increases their level of job satisfaction and deters their intention to leave (Jordan et al. 2017, p. 17). However, very few empirical studies have been conducted in the higher education sector to investigate the Impact of psychological empowerment on higher education institutions' effectiveness.

To fill the gap, the current study investigated the Impact of faculty empowerment on their turnover as mediated by job satisfaction in the higher education sector of Afghanistan.

The findings of this study supported that there is a significant negative correlation between faculty empowerment and faculty turnover in private universities in Afghanistan (H1: Beta = -0.448, t = -5.531). It confirmed the early findings of Islam et al. (2014) and Sinha et al. (2016).

The study findings also added that faculty empowerment increases job satisfaction among the faculty members in universities in Afghanistan (H2: Beta = 0.718, t = 15.956). It confirmed the findings by Lawrence, Ott & Bell (2012).

In addition, the findings of the current study supported that there is a significant negative correlation between job satisfaction and turnover among the faculty members of private universities in Afghanistan (H3: Beta = -0.310, t = -3.735). It confirmed the early findings by Kim et al. (2013). The findings of the study also revealed that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between faculty empowerment and turnover ((Beta = -0.223, t = -3.982), confirming the early findings of Jordan et al. (2017).

5. CONCLUSION

The analysis of this study showed that empowered faculty members are more satisfied with their jobs and are less likely to leave their jobs and universities. Universities should implement strategies that enhance faculty empowerment to increase their level of satisfaction and deter faculty turnover.

The descriptive analysis indicated that most of the university instructors in Afghanistan are young and have less experience; therefore, they may lack an adequate level of self-confidence and self-efficacy. Universities should offer them learning opportunities and novel experiences at the national and international level, such as joint-research programs and faculty exchange programs to enhance their level of self-efficacy and help them feel more empowered.

In addition, the university structure should facilitate information sharing and faculty participation in the decision-making. Faculty members at the university should feel that they are part of the big picture and contributing to the university's core mission of imparting standard higher education to the youth of the society and serving the nation. Faculty members who feel that their contribution is more meaningful and impactful become more empowered, that in turn improves their satisfaction and lowers their intent to quit the university.

Moreover, the functionality of certain policies of augmenting faculty members' self-determination, such as the policy of academic freedom at universities, impedes the feeling of powerlessness among the faculty members; as a result, they feel more autonomous and satisfied at work and less likely to intend to quit.

The current study has certain limitations that suggest further investigation in this area. First of all, the study sample is limited to universities in Kabul, the capital city of Afghanistan. A future research study should include universities from other cities and provinces of Afghanistan.

Second, the sample of the current study is limited to private universities only. A future research study should include private and public sector universities to improve the generalizability of the research findings.

Third, the study design is not experimental; therefore, it can't claim the causality between the study variables. Future research studies could apply experimental design to indicate how much change in faculty members' level of job satisfaction and turnover is caused by a change in the level of faculty empowerment.

Fourth, the future study should include environmental variables such as university image, growth stage, and size of external job opportunities to examine their impacts on faculty level of job satisfaction and turnover.

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