

UNIVERSITY OF LJUBLJANA
SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS AND BUSINESS

IVA ZDRILIĆ

**THE INTERPLAY OF DETERMINANTS AND TYPES OF
INTERORGANIZATIONAL EMPLOYEE MOBILITY IN HIGHER
EDUCATION**

DOCTORAL DISSERTATION

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AUTHORSHIP STATEMENT

The undersigned Iva Zdrilić a student at the University of Ljubljana, School of Economics and Business, (hereafter: SEB LU), author of this written final work of studies with the title “The interplay of determinants and types of interorganizational employee mobility in higher education” (“Medsebojna povezanost dejavnikov in vrst medorganizacijske mobilnosti zaposlenih v visokem šolstvu”), prepared under supervision of Prof. Petra Došenović Bonča, PhD and co-supervision of Prof. Darija Aleksić, PhD.

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SUMMARY

In today's work environment, employees are the central stakeholder of an organization and one of the most important sources of long-term competitive advantage, thus investing in the development of their knowledge and skills is inevitable for the success of any organization. The 21st century has introduced career concepts that emphasize moving between different employers, so that lifelong employment with a single organization is no longer an option for many employees. Such career concepts, along with ongoing technological, social and economic changes, have increased the interorganizational employee mobility across different sectors and industries. Although this phenomenon has been defined simply as the transfer of human capital from one organization to another or the movement of employees across the boundaries of different employers, its complexity lies in the multiplicity of different determinants of mobility, which are usually distinguished between different levels such as the individual, the organizational, the sector and the economic level, as well as in the different types of mobility, which can be both permanent and temporary, within the sector (i.e., intra-sector) and between different sectors (i.e., inter-sector). Furthermore, the complexity of the targeted phenomenon lies in the interrelationships between its different determinants and types. These relationships are sector or occupation specific and their complexity increases when knowledge workers are observed. In addition, the phenomenon of interorganizational employee mobility is more complex and differs from the far more commonly studied phenomenon of employee turnover in that interorganizational mobility focuses on both the source and destination organizations of the mobile employee (i.e., the organizations between which the mobile employee moves) and thus includes more determining factors in the final equation.

The higher education (HE) sector is particularly relevant to the phenomenon of interorganizational mobility, as temporary types of this mobility are important to achieve the strategic goals of higher education institutions (HEIs) and to improve the skills and competencies of their academics, while permanent types of mobility – between HEIs and from the HE sector to another sector and vice versa – are constantly increasing. Therefore, this dissertation focuses primarily on the interplay between the different determinants and types of interorganizational mobility of academics. More specifically, it examines the relationships between the different multilevel determinants of mobility and each of the four types of mobility in HE sector: temporary intra-sector, temporary inter-sector, permanent intra-sector and permanent inter-sector. It also explores the complex relationships between the different types of interorganizational mobility – e.g., whether temporary mobility is a determinant of permanent mobility – and examines critical factors that facilitate cooperation between the source and destination organizations of mobile academics.

First, a bibliometric analysis is carried out to obtain a comprehensive overview of the main phenomenon under study and to examine how it has evolved over time, what the current focus of mobility research is and what network of key contributors in the field forms an intellectual structure of the main phenomenon and other related topics. The results show that

collaboration between the key contributors in the field is relatively weak. They also indicate the main periods of study in the field and the main topics studied, which have shifted from labor economic constructs to a more micro or organizational perspective, including a multidisciplinary approach and the call for a multilevel approach.

Second, a systematic review of the relevant literature in the field of mobility is provided to comprehensively examine all determinants and effects of interorganizational mobility that have been studied in previous research in different sectors and industries. This led to the creation of their theory-based multilevel typologies. The results of this systematic literature review also show that there are determinants that occur simultaneously at different levels of analysis and that there are relationships between different mobility determinants as well as a possible hierarchy between them. They also show that there are differences between types of interorganizational mobility and that it is important to further investigate the phenomenon in the context of some knowledge-intensive sectors.

Third, the qualitative study is conducted to adapt the developed theory-based typology of mobility determinants to the HE sector, resulting in a new data-based typology. Specifically, in-depth interviews were conducted with 27 academics from the field of economics and business. The results of the study show that the determinants of mobility can be divided not only into different levels, but also into four different groups: push and pull determinants, anchors and barriers, which represent the source and destination context of mobile academics. These results empirically support earlier assumptions that interorganizational mobility is a multilevel phenomenon that goes beyond the construct of employee turnover. They also confirm the existing relationships between different mobility determinants and the hierarchy between them, linking each group of mobility determinants to the exact type of mobility.

Fourth, a quantitative study is conducted to shed more light on the types of permanent mobility and to empirically investigate the complex relationships between the different types of mobility in the HE sector. Specifically, a semi-structured online questionnaire was used to collect data from 625 academics from the field of economics and business. The results of the study show that the main determinants that encourage academics to move to another HEI are external social ties, job satisfaction and work demands at the source HEI, while the main determinants that keep them at their source HEI are family ties, the location of the source HEI and the career opportunities offered by the source HEI. The most important determinants that motivate them to move to another sector are the academic job demands and the specific academic conditions and requirements perceived as temporary mobility options offered by the HE sector. An important determinant that keeps them in the HE sector and prevents their mobility to another sector is the academic opportunities to develop new knowledge and skills.

The results of this study also show that temporary mobility as a sector-level determinant is only significant for the mobility of academics to another sector, while temporary mobility as an individual determinant perceived through previous personal experience has no significant relationship with any of the types of permanent mobility. However, the experience of permanent mobility in the past, particularly the intra-sector type, was significantly related to future permanent mobility within the HE sector and to another sector.

Finally, a mixed methods study, specifically a sequential exploratory research design, is conducted to explore how the permanent mobility of academics affects the creation of a cooperative relationship between their source and destination organizations. More specifically, the factors that facilitate cooperation between the source and destination organizations of mobile academics were examined, resulting in the creation of another multilevel typology. The results of this study also confirm that mobile academics play a crucial role in mediating potential cooperation between their source and destination HEIs.

Keywords: interorganizational employee mobility, higher education, source organization, destination organization, cooperative interorganizational relationship

POVZETEK

V sodobnem delovnem okolju so zaposleni ključni deležnik organizacij in eden najpomembnejših virov dolgoročne konkurenčne prednosti, zato je vlaganje v razvoj njihovega znanja in veščin nujno za uspeh organizacij. Koncepti karier, ki so se razvili v 21. stoletju, poudarjajo mobilnost med različnimi delodajalci, kar pomeni, da doživljenjska zaposlitev v eni organizaciji ni več tako pogosta. Ti koncepti, v kombinaciji s stalnimi tehnološkimi, družbenimi in gospodarskimi spremembami, so pripeljali do povečanja medorganizacijske mobilnosti zaposlenih v različnih sektorjih oziroma dejavnostih. Čeprav je bil ta pojav enostavno opredeljen kot prenos človeškega kapitala iz ene organizacije v drugo ali kot gibanje zaposlenih od enega delodajalca do drugega, je zaradi različnih dejavnikov mobilnosti v praksi precej bolj kompleksen. Ti dejavniki se običajno razlikujejo glede na različne ravni, kot so individualna, organizacijska, sektorska in ekonomska raven. Poleg tega je pojav povezan tudi z različnimi vrstami mobilnosti, ki so lahko trajne ali začasne, znotraj sektorja (tj. intrasektorska mobilnost) ali med različnimi sektorji (tj. medsektorska mobilnost). Poleg tega je kompleksnost tega pojava povezana z medsebojnimi vplivi različnih dejavnikov in vrst mobilnosti. Ti odnosi so specifični za posamezne sektorje ali poklice, njihova večplastnost pa se še poveča, kadar obravnavamo znanjske delavce. Medorganizacijska mobilnost zaposlenih je tako še bolj kompleksna in se razlikuje od mnogo pogostejše raziskovane fluktuacije zaposlenih. Medorganizacijska mobilnost se osredotoča tako na izvirno kot na ciljno organizacijo mobilnega zaposlenega, kar vključuje več dejavnikov v analizi končnih vplivov.

Visokošolski sektor ima ključno vlogo pri medorganizacijski mobilnosti, saj so začasne oblike te mobilnosti pomembne za doseganje strateških ciljev visokošolskih ustanov in za izboljšanje veščin ter kompetenc njihovih zaposlenih. Hkrati pa trajne oblike mobilnosti – med visokošolskimi ustanovami ter iz visokošolskega sektorja v druge sektorje in obratno – nenehno naraščajo. Zato se ta disertacija osredotoča na medsebojno delovanje različnih dejavnikov in vrst medorganizacijske mobilnosti zaposlenih v visokošolskih ustanovah. Natančneje, pričujoča raziskava proučuje razmerja med različnimi večnivojskimi dejavniki mobilnosti in štirimi vrstami mobilnosti v visokošolskem izobraževanju: začasno mobilnostjo znotraj sektorja, začasno mobilnostjo med sektorji, trajno mobilnostjo znotraj sektorja in trajno mobilnostjo med sektorji. Poleg tega analizira zapletene odnose med različnimi vrstami medorganizacijske mobilnosti – na primer, ali začasna mobilnost deluje kot dejavnik trajne mobilnosti – ter preučuje ključne dejavnike, ki omogočajo sodelovanje med izvirno in ciljno organizacijo mobilnih zaposlenih v visokošolskih ustanovah.

V disertaciji je najprej predstavljena bibliometrična analiza, ki zagotavlja celovit pregled glavnega preučevanega pojava. Analiza vključuje pregled razvoja proučevanja pojava skozi čas, trenutnega fokusa raziskav na področju mobilnosti in analizo omrežja ključnih deležnikov, ki tvorijo intelektualno strukturo tega področja in sorodnih tem. Rezultati nakazujejo, da je sodelovanje med ključnimi deležniki na tem področju relativno šibko. Prav tako razkrivajo glavna časovna obdobja raziskovanja na tem področju ter ključne teme, ki

so se sprva osredotočale na delovno-ekonomska vprašanja, nato pa so začela zajemati bolj mikro ali organizacijski vidik. Ta razvoj vključuje tudi uvedbo multidisciplinarnega pristopa in poziv k večnivojskemu preučevanju.

Disertacija ponudi tudi sistematičen pregled relevantne literature na področju mobilnosti ter celovito analizo vseh dejavnikov in učinkov medorganizacijske mobilnosti, ki so bili predmet preučevanja v prejšnjih raziskavah znotraj različnih sektorjev oziroma dejavnosti. Na podlagi tega pregleda so bile oblikovane teoretske večnivojske tipologije dejavnikov in učinkov mobilnosti. Rezultati tega pregleda kažejo, da se nekateri dejavniki hkrati pojavljajo na različnih ravneh analize ter da obstajajo povezave in možna hierarhija med njimi. Poleg tega razkrivajo razlike med vrstami medorganizacijske mobilnosti in poudarjajo potrebo po nadaljnjem raziskovanju tega pojava v specifičnih sektorjih, ki v veliki meri temeljijo na umskem delu zaposlenih.

Nato je bila izvedena kvalitativna raziskava za prilagoditev teoretično opredeljene tipologije dejavnikov mobilnosti visokošolskemu sektorju, s čimer smo dobili novo, na podatkih temelječo tipologijo. Narejeni so bili poglobljeni intervjuji s 27 visokošolskimi delavci in sodelavci s področja ekonomije in poslovnih ved. Rezultati raziskave kažejo, da lahko dejavnike mobilnosti razvrstimo ne le na različne ravni, temveč tudi v štiri skupine: potisne dejavnike, vlečne dejavnike, sidra in ovire. Te skupine odražajo izvorni in ciljni kontekst mobilnih zaposlenih v visokošolskih ustanovah. Ti rezultati empirično potrjujejo prejšnje hipoteze, da je medorganizacijska mobilnost večnivojski pojav, ki presega zgolj fluktuacijo zaposlenih. Prav tako potrjujejo obstoječe povezave med različnimi dejavniki mobilnosti in hierarhijo med njimi, saj vsako skupino dejavnikov povezujejo z določenimi vrstami mobilnosti.

Izvedena je bila tudi kvantitativna raziskava, ki je bila namenjena boljšemu razumevanju vrst trajne mobilnosti in empiričnemu raziskovanju kompleksnih razmerij med različnimi vrstami mobilnosti v visokošolskem sektorju. S polstrukturiranim spletnim vprašalnikom so bili zbrani podatki 625 visokošolskih delavcev in sodelavcev s področja ekonomije in poslovnih ved. Rezultati raziskave so pokazali, da so glavni dejavniki, ki zaposlene v visokem šolstvu spodbujajo k selitvi na drugo visokošolsko ustanovo, zunanje socialne vezi, zadovoljstvo pri delu in delovne zahteve na izvorni visokošolski ustanovi. Glavni dejavniki, ki jih zadržujejo na izvorni visokošolski ustanovi, pa so družinske vezi, lokacija izvirne visokošolske ustanove in karijerne možnosti, ki jih ta ponuja. Najpomembnejša dejavnika, ki zaposlene v visokem šolstvu motivirata za selitev v drug sektor, sta zahtevnost akademskega dela in posebni akademski pogoji ter zahteve, tj. možnost začasne mobilnosti, ki jih ponuja visokošolski sektor. Pomemben dejavnik, ki jih zadržuje v visokošolskem sektorju, so akademske priložnosti za pridobivanje novega znanja in razvoj novih veščin.

Rezultati te raziskave kažejo tudi, da je začasna mobilnost kot dejavnik na sektorski ravni pomembna zgolj za trajno mobilnost zaposlenih v druge sektorje. Po drugi strani pa začasna mobilnost kot individualni dejavnik, ki jo visokošolski delavci in sodelavci zaznavajo skozi

pretekle osebne izkušnje, ni pomembno povezana z nobeno vrsto trajne mobilnosti. Izkušnje s trajno mobilnostjo v preteklosti, še posebej znotraj sektorja, pa so pomembno povezane s prihodnjo trajno mobilnostjo tako v visokošolskem sektorju kot v drugih sektorjih.

Na koncu je bila izvedena raziskava z mešanimi metodami, zlasti postopni preučevalni raziskovalni načrt (eng. sequential exploratory research design), za raziskovanje vpliva trajne mobilnosti zaposlenih v visokošolskih ustanovah na vzpostavljanje sodelovanja med njihovimi izvornimi in ciljnimi organizacijami. Natančneje, preučeni so bili dejavniki, ki olajšujejo sodelovanje med izvornimi in ciljnimi organizacijami mobilnih visokošolskih delavcev in sodelavcev, kar je privedlo do oblikovanja nove večnivojske tipologije. Rezultati te raziskave potrjujejo, da imajo mobilni zaposleni v visokošolskih ustanovah ključno vlogo pri vzpostavljanju in posredovanju potencialnega sodelovanja med izvornimi in ciljnimi visokošolskimi ustanovami.

Ključne besede: medorganizacijska mobilnost zaposlenih, visokošolsko izobraževanje, izvorna organizacija, ciljna organizacija, sodelovalni medorganizacijski odnosi

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AVE	– Average variance extracted
CA	– Conversation analysis
CEO	– Chief executive officer
CFA	– Confirmatory factor analysis
CFI	– Comparative Fit Index
DOI	– Digital object identifier
EFA	– Exploratory factor analysis
EU	– European Union
GDPR	– General Data Protection Regulation
HE	– Higher education
HEI	– Higher education institution
HR	– Human resources
HRM	– Human resource management
IDD	– Inevitable disclosure doctrine
IPA	– Interpretative phenomenological analysis
ISI	– Institute of Scientific Information
IT	– Information technology
JASP	– Jeffreys’s Amazing Statistics Program
LbH	– Learning-by-hiring
NCA	– Non-compete agreement
PhD	– Doctor of Philosophy
R&D	– Research & development
RMSEA	– Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
RQ	– Research question
SEB LU	– School of Economics and Business, University of Ljubljana
SEM	– Structural Equation Modeling

SRMR – Standardized Root Mean-Square Residual
SRQR – Standards for Reporting Qualitative Research
SSCI – Social Sciences Citation Index
STEM – Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics
TLI – Tucker Lewis Index
TV – Television
UK – United Kingdom
US – United States
USA – United States of America
VOS – Visualization of similarities

1 INTRODUCTION

This dissertation focuses on interorganizational employee mobility as the main phenomenon, with particular attention to the different types of this mobility and their various determinants as well as their mutual interactions. In the following subchapter 1.1, the research area of the dissertation and the problem definition are presented, followed by a brief description of the research questions posed (1.2) and the methods and data used to answer them (1.3). Subchapter 1.4 and its subsections briefly summarize the contributions of this dissertation, followed by the final subchapter 1.5 in which the structure of the dissertation is presented.

1.1 Dissertation's research area and problem identification

In today's work environment, employees are the central stakeholder of an organization and one of the most important sources of long-term competitive advantage (Memon et al., 2009; Pasban & Nojede, 2016; Alnidawi et al., 2017; Y. Liu et al., 2020), thus investing in the development of their knowledge and skills is inevitable for the success of any organization (Bassi & McMurrer, 2007). The 21st century has introduced a new career development paradigm with boundaryless and protean career concepts and their emphasis on cross-employer movements (Hall, 2004; Arthur et al., 2005), such that lifetime employment with one organization is no longer an option for many employees (Wynen et al., 2013). This paradigm shift, along with ongoing technological, societal, and economic changes, has increased the interorganizational employee mobility across different industries (Mawdsley & Somaya, 2016; PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2018; Forbes, 2021).

Although this phenomenon has been defined simply as the transfer of human capital from one organization to another (Wynen et al., 2013) or the movement of employees across the boundaries of different employers (Haunschild, 2003; Collet & Hedström, 2013; Litano & Major, 2016), its complexity lies in the multiplicity of different determinants of mobility, their relationships with different types of mobility, and the relationship between different types of interorganizational mobility (Simonen et al., 2016). These relationships are industry- or occupation-specific and their complexity increases when knowledge workers are observed. Furthermore, this phenomenon is more complex and differs from the far more commonly studied phenomenon of employee turnover in that interorganizational mobility focuses on both the source and destination organizations of the mobile employee (i.e., the source organization is the organization from which the employee moves, while the destination organization is the organization to which the employee moves), and thus incorporates more determining factors into the final equation.

Interorganizational employee mobility can be beneficial, especially for individuals who want to build their careers or improve their work attitudes and motivation (S. Lee, 2018). It also has organizational benefits, but usually only for the destination organizations, which improve their performance by accessing the knowledge and skills of the new employees

(Mascia & Piconi, 2013). On the other hand, the source organizations face employee turnover and loss of performance and expertise (Lambert & Hogan, 2009). To combat such negative effects of interorganizational mobility for the source organizations and perhaps to reap the benefits of improved cooperation with the destination organizations, it is necessary to understand both the determinants and the different types of mobility that lead to either competitive or cooperative relationships between source and destination organizations.

The current literature suggests that the determinants of interorganizational mobility can be divided into several categories or levels. For example, March and Simon (1958) proposed the categories of “desirability of movement” and “ease of movement”, while Fernández-Zubieta et al. (2016) distinguished between determinants related to the probability of receiving a job offer and those related to the probability of accepting an offer. However, following the most common three-level classification adopted from the employee turnover literature (Muchinsky & Morrow, 1980; Moynihan & Landuyt, 2008), I propose that the determinants of interorganizational mobility should be examined at the economic or environmental, the organizational or work-related, and the individual levels.

Economic or environmental determinants in the broader sense refer to the state of the national economy (March & Simon, 1958), while in the narrower sense they are sector-specific in the form of norms and incentives (Sørensen, 1999; Smith-Doerr, 2005; Mascia & Piconi, 2013; Balland et al., 2015). The organizational level captures the internal environment of organizations. At this level, research on employee mobility in higher education focuses on organizational status and access to needed resources (Smith-Doerr, 2005; Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016). In information technology (IT), biotechnology and public administration, as well as in the advertising, theater, and television (TV) industries, the focus is on a well-defined strategy, development goals, and organizational culture (Casper, 2007, 2013a), the number of external ties of the organization (Sørensen, 1999; Broschak, 2004), opportunities for promotion (Wynen et al., 2013; S. Lee, 2018), and skill development and learning opportunities (Haunschild, 2003). Individual determinants of interorganizational mobility such as social ties/networks (Haunschild, 2003; Smith-Doerr, 2005; Casper, 2007, 2013a; Whittington et al., 2009; Dokko & Rosenkopf, 2010), attitudes toward risk (Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Casper, 2007), and length of service (Wynen et al., 2013) have been studied primarily in biotechnology, telecommunications, and public administration. While there is much evidence on these determinants of interorganizational mobility, a comprehensive overview that would allow for a typology at multiple levels is still lacking (Aguirre et al., 2015). Such a typology would help identify the under-researched determinants and provide insights into their mutual interactions and interplay with different types of mobility.

The study of the interplay between the determinants of interorganizational mobility and the different types of mobility is relevant because it leads to either competitive or cooperative relationships between source and destination organizations. Intra-sector mobility is defined as mobility between organizations within the same sector (Simonen et al., 2016), while inter-

sector mobility refers to employees moving to organizations from different sectors to develop their skills and build their careers (Bidwell & Briscoe, 2010; European Commission, 2016) or in some sectors, such as HE, due to the limited number of positions and the long time required for career advancement (Smith-Doerr, 2005). Both intra- and inter-sector mobility can be permanent or temporary (Bell & Ward, 2000). Although permanent mobility is usually perceived negatively due to employee turnover (Lambert & Hogan, 2009), some studies suggest that this type of mobility can also have positive outcomes in the form of cooperative rather than competitive relationships between the source and destination organizations (Somaya et al., 2008; Somaya & Williamson, 2008; Mawdsley & Somaya, 2016). Temporary mobility, on the other hand, is often encouraged, and according to a study by the Society for Human Resource Management (2018), its presence, particularly in the form of paid or unpaid sabbaticals, is increasing. The role of temporary mobility varies by sector. For example, in the higher education sector, internationalization strategies (Cantu, 2013; Burkus, 2017; Soliman et al., 2019) and research-practice linkages encourage temporary mobility of employees to acquire knowledge, specific know-how, and practical skills relevant to their current work and professional development (University of Rijeka, 2023).

Due to the scarce research on employee mobility in public sector organizations (Mawdsley & Somaya, 2016) and the complexity of interorganizational mobility determinants and types, especially for knowledge workers, the higher education sector is a good candidate for further research. In a rapidly growing competition between public and private universities, colleges, and polytechnics (Weisbrod et al., 2008), each higher education institution (HEI) strives to prevent permanent intra-sector mobility of its employees (Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016; Mascia & Piconi, 2013). On the other hand, HEIs promote temporary intra-sector as well as inter-sector mobility as both public and private HEIs collaborate with related industries to achieve strategic goals such as graduate employability, influential research outcomes, and valuable social impact (SEB LU, 2020). While permanent inter-sector mobility is not necessarily desirable, temporary mobility between HEIs and related industries is strongly encouraged.

The above discussion reveals a complex relationship between temporary and permanent both intra- and inter-sector mobility of academic staff - i.e., people who teach or study as part of their work in the higher education sector (Cambridge Dictionary, 2023). As permanent mobility is often undesirable, the question arises as to how HEIs can influence interorganizational determinants and perhaps also use temporary mobility arrangements to either prevent permanent mobility or harness it to build cooperative relationships with destination organizations.

1.2 Research questions

Before addressing the complex interplay between different types of interorganizational mobility in the higher education sector, it is important to examine all the determinants of employee mobility and their interactions, and to propose their multilevel classification across different sectors and industries. Given the unique characteristics of the higher education sector, such as academic tenure and promotion requirements (Smith-Doerr, 2005), particular attention should be paid to the specific determinants within this sector. As noted earlier, such a multilevel typology would contribute to a deeper understanding of the relationships between the different determinants and provide new insights into the contradictory findings on such determinants in the literature (Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Valcour & Ladge, 2008; Wynen et al., 2013; Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016). These determinants are also likely to differ between the different types of mobility (permanent and temporary, intra- and inter-sector). Therefore, I pose the following research question:

RQ1: What is the multilevel typology of determinants of different types of mobility in the higher education sector?

Identifying the determinants of employee mobility in the higher education sector and understanding their interactions within a particular level (e.g., between different individual determinants) and between different levels (e.g., between individual and organizational determinants) is necessary to adequately investigate the relationships between temporary and permanent interorganizational mobility types in the higher education sector. The focus here is on exploring whether previous temporary and permanent mobility experiences, as well as temporary types of mobility promoted by higher education sector are also relevant for future permanent moves, and if so, whether they prevent or facilitate future permanent types of mobility that are generally perceived as undesirable. Such research would help to uncover the interplay between multilevel mobility determinants, temporary intra- and inter-sector mobility, and permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility. It would also provide an insight into the complex relationships between the different types of mobility in the higher education sector. For example, while the temporary mobility of academic staff to an organization from a related sector (temporary inter-sector mobility type) might induce them to move there permanently (permanent inter-sector mobility type), it might at the same time prevent them from moving permanently to another HEI (permanent intra-sector mobility type). Therefore, the following research question is posed:

RQ2: What is the role of temporary and permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility and other multilevel mobility determinants in explaining future permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility in higher education?

Despite all efforts by source organizations to limit permanent interorganizational employee mobility, this type of mobility is often a desirable option for many employees (Chatzky, 2018), including those who work in academia (Figuerola, 2015). Because permanent mobility

often cannot be prevented, the source organization must focus on how to harness its ties with departing employees to establish a cooperative relationship with a destination organization, thereby creating an alternative source of competitive advantage for both the source and destination organizations. One of the ways to build cooperative relationships between organizations is for departing employees to transfer their internal social capital from the source organization, i.e., relationships with others within the source organization, to external social capital, i.e., relationships with others outside the source organization (Coleman, 1988; Somaya et al., 2008; Carnahan & Somaya, 2013; Carnahan & Somaya, 2015; Mawdsley & Somaya, 2016). Therefore, I also examine the factors that are critical to facilitating cooperative relationships between source and destination organizations of mobile academics. To address them, I pose the final research question:

RQ3: Which factors facilitate cooperative relationships between source and destination organizations of mobile academics?

1.3 Methodology and data

To comprehensively examine the phenomenon of interorganizational employee mobility, I conduct a bibliometric analysis that examines the citation relations between studies in the field of employee mobility, their co-authorship relations, and the co-occurrence of their keywords (van Eck & Waltman, 2014). I also conduct a systematic review of the literature in this field to develop a comprehensive theory-based typology of determinants of interorganizational mobility, which allows extracting various determinants that have been investigated in existing studies so far and classifying them according to the proposed multilevel typology. For both purposes (i.e., the bibliometric analysis and the systematic literature review), I use the ISI Web of Knowledge Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI) database to obtain the necessary data. The main potential limitation of this part of my dissertation is that some of the existing determinants that have not been adequately researched may not have been included.

In the next phase of my research, I use an exploratory sequential mixed methods research design (Saunders et al., 2023) that combines both qualitative and quantitative study. Qualitative data are collected through in-depth and semi-structured interviews with academic staff. As the existing literature has mainly dealt with the disciplines of biotechnology (Simon, 1990; Smaglik, 1998; Smith-Doerr, 2005; Wilson et al., 2014) and engineering (D'Este & Perkmann, 2011), the idea is to interview people from the field of economics and business. One of the objectives of this qualitative part of the study is to first adapt the established theory-based multilevel typology of determinants of interorganizational mobility to the higher education sector and then to gain insights into the key determinants that affect the different types of mobility of academics (RQ1). The main criterion for the selection of respondents is their experience with at least one of the types of mobility under investigation (temporary intra- and inter-sector; permanent intra- and inter-sector). This gives me a first-hand insight into the factors that determine the choice of the

exact type of mobility. Another aim of this qualitative part of the study is to explore the key factors that facilitate cooperation between the source and destination organizations of mobile academics (RQ3). In order to achieve this, only interviews with academics who have experience with permanent mobility types (intra- and inter-sector) will be used.

However, interviewing academics could be one of the major potential limitations of this study, as such data collection is quite sensitive when it comes to obtaining truthful and specific responses. All respondents are recruited through convenience and snowball sampling, which could be another potential limitation as such sampling strategies could lead to respondent error, such as extremity and social desirability bias.

In the next phase of mixed methods research design, I conduct a quantitative study using a structured online questionnaire as the method of data collection. The main purpose of this study is to investigate the relationships between multilevel mobility determinants, temporary mobility types and permanent mobility types in the higher education sector (RQ2). In addition, it serves to further explain the results of the previous qualitative study, focusing in particular on the complex relationship between temporary and permanent mobility types in the higher education sector. Another aim of this quantitative study is to further explore key factors that facilitate cooperation between the source and destination HEIs of mobile academics (RQ3).

Existing studies show that the mechanism underlying interorganizational mobility involves the employee's intention to leave the organization as a step that precedes the choice of the exact type of mobility (Wynen et al., 2013), which is why most of the existing scales are based on measuring the intention rather than actual movement. Although this could be one of the potential limitations of this study, in line with other studies showing that employees' intention to leave the organization is the immediate antecedent (Mobley et al., 1979) and the best predictor of actual movement (Griffeth, et al., 2000; Van Breukelen et al., 2004), in this study I also measure academics' intended permanent mobility. In this way, I increase the likelihood of obtaining an adequate sample size for the quantitative study. The target population for this phase of the study are again academics who currently work in the higher education sector, selected through convenience and snowball sampling.

1.4 Contribution to the field of knowledge

The following paragraphs summarize contributions of this dissertation to the field of knowledge.

1.4.1 Theoretical contributions

Despite numerous efforts to understand the diversity and complexity of the determinants of interorganizational employee mobility, important aspects of their relationships remain unknown (Aguirre et al., 2015). Therefore, the main theoretical contribution of this

dissertation is providing a comprehensive theory-based typology of multilevel mobility determinants as well as a data-based typology of multilevel mobility determinants relevant to the higher education sector. The determinants of the latter typology are also identified in line with the four identified types of interorganizational employee mobility – temporary intra- and inter-sector and permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility. Deepening our understanding of the relationship between temporary and permanent types of mobility (intra- and inter-sector) in the higher education sector and exploring the factors that facilitate cooperative relationships between source and destination HEIs also contributes to the literature on labor economics and career development.

1.4.2 Practical implications

By understanding the conditions necessary for cooperative relationships among different HEIs, HEIs could reduce the negative effects of permanent interorganizational mobility, improve their performance, and build an alternative source of competitive advantage. By systematically identifying and recognizing the determinants of different types of mobility and, ultimately, the factors that reinforce the best outcomes from undesirable permanent mobility, the results of this research can also help mitigate the negative consequences at multiple levels (i.e., economic, sector, organizational, and individual) that could result from the movement of employees across organizational boundaries. Since employees are recognized as an integral part of value creation whose value increases with the knowledge intensity of an industry (Campbell et al., 2012), the findings of this study may be applicable to other knowledge-intensive industries such as IT, pharmaceuticals, biotechnology, etc.

1.4.3 Methodological contributions

Given the lack of qualitative research approaches in the employee mobility literature (Mawdsley & Somaya, 2016), the in-depth and semi-structured interviews with individuals involved in mobility in the higher education sector help identify important causes and effects of employee mobility that cannot be observed in existing large-scale quantitative studies. The mixed methods research design and multilevel approach are also considered as potential methodological contributions of this dissertation.

1.5 Structure of the dissertation

The dissertation consists of a total of seven chapters, six of which follow this first, introductory chapter.

The second chapter deals with the bibliometric analysis that was conducted in order to place the main phenomenon – i.e., interorganizational employee mobility – within the broader field of research.

In the third chapter, the systematic literature review is presented. This literature review approach was chosen to provide an unbiased and comprehensive synthesis of all mobility determinants from the existing literature in the field of interorganizational mobility. Comprehensiveness was essential in order to create a theory-based multilevel typology of mobility determinants, which formed the foundation for the studies in the following chapters.

The fourth chapter begins the mixed methods research design described above. Here, a qualitative study is conducted to adapt the theory-based multilevel typology from the previous chapter to the higher education sector, therefore creating a new data-based typology and exploring the relationship between the multilevel determinants and the different types of mobility (temporary and permanent intra- and inter-sector) in the higher education sector (RQ1).

The fifth chapter presents the quantitative study testing conceptual models of permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility of academics, including the complex relationships between multilevel determinants and temporary and permanent types of mobility in the higher education sector (RQ2).

The sixth chapter combines the qualitative and quantitative studies conducted to examine the key factors that facilitate cooperation between the source and destination organizations of mobile academics (RQ3).

The concluding seventh chapter of the dissertation discusses the main findings, the contributions of the dissertation, the limitations and possible avenues for future research.

2 BIBLIOMETRIC ANALYSIS OF INTERORGANIZATIONAL EMPLOYEE MOBILITY¹

The phenomenon of interorganizational employee mobility has been studied so far in different disciplines and mostly in the context of general employee mobility, which also encompasses the field of labor migration and includes intraorganizational employee mobility and some entrepreneurial self-employment options. Thus, to focus exclusively on the targeted phenomenon and to provide a comprehensive overview, in this chapter I conducted a bibliometric analysis of the existing literature in the field of interorganizational mobility. This approach applies quantitative and statistical methods to bibliographic data and provides an understanding of how research on interorganizational employee mobility has evolved over time, and it confirms that the targeted phenomenon is multilevel in nature.

After the introductory subchapter, the methodology of the bibliometric analysis is described in detail. The following subchapters and their subsections present the results of the performance analysis and science mapping and network analysis, which reveal clustered networks of key contributors in the field of mobility, such as authors, journals, affiliations and countries. The last subchapter contains summarizing remarks.

2.1 Introduction

The phenomenon of interorganizational employee mobility differs from and goes beyond mere turnover behaviour (Wille et al., 2010). While the latter focuses only on calculating the ratio of employees who left the organization to those who remained in the same organization over a period of time (Price, 1977), interorganizational employee mobility emphasizes the movement of employees between the two organizations: the source organization, or the organization from which the employee moves and the destination organization, or the organization to which the employee moves (Haunschild, 2003; Collet & Hedström, 2013; Wynen et al., 2013; Litano & Major, 2016). Thus, it is not just about quitting a job, which could be an involuntary act, but a voluntary decision to change the existing job, which includes changing the employer (Korpi & Mertens, 2003). In contrast to employee turnover, which typically focuses only on the adverse consequences for the source organization such as reduced performance and loss of expertise (Lambert & Hogan, 2009), and the negative effects for the dismissed employees, interorganizational employee mobility emphasizes the potential benefits for all parties involved (i.e., both the source and destination organizations and the mobile employee). While it provides individuals with the opportunity to gain different work experiences, build their careers, and improve their work attitudes and motivation (S. Lee, 2018), which consequently increases the employees' market value (Wille

¹ The content of this chapter was published in co-autorship with my supervisors in: Zdrilić, I., Došenović Bonča, P. & Aleksić, D. (2023). Interorganizational Employee Mobility: A Bibliometric Analysis. *Management: Journal of Contemporary Management Issues*, 28, 55-78. <https://doi.org/10.30924/mjcmi.28.si.5>

et al., 2010), it also provides destination organizations with the opportunity to improve their performance through access to new knowledge, information, and skills from the new employees (Amankwah-Amoaha & Debrah, 2011; Mascia & Piconi, 2013; J. J. Lee, 2020). When interorganizational employee mobility strengthens the market ties between the source and destination organizations and contributes to the development of their collaborative relationships, such a relationship grows beyond the former mutual competition (Somaya & Williamson, 2008; Somaya et al., 2008), which also has a positive impact on the source organizations.

Scholars' attention to this phenomenon was drawn at the beginning of the 21st century, when so-called modern career concepts such as boundaryless and protean careers began to develop (Hall, 2004; Arthur et al., 2005). Unlike the earlier traditional career arrangements that were based on organizational rewards and salaries while emphasizing organizational commitment and low mobility, protean and boundaryless careers are self-determined and driven by employees' personal values of freedom and growth and taking responsibility for their own career success (Hall, 2004). These career concepts also undermine the assumption that an organization is capable of providing lifetime employment (Arthur et al., 2005), further reinforcing the phenomenon of interorganizational mobility and leading to a more flexible labour market (Sammorra et al., 2013).

However, despite numerous findings on this phenomenon in recent decades, it has not merited full attention and a comprehensive approach. Rather, research on interorganizational employee mobility remains scattered across different disciplines such as organizational behaviour, human resource management, psychology, sociology, etc., and the phenomenon is studied in the context of general employee mobility, which also includes intraorganizational employee mobility or lateral and vertical promotions within an organization, as well as self-employing options such as employee entrepreneurship (Tzabbar & Cirillo, 2020). Moreover, there are slightly different views on how this phenomenon will develop in the near future. While some scholars and studies suggest that ongoing technological, societal, and economic changes will increase interorganizational employee mobility across sectors and industries (Mawdsley & Somaya, 2016; PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2018; Forbes, 2021), others argue that the overwhelming technological developments, led by automation and digitization, that are lowering barriers to entry into the labour market will change its entire known structure as well as familiar career arrangements (Sokolic, 2022), which could consequently have a negative impact on employees' decisions to move between organizations. Technology is increasingly promoting the so-called gig economy, or a labour market characterized by platform organizations, short-term contracts, and freelance work as opposed to permanent jobs (Duszyński, 2023). While such gig work seems like a good example of a protean and boundaryless career arrangement, as it allows for switching between platform organizations and offers a higher degree of autonomy in choosing tasks, these employees are proving to be increasingly less mobile (Kost et al., 2020). This is largely because these platform organizations dictate the

frequency, pay, and context of gig work without providing adequate organizational support, leaving gig workers with limited opportunities to shape their own careers (Kost et al., 2020).

Accordingly, the main purpose of this chapter is to provide a comprehensive overview of the phenomenon of interorganizational employee mobility to examine how it has evolved over time and to determine its current focus. I also aim to identify the main contributors in the field (i.e., authors, affiliations, journals, etc.) and the emerging networks they build around the main phenomenon (i.e., interorganizational employee mobility) and how such networks contribute to the intellectual structure of the main phenomenon and other related topics. These findings are an important contribution to the career development literature, as they provide detailed insight into how career has changed over time and highlight key constructs and factors associated with individual decisions to change employers.

To this end, I reviewed 240 papers in this research field using a bibliometric analysis approach that applies quantitative and statistical methods to bibliographic data (i.e., number of publications and citations) (Mukherjee et al., 2022). All papers were from the ISI Web of Knowledge Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI) database, published until January 2023. In this way, I was able to establish that interorganizational employee mobility should be considered as a multilevel phenomenon and that its determinants and effects should be thoroughly studied at the economic, organizational, and individual levels. The next subchapter describes the methodology used in the bibliometric analysis, while the following subchapters and their subsections focus on the results of descriptive statistics (i.e., performance analysis) and cluster analysis (i.e., science mapping and network analysis), followed by concluding remarks.

2.2 Methodology of bibliometric analysis

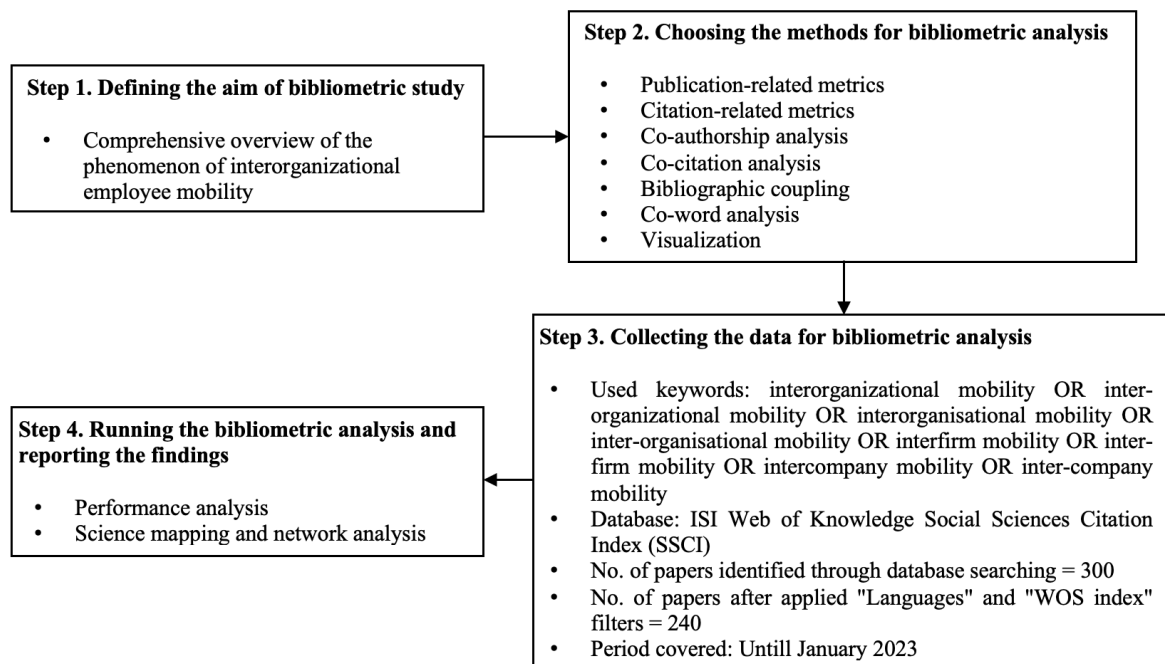
To obtain a comprehensive overview of the phenomenon of interorganizational employee mobility, I conducted a bibliometric analysis of the papers in the target field, as this quantitative approach to literature review is generally more objective than traditional qualitative literature reviews (Zupic & Čater, 2015; Mukherjee et al., 2022). I based my bibliometric analysis on the four-step process of Donthu et al. (2021). The first step involves defining the objectives and scope of the bibliometric study, followed by the second step of selecting appropriate methods for bibliometric analysis. The third step is about collecting the data for the bibliometric analysis, which includes defining the keywords and search terms, selecting the appropriate database, and cleaning the data to remove possible duplicates or incorrect entries. Finally, the fourth step is to perform the bibliometric analysis and summarize its main findings (Donthu et al., 2021).

The methods for bibliometric analysis can be divided into three main groups (Donthu et al., 2021):

- Performance analysis that includes publication- and citation-related metrics that measure the productivity and impact of key research contributors (i.e., authors, affiliations, journals, etc.) in a given research field.
- Science mapping that includes methods such as citation analysis, co-citation analysis, bibliographic coupling, co-word analysis, and co-authorship analysis that focus on the relationships/networks between/among key research contributors in a given research field.
- Network analysis that includes network metrics, clustering, and visualization that enrich bibliometric assessment by highlighting the relative importance of key research contributors not detected by publication-only or citation-only analyses.

The four-step process as applied for the purpose of this dissertation is shown in Figure 1. In the first step of Donthu et al.'s (2021) bibliometric analysis process, I conducted a preliminary review of the literature in the target field (i.e., interorganizational employee mobility) and found that the literature is broad and scattered across different disciplines (Tzabbar & Cirillo, 2020), thus lacking a comprehensive overview and concrete insights into its origins and current phase making it a good candidate for the bibliometric study.

Figure 1: Four-step bibliometric analysis process



Source: Donthu et al. (2021), own work

In the second step of the bibliometric analysis process, I selected seven bibliometric methods. Publication- and citation-related metrics served to identify the most productive and influential scholars, affiliations, countries/regions, and journals in the research field, as measured by the number of their publications and citations. In order to thoroughly examine the relationships among the major contributors in the field, I decided on the co-authorship

analysis. To adequately examine the phases of interorganizational employee mobility research, I also opted for a co-citation analysis to show what has happened in the past, as well as bibliographic coupling to show what is happening now. Co-word analysis served to enrich and support findings from previous analyses. All these analyses were supported by a network visualization method.

In the third step of the process, I defined a list of the most important keywords for the database search. The list included "interorganizational mobility" as the main term, along with its synonyms and their spelling variants: interorganizational mobility OR inter-organizational mobility OR interorganisational mobility OR inter-organisational mobility OR interfirm mobility OR inter-firm mobility OR intercompany mobility OR inter-company mobility. As the main database I chose: ISI Web of Knowledge Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI) with all years (1955-2022) available at the time of the search (until January 2023). This database is considered the most widely used and authoritative database of research publications and citations in the world (Birkle et al., 2020), as it includes approximately 34,000 journals covering leading research in a wide range of scientific fields. It is also widely used for bibliometric studies, as it provides extensive possibilities for searching and filtering publications based on various bibliographic parameters (Ruiz-Real et al., 2018). The initial search of the database using my keyword list yielded 300 publications. After refining this initial result using the "Languages" and "Web of Science Index" categories ("English" and "SSCI" were selected), 240 publications remained as the basis for bibliometric analysis.

In the final fourth step of the process, I performed the bibliometric analysis using the VOSviewer software tool, which allowed me to create and display clustered network of key contributors in my target research field. To create such a network, VOSviewer uses integrated visualization of similarities (VOS) mapping technique, so no additional computer program is required (van Eck & Waltman, 2010). However, since bibliometrics is not a substitute for an extensive reading of the most relevant literature in the field (Zupic & Čater, 2015), I summarized my main findings based on a thorough reading of the most influential papers in each cluster. The remainder of the bibliometric analysis and the reporting of its findings are described in the following subchapters.

2.3 Performance analysis

Performance analysis is a descriptive statistical analysis of the target field of research (Donthu et al., 2021). The most commonly used measures for performance analysis are the number of publications and the number of citations, which can be calculated per year or per selected research contributor such as author, his/her affiliation, country/region from which the affiliation originates, journal, etc. (Donthu et al., 2021). While the number of publications provides insight into the most productive research contributors in a target field, the number

of citations provides an indication of most influential contributors. The publication- and citation-related metrics for my bibliometric analysis are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Publication and citation-related metrics in the field of interorganizational employee mobility

Number of publications on the interorganizational mobility and its synonyms	240
Number of authors	480
Number of sole-authored publications	72
Number of co-authored publications	168
Degree of collaboration	0.7
Number of countries/regions	40
Number of affiliations	316
Number of journals and other publication titles	135
Number of publishers	34
Number of research fields	28
Active years of publication	36
Average number of publications per active year	6.7
Number of total citations	13,874
Average number of citations per year	385.4
Average number of citations per publication	57.8
Number of total cited publications/references	16,899
Average number of cited publications/references per publication	70.4
h-index	52
g-index	114
i10-index	148

Source: ISI Web of Knowledge Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI), own work

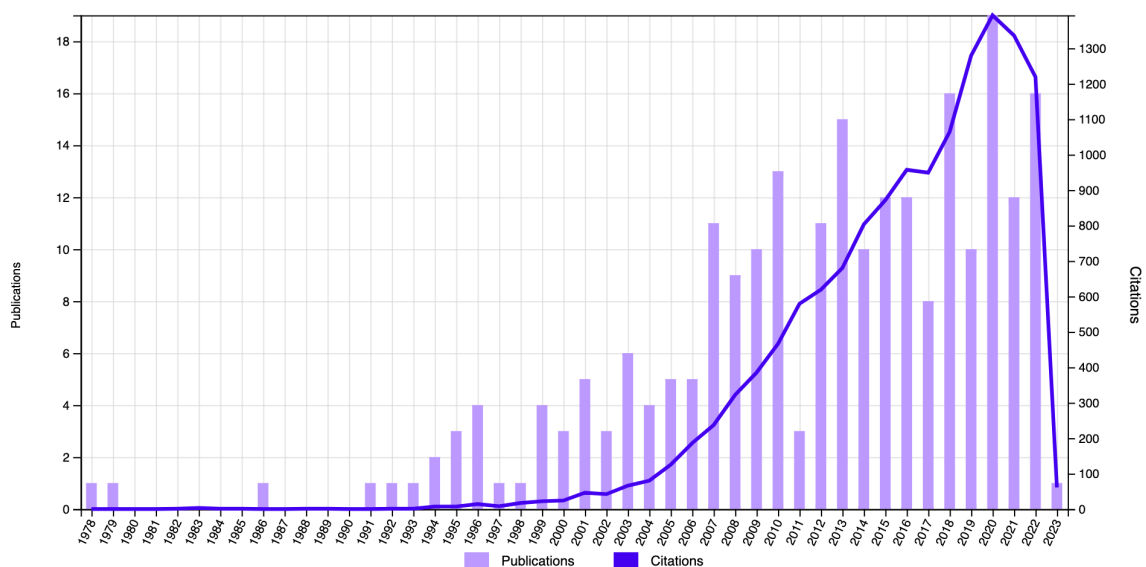
A total of 480 authors contributed to 240 publications in the field of interorganizational employee mobility. 72 publications (30%) were authored by a single author, while the rest were authored by multiple authors, indicating a high degree of collaboration among authors in this field (0.7). This degree is simply calculated as the ratio of the number of research papers co-authored and the total number of papers published in a given period (Subramanyam, 1983). All of these authors come from 40 different countries and have 316 different affiliations, most of them from Europe (159 affiliations), with England, the Netherlands, Germany, Italy, and France being the 5 countries with the highest number of publications (see Appendix 2). However, when looking at a single country, the USA dominates among all other countries with a total of 73 affiliations and a total of 62 publications, which is more than 25% of all publications in this field. The USA is also the most influential country in terms of number of citations, followed by three European countries (England, the Netherlands, and Germany) and South Korea in 5th place (see Appendix 3). In terms of individual affiliations, the USA dominates in both number of publications and number of citations, with the University of California being the most

productive (13 publications) and the University of Pennsylvania the most influential (2,962 citations) (see Appendices 4 and 5).

All of these papers have been published in 135 different journals and other publications. Among them, Organization Science is slightly in the lead with 14 published papers (5.8%), followed by Strategic Management Journal (10 papers), Research Policy (8 papers), and Administrative Science Quarterly (7 papers) (see Appendix 6). However, when looking at the number of citations, the order of the most influential journals is slightly different. Management Science (2,853 citations), Academy of Management Journal (1,104 citations), and Academy of Management Review (865 citations) rank highest, while the 10 most cited journals (see Appendix 7) account for more than 75% of all citations (10,556 citations). All of these journals belong to 34 publishers, five of which publish 65% of all papers: Elsevier (45 papers), Willey (40 papers), Sage (26 papers), Taylor and Francis (25 papers), and Springer Nature (21 papers) (see Appendix 8). Almost 75% of all publications were from business and economics, followed by psychology (9.2%), environmental studies (7.9%), geography (7.9%), sociology (7.5%), and public administration (6.7%) (see Appendix 9).

Although the oldest paper was published in 1978, Figure 2 shows that there has been a continuity of publications in this research field since 1991, with about 7 publications per year. Moreover, despite the total of 36 active publication years, 65% of all papers were published in the last decade (from 2010), with a record number of 19 papers in 2020, almost tripling the average publications per year.

Figure 2: Number of publications and citations on interorganizational mobility per year



Source: ISI Web of Knowledge Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI)

The total number of citations is 13,874, with an average of 385.4 citations per year and 57.8 citations per publication. The most cited publication is from 1999 and counts 1,403 citations,

while the top 10 most cited papers (Table 2) have a combined total of 6,531 citations, accounting for almost half (47%) of the total number of citations. Most of these top 10 papers were published between 2003 and 2007, while the most recent of them is from 2012.

Table 2: Top 10 most cited publications in the field of interorganizational employee mobility

Title	Author(s) and publication year	Journal	Total no. of citations	Best citation year (no. of citations)
Localization of knowledge and the mobility of engineers in regional networks	Almeida, P.; Kogut, B., 1999	Management Science	1,403	2013 (102)
Overcoming local search through alliances and mobility	Rosenkopf, L.; Almeida, P., 2003	Management Science	881	2020 (82)
Competitor analysis and interfirm rivalry: Toward a theoretical integration	Chen, M.J., 1996	Academy of Management Review	767	2021 (66)
University-industry relationships and open innovation: Towards a research agenda	Perkmann, M.; Walsh, K., 2007	International Journal of Management Reviews	720	2020 (85)
R&D alliances and firm performance: The impact of technological diversity and alliance organization on innovation	Sampson, R.C., 2007	Academy of Management Journal	651	2016 (74)
Career success in a boundaryless career world	Arthur, M.B.; Khapova, S.N.; Wilderom, C.P.M., 2005	Journal of Organizational Behavior	628	2019 (62)
Learning-by-hiring: When is mobility more likely to facilitate interfirm knowledge transfer?	Song, J.; Almeida, P.; Wu, G., 2003	Management Science	569	2018, 2020 (47)
Networks, Propinquity, and Innovation in Knowledge-intensive Industries	Whittington, K.B.; Owen-Smith, J.; Powell, W.W., 2009	Administrative Science Quarterly	330	2014, 2020 (35)
Transnational elites in the city: British highly-skilled inter-company transferees in New York City's financial district	Beaverstock, J.V., 2005	Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies	308	2019 (31)
Who leaves, where to, and why worry? Employee mobility, entrepreneurship and effects on source firm performance	Campbell, B.A.; Ganco, M.; Franco, A.M.; Agarwal, R., 2012	Strategic Management Journal	274	2019 (49)

Source: ISI Web of Knowledge Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI), own work

All publications in the sample for my bibliometric analysis (240 papers) cited 16,899 other papers, indicating an average of 70.4 references per publication. The h-index, the most widely used measure of an individual's research productivity and impact (Hirsch, 2005), is 52, indicating that 52 of the 240 publications in the sample were cited at least 52 times. The g-index, developed as an improvement to the h-index (Egghe, 2006), gives more weight to highly cited papers because it is the largest number counting for the top g cited papers that together have at least g^2 citations, which is 114 in my data. Finally, the i_{10} -index, a metric used by Google Scholar, measures the number of publications with at least 10 citations, which in the case of my data is 148 publications.

2.4 Science mapping and network analysis

Science mapping uses various methods (e.g., co-authorship analysis, co-citation analysis, bibliographic coupling, etc.) to examine the relationships among various research contributors such as authors, affiliations, countries, journals, etc., in a given research field (Donthu et al., 2021). Moreover, this forms the network among these key contributors, which consists of thematic or knowledge clusters that reveal their shared constructs, contexts, disciplines, fields, methods, and theoretical concepts (Mukherjee et al., 2022). This type of network in bibliometric research is also called a distance-based network because the distance between two elements (e.g., publications, authors, journals, etc.) reflects the strength of their connection (van Eck & Waltman, 2010). A smaller distance means a stronger connection between the elements, so they are grouped in the same cluster. Moreover, science mapping methods are usually combined with some network analysis methods (e.g., visualization, clustering, etc.) and together yield the overall bibliometric and intellectual structure (i.e., underlying themes) of the targeted research field (Donthu et al., 2021). In the following subsections, I present the results of several science mapping methods that were used to build a clustered network in the field of interorganizational employee mobility: co-authorship analysis, co-citation analysis, bibliographic coupling, and co-word analysis. All of these methods were combined with a visualization method that provides more detailed insight into the clusters of main authors, affiliations, countries, and journals in the field.

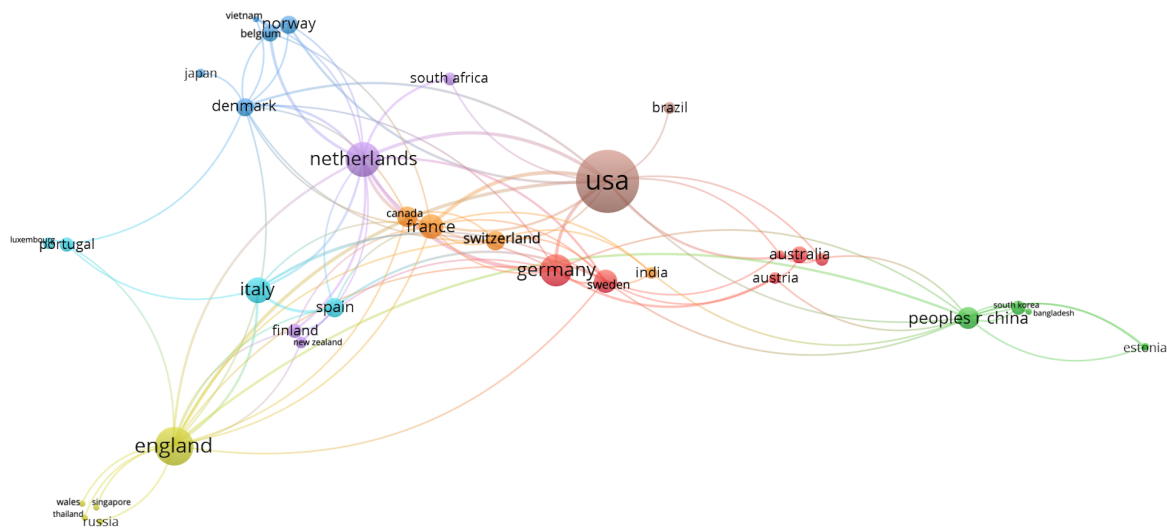
2.4.1 Co-authorship analysis

Co-authorship analysis examines interactions among key contributors in a research field (Donthu et al., 2021). It typically provides insights into their mutual collaboration by identifying what factors contributed to such collaboration (e.g., disciplinary background, research topics, geographic proximity, etc.) and how collaboration affects the impact of an individual publication (Zupic & Čater, 2015). Moreover, as some authors suggest, co-authorship analysis can be carried out at different levels (Mukherjee et al., 2022). Using a country/region as the unit of analysis typically depicts collaboration among key contributors at the policy level, while using an affiliation (i.e., an organization/institution) as the unit of analysis indicates collaboration at the strategic level. Using authors as the unit of analysis

and assessing their individual performance and influence is about the tactical level (Mukherjee et al., 2022).

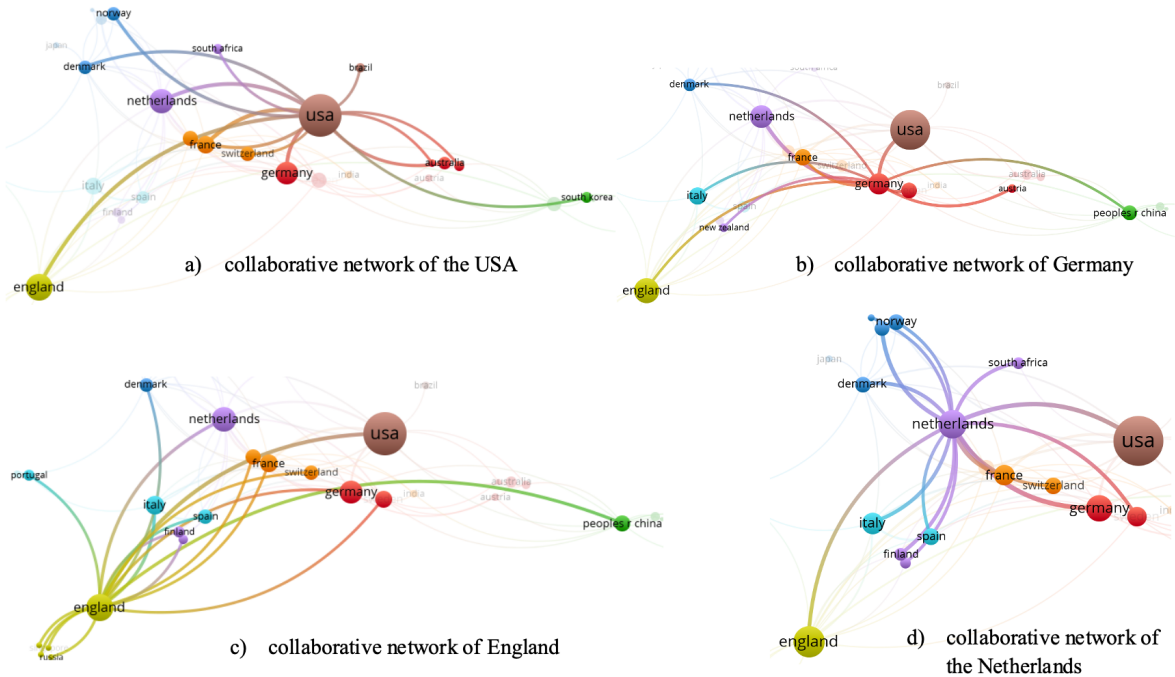
The clustered network of countries in the field of interorganizational employee mobility based on co-authorship analysis is shown in Figure 3. Each node in a figure represents a country, with countries from each cluster having the same colour. The size of the node indicates the strength of a country's collaboration with others in that research field (i.e., the larger the node, the higher the number of relationships with other countries). The thickness of the links between two countries indicates the strength of their mutual collaboration. Although there are only 40 countries in my sample, the result of a clustered network between them is quite scattered, as it divides these countries into 8 different clusters displayed in Figure 3 with different colours. This means that the overall level of collaboration between countries is not very high, nor is the collaboration within each cluster, as can be seen from the relatively thin links between nodes. Depending on the size of the node, the USA has the strongest collaborative relationships with other countries, which was to be expected based on the earlier performance analysis showing that the USA has the most affiliations and produces the most publications in the field. The USA collaborates mainly with other countries, which also showed the highest performance: England, the Netherlands and Germany. A closer look at their clustered networks (Figure 4) reveals that they also share a high level of mutual relations and connections with other countries in this field.

Figure 3: Clustered network of countries based on the co-authorship analysis



Source: VOSviewer, own work

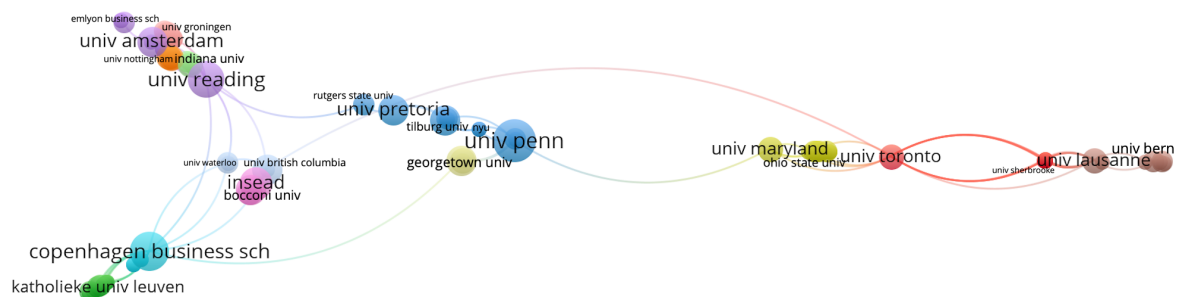
Figure 4: Clustered networks of the most productive countries based on the co-authorship analysis



Source: VOSviewer, own work

In addition, I performed the same analysis, but this time using an affiliation or organization as the unit of analysis to see if this clustered network differs from the network between countries. The results, shown in Figure 5, reveal there is no significant difference compared to the clustered network between countries, as the network between affiliations is even more dispersed and divided into 13 different clusters.

Figure 5: Clustered network of the most productive affiliations based on the co-authorship analysis



Source: VOSviewer, own work

These clusters tend to focus on the most productive and influential affiliations, such as the University of Pennsylvania (USA), Copenhagen Business School (Denmark), and the University of Reading (England). While the University of Pennsylvania primarily

collaborates with others in operations research on topics such as knowledge spillovers, technology, and innovation, the Copenhagen Business School's cluster is more dedicated to strategic human capital, relating to social capital, entrepreneurship, and careers. The University of Reading and its collaborating partners in this cluster focus more on broader issues related to sustainability and globalization. There are two clusters that contain only US universities, one around the University of Maryland and the other around the Indiana University, one cluster with only Swiss affiliations around University of Lausanne, and one with Canadian affiliations around University of Toronto, primarily from the health sciences. Despite these examples, however, most of the clusters contain affiliations from multiple countries, demonstrating that collaboration is occurring on a global rather than national scale.

The co-authorship analysis at the individual level, i.e., with authors as the unit of analysis, showed that there is no concrete link between the authors of the publications from my sample. This means that despite the high degree of collaboration in the field and the fact that more publications were co-authored than by a single author, these authors tend to collaborate on only one publication and thus do not form stronger ties with each other. This is also confirmed by the fact that only 34 authors have authored more than one publication in the field, while four of them have authored three publications and only one author has authored four publications in the field (Paul D. Almeida), which is the highest number of publications per author. When examining how collaboration affects publication impact, no significant differences are observed, as publications with one author have an average of 55.3 citations, while publications with co-authors have slightly more citations (58.9 citations per publication). In addition, three of the 10 most cited publications are authored by one author. When examining the publications with at least 52 citations, since the h-index of the sample is 52, 35 of them were co-authored and 17 had a single author, which corresponds to the degree of collaboration of the whole sample (0.7). Among these most frequently cited co-authored publications, those whose authors were from the same country had an average of 268.3 citations, while publications whose co-authors were from different countries had significantly fewer citations - an average of 174.4.

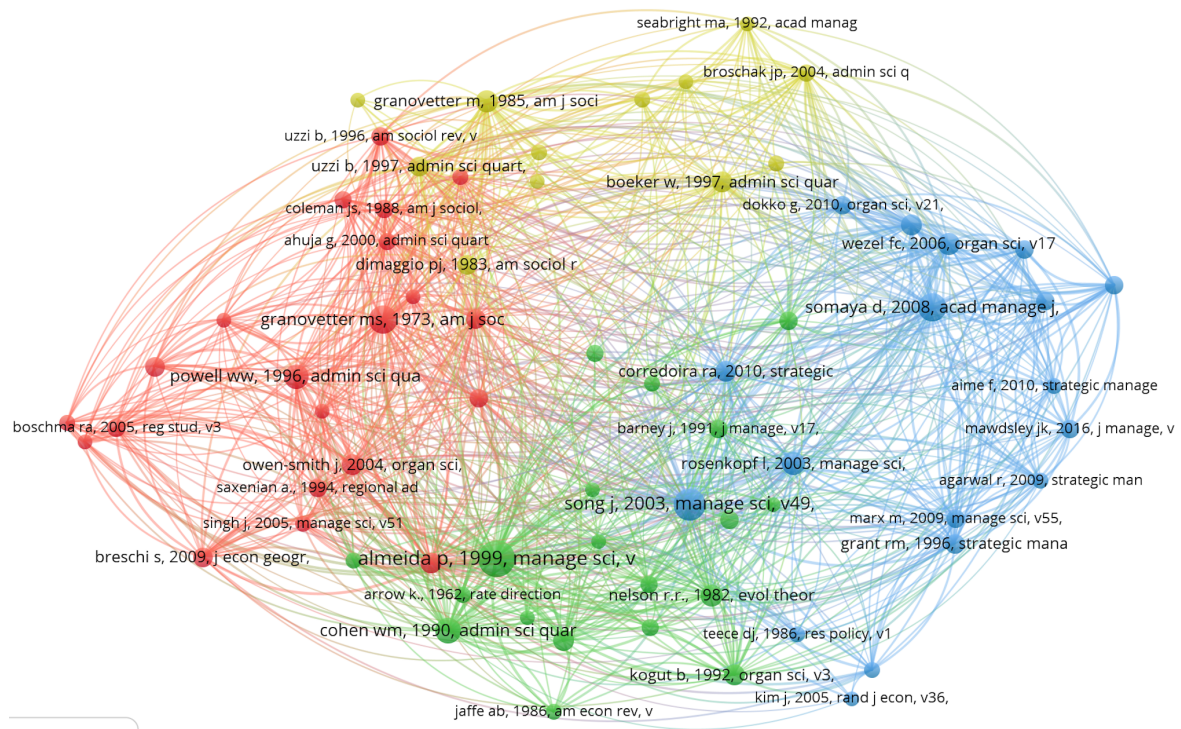
2.4.2 Co-citation analysis

Co-citation analysis is the most commonly used and validated bibliometric method (Zupic & Čater, 2015). It examines the intellectual structure of a research field by identifying the most influential publications, authors, and their knowledge base (Zupic & Čater, 2015; Donthu et al., 2021). It uses cited documents, cited authors, or cited journals as the unit of analysis and creates a clustered network linking these units based on their co-occurrence in another publication's reference list. Co-citation analysis is based on the assumption that the more two units (i.e., documents, authors, journals) are cited together, the more likely it is that their content is related in some way (Zupic & Čater, 2015). Since this method is based on the number of citations, it is biased towards highly cited publications and usually omits

the less cited ones. Furthermore, because the entire publication process changes over time, co-citation analysis focuses on the past state of a research field rather than the current situation or possible changes in the future (Zupic & Čater, 2015).

The clustered network of publications in the field of interorganizational mobility based on the co-citation analysis is depicted in Figure 6. In this clustered network each node represents a publication that was cited by another publication in my sample, while the size of the node indicates how many times it was cited (i.e., the larger the node, the higher the number of citations). I set the number of citations of cited publications to at least 10, resulting in 70 cited publications. In other words, 70 papers from the reference lists of citing publications from my sample were cited by these citing publications at least 10 times. In addition, the cited publications that co-occurred in the reference list of another citing publication from my sample have thicker links and are usually clustered together.

Figure 6: Clustered network of cited publications based on the co-citation analysis



Source: VOSviewer, own work

The co-citation analysis revealed 4 main clusters, each marked by a different colour (i.e., red, green, blue and yellow). The red cluster is the largest and consists of 21 publications that together appear 320 times in reference lists in my sample, which means that each publication appears on average 15.2 times. This cluster mainly combines constructs from the field of sociology, so its publications were mostly published in the American Journal of Sociology. The publications in this cluster mostly examined social networks or how social ties between mobile employees affect interorganizational knowledge diffusion. The most influential publication in this cluster is a theoretical paper by Granovetter (1973), who

posited a theory of the strength of weak ties, which states that weak ties between individuals and organizations are helpful in transmitting information about new employment opportunities because they open a new labour market to a wider social network (Granovetter, 1973). Other publications are mostly empirical works based on a quantitative methodology that examine patent applications by inventors in the US biotechnology sector (Powell et al., 1996; Owen-Smith & Powell, 2004; Powell et al., 2005; Agrawal, 2006; Breschi & Lissoni, 2009).

The green cluster consists of 19 publications that together appear 314 times in the reference lists of my sample, which means that each publication appears on average 16.5 times. The publications in this cluster are mainly from the field of management and use quantitative operations research methods. The theoretical concept of this cluster is based on the 1982 work of Nelson and Winter, who founded the theory of modern evolutionary economics and challenged previous mainstream approaches to economic growth, technological progress, and competition among organizations. Thus, the main construct in this cluster is the organization's innovation and absorptive capacity, defined as its ability to use the knowledge of new employees to commercialize its innovations (Cohen & Levinthal, 1990; Kogut & Zander, 1992; Jaffe et al., 1993). The leading publication is that of Almeida and Kogut (1999), who were the first to investigate the effect of interorganizational mobility of patent holders on the pattern of patent citations. The authors empirically demonstrated that mobility of engineers in the semiconductor industry is a driving force for local knowledge transfer because it diffuses new ideas (Almeida & Kogut, 1999).

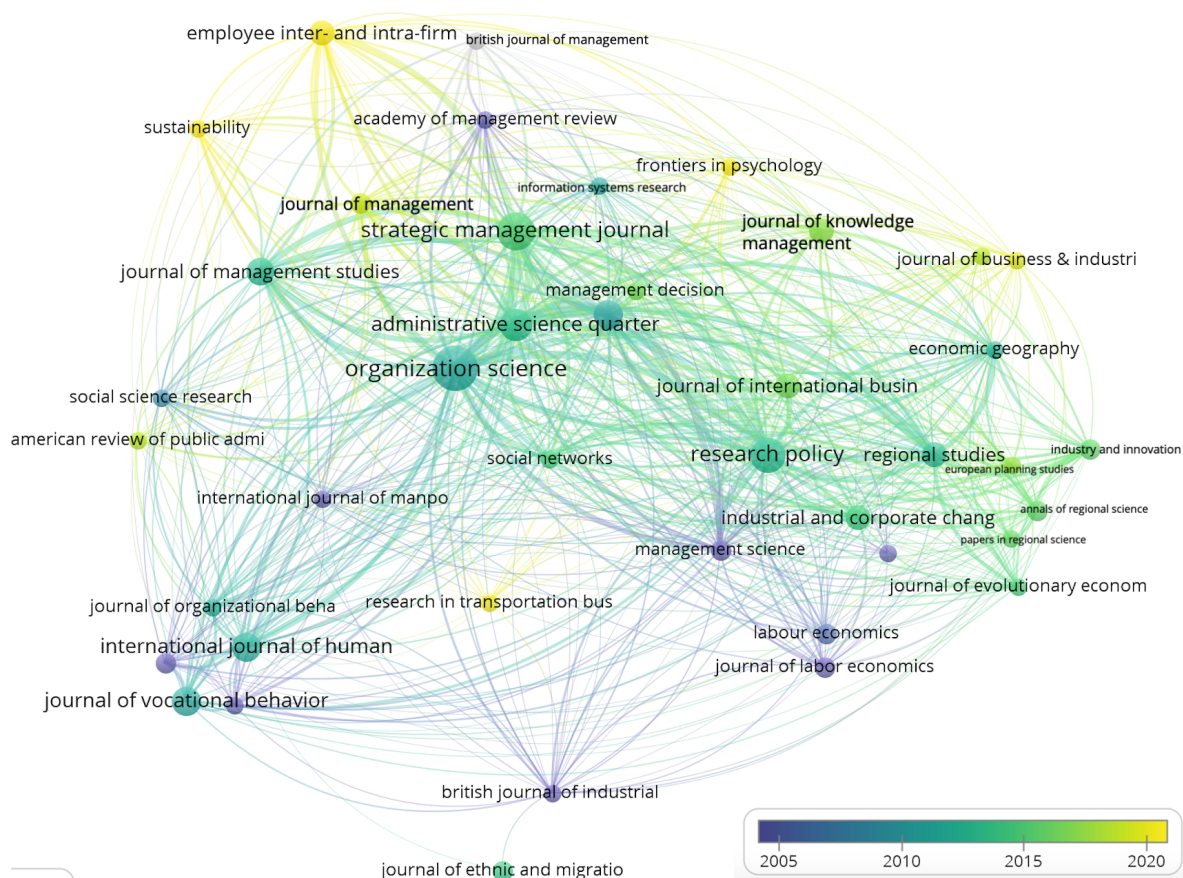
The blue cluster consists of 18 publications that together appear 318 times in the reference lists of my sample, which means that each publication appears on average 17.7 times. The main theme of this cluster is social capital theory and the study of both knowledge transfer and the development of social ties as consequences of interorganizational employee mobility, while also examining the differences in mobility between two competing and between two collaborating organizations (Rosenkopf & Almeida, 2003; Song et al., 2003; Somaya et al., 2008; Corredoira & Rosenkopf, 2010; Wezel et al., 2006). Thus, this cluster basically summarizes the main constructs of the previous two clusters, as it considers the social component of interorganizational employee mobility and its impact on the performance of both the source and the destination organizations. *Strategic Management Journal* and *Management Science* are the dominant journals in this cluster.

Finally, the smallest yellow cluster consists of only 12 publications that together appear 158 times in the reference lists of my sample, which means that each publication appears on average 13.2 times. These publications are a combination of theoretical and empirical papers that combine both qualitative and quantitative methods. They mostly focus on the construct of organizational embeddedness in the social and interorganizational network that affects organizational outcomes such as productivity, performance, competitive advantage, etc. (Dimaggio & Powell, 1983; Granovetter, 1985; Boeker, 1997; Uzzi, 1997; Broschak, 2004).

2.4.3 Bibliographic coupling

Bibliographic coupling is a bibliometric method that uses the number of references (i.e., cited publications) that two publications (i.e., citing publications) share, as a measure of similarity between them (Zupic & Čater, 2015). Thus, it is based on the assumption that the more references two publications share, the more they are related. According to these shared references, bibliometric coupling creates a clustered network of key contributors (i.e., publications, authors, journals, etc.) in a research field (Donthu et al., 2021). Even if the number of references in publications does not change over time, the citation trend does. Therefore, it is recommended to apply bibliographic coupling to publications from the same time period or within a certain time frame. Since the bibliographic coupling is based on the citing references and not on the cited references, as it is the case with the co-citation analysis, even the recent publications that have not been cited much get a concrete visibility when this method is applied. In this sense, bibliographic coupling is suitable for highlighting current topics and their recent developments, thus providing insight into the current stage of a research field (Zupic & Čater, 2015). I applied this method to the journals in the field of interorganizational employee mobility, whose clustered network based on the number of shared references can be seen in Figure 7.

Figure 7: Clustered network of journals based on the bibliographic coupling



Source: VOSviewer, own work

Each node represents a journal whose size is determined by the productivity of the journal (i.e., the number of publications on the topic of interorganizational employee mobility). Those journals that share a higher number of references have thicker links, as journals belonging to the same cluster have the same colour. The basis for clustering journals this time is a specific time frame, i.e., the journals that have published in this field within a period of about 5 years are clustered together. In the case of my data, the bibliographic coupling method covered a period of the last two decades, as shown by the previous performance analysis, which proved that the influence (i.e., the number of citations) of the field of interorganizational employee mobility started to increase at the beginning of the 21st century and peaked in 2020.

Since the entire field of interorganizational employee mobility is mainly covered by the management discipline, there are journals throughout the whole period studied that deal with theories and practices on all aspects of management such as strategy, entrepreneurship, innovation, and technology. These are: Management Science, Journal of Management Studies, Strategic Management Journal, and Journal of Management. However, in the late 20th and early 21st centuries, the emphasis tends to be on publishing topics related to employment and work organization, labour supply and demand, income, unions and collective bargaining, or basically anything related to labour economics from a local, national, and international perspective (British Journal of Industrial Relations, Journal of Labor Economics, and International Journal of Manpower).

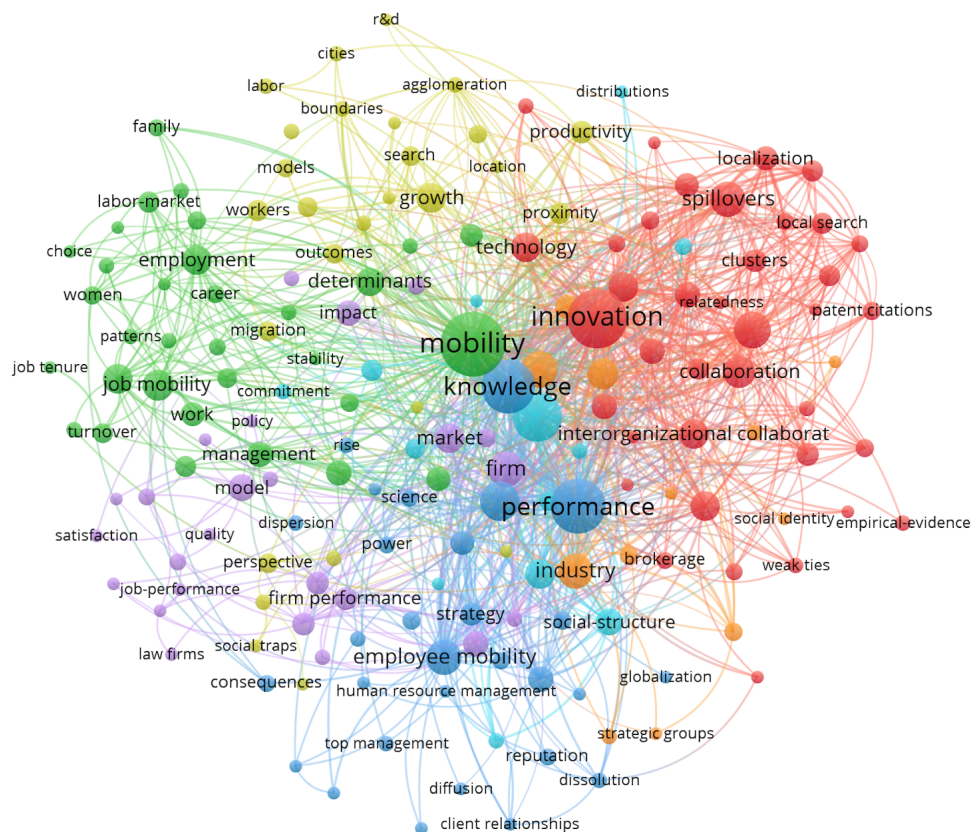
Toward the end of the first decade of the 21st century, the field of interorganizational employee mobility was viewed more through an organizational lens that incorporated constructs such as organizational processes, structures, capabilities, and performance. Organization Science journal took centre stage, emphasizing the inclusion of other disciplines such as psychology, sociology, political science, information systems, etc. As technology advanced, many topics addressed how products, processes, and services could be improved through the diffusion of knowledge and innovation by mobile employees, paving the way for an even more multidisciplinary approach.

In the second decade of the 21st century, the organizational perspective as well as multidisciplinary approach continued, focusing on constructs such as the learning organization and the information organization in journals such as the Journal of Knowledge Management and the Journal of International Business. In addition, research at different levels of analysis such as the economic, organizational, and individual levels were proposed. Such a multilevel approach has persisted to this day, implying that interorganizational employee mobility is a multilevel phenomenon and therefore should be studied across these levels. For this reason, publications dealing with the individual level are a welcome topic in psychological sciences (Frontiers of Psychology journal). In addition, the phenomenon of interorganizational employee mobility has recently increasingly engaged scholars in the marketing discipline (The Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing) and addresses issues related to human, environmental, cultural, and social sustainability (Sustainability).

2.4.4 Co-word analysis

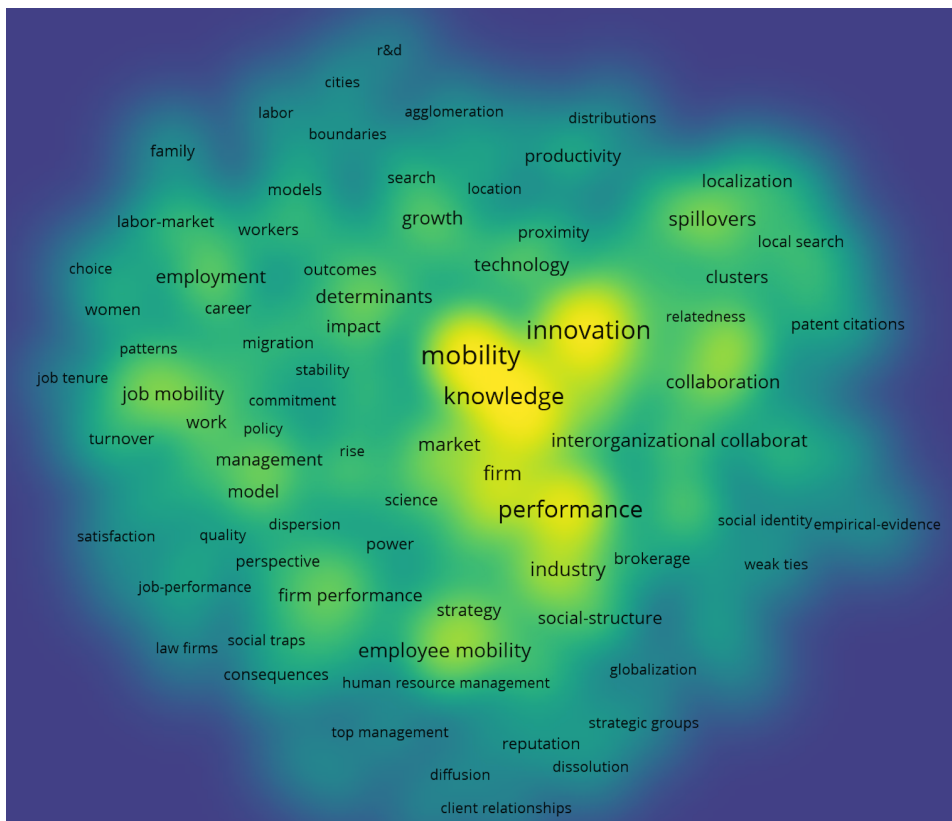
Co-word analysis is a bibliometric analysis based on the actual content of a publication (Donthu et al., 2021). In contrast to co-citation analysis and bibliographic coupling, which deal with the cited or citing publications, co-word analysis uses the keywords of the publications or authors as the unit of analysis. If these keywords are not known, other words from the title, abstract, or full text of the publication can be used. Co-word analysis is based on the assumption that the more frequently two words occur together, the greater the connection between publications containing those words. Accordingly, a network of topics emerges that represent the conceptual space of a research field (Zupic & Čater, 2015). The main limitation of co-word analysis is the fact that words can be used in different contexts and therefore do not always reflect the exact and concrete content of a publication, which means that these words may also not be correctly assigned to a specific thematic cluster. Therefore, it is recommended that this method is used as a supplement that enriches the understanding of clustered networks derived through co-citation analysis and bibliographic coupling (Donthu et al., 2021). It could also be useful for predicting future research in a field, especially when using words from the text of publications on future research directions (Donthu et al., 2021). The clustered network and density visualization of keywords in the field of interorganizational employee mobility are shown in Figures 8 and 9.

Figure 8: Clustered network of keywords based on the co-word analysis



Source: VOSviewer, own work

Figure 9: Density visualization of keywords based on the co-word analysis



Source: VOSviewer, own work

Each node in the clustered network represents a keyword that occurs at least three times in one of the publications in my sample. The larger the node, the higher the number of occurrences of the keyword. The thickness of the links between the nodes shows how often the keywords occur together in a publication. Nodes of the same colour represent keywords that share a common theme.

In the case of my sample, there are a total of 1,331 keywords, but only 176 of them occur at least three times in a publication. These 176 keywords are divided into 7 clusters. The word “mobility” (green cluster) has the largest number of occurrences as well as the strongest connections to other terms and is mostly mentioned in the context of interorganizational or job, as well as employee mobility. This word is followed by other words (see Appendix 10) that, according to my earlier co-citation analysis, usually imply the effects of interorganizational employee mobility. These are: “Performance” (dark blue cluster), which usually refers to the performance of the source and/or destination organization after the loss/hiring of an employee, as well as the performance of a mobile individual; “Knowledge” (dark blue cluster), which is usually mentioned in the context of knowledge transfer, knowledge flow, knowledge diffusion, and knowledge spillover, which usually occur in the direction from the source to the destination organization; and “Innovation” (red cluster),

which is usually mentioned in the context of the organization's ability to innovate after the loss/hiring of focal employees.

The word "mobility" in its cluster is accompanied by terms such as employment, career, organization, and management. In addition, terms such as "determinants" and "gender" also appear in a considerable number of cases, suggesting that the study of mobility effects alone is not sufficient to understand the entire phenomenon of interorganizational employee mobility. This suggests that it is important to also consider determinants (Tzabbar & Cirillo, 2020) that might be different from determinants of turnover behaviour already explored. In addition, many studies that have addressed gender differences in the decision to change employers have yielded opposite results (Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Valcour & Tolbert, 2003; Huang et al., 2006; Valcour & Ladge, 2008; Ituma & Simpson, 2009; Wynen et al., 2013; Sgobbi & Suleman, 2015), implying that this determinant should be further investigated. Also worth mentioning are words "network" and "cooperation/collaboration", which appear in several clusters and generally refer to the network of cooperating/collaborating organizations and the impact of this network on employee mobility between these organizations (Donnelly, 2009; Whittington et al., 2009; Culié et al., 2014) and how such mobility affects network formation after it has occurred (Broschak, 2004; Casper, 2007; Corredoira & Rosenkopf, 2010; Dokko & Rosenkopf, 2010; Carnahan & Somaya, 2013; Broschak & Block, 2014).

2.5 Discussion and conclusion

Although research on interorganizational employee mobility has been conducted for more than 20 years, it still lacks a comprehensive overview, as much of the existing evidence on this phenomenon is scattered and incomplete, focusing only on some aspects, mainly on the effects of mobility. In this chapter, by applying different bibliometric methods to the literature in the field of interorganizational employee mobility, I have provided a missing comprehensive approach to the target phenomenon, highlighting its main contributors and its evolution over time.

The performance analysis revealed that the most prolific and influential authors in the field are from the USA and Western Europe. Although 70% of publications are authored by more than one author, the overall level of collaboration among authors in this field is low, i.e., they collaborate on only about one publication. This is also confirmed by the fact that only 34 authors (7.1%) have more than one publication in this field. Such a wide dispersion of literature also proves that there are still some unresolved research issues in this field and that it has yet to reach maturity (Alayo et al., 2021).

The science mapping and network analysis have shown that in its early days, mobility research was mainly concerned with labour economic constructs such as labour market, unionization, migration, etc., which did not yet sufficiently distinguish this phenomenon from the simple employee turnover. Later, awareness was raised that this phenomenon is

something that links at least two organizations (i.e., the source and destination organizations) through a mobile employee, which shifted the focus to studying the impact of mobility on both organizations. These impacts were primarily recognized as knowledge transfer between organizations and their innovation capacity and productivity, especially in the context of knowledge-intensive industries. In addition, many scholars looked at social networks and interorganizational collaboration, noting that these direct effects of interorganizational employee mobility are beneficial to both the source and destination organizations, as the exchange of an employee allows them to establish a collaborative rather than a competitive relationship. Some others were more inclined to prove that these social ties and collaborative relationships between organizations are a prerequisite for a mobility decision, and thus focused more on the determinants of this phenomenon. However, neither the determinants nor the effects of interorganizational employee mobility have been fully and comprehensively studied, which should be done in the future. As awareness of the multilevel approach to many phenomena increases, future research could also examine these determinants and effects of interorganizational mobility at different levels (Tzabbar & Cirillo, 2020). A similar multilevel approach has already been proposed and applied, but only in the context of the employee turnover literature, where determinants of the decision to leave an organization were distinguished between the economic, organizational, and individual levels (Muchinsky & Morrow, 1980; Moynihan & Landuyt, 2008). However, as the phenomenon of interorganizational mobility goes beyond simple turnover behaviour, current mobility research calls for a missing multilevel typology of its determinants and effects that would contribute to a complete and adequate understanding of the whole phenomenon.

3 SYSTEMATIC REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE²

The bibliometric analysis of the literature on interorganizational employee mobility from the Chapter 2 showed that the targeted phenomenon is multilevel in nature. It also emphasized the importance of studying its determinants, because without understanding what drives individuals to change employers both within and between sectors, contemporary careers cannot be fully understood. However, despite many partial insights into the determinants of interorganizational mobility, they remain scattered and ambiguous. Using a systematic literature review, this chapter provides a comprehensive overview of the determinants of employee mobility and proposes their theory-based multilevel typology (i.e., economic, organizational, and individual determinants) for different sectors and industries. It also addresses mobility effects, as they are an inevitable part of mobility research and it is necessary to consider their multilevel nature as well.

After the introductory subchapter, the methodology of the systematic literature review is described in detail. The following subchapters and their subsections present the multilevel typology of mobility determinants and the multilevel typology of mobility effects, followed by concluding remarks.

3.1 Introduction

As globalization advances, organizations can no longer rely solely on physical capital and natural resources to compete in the global economy. Instead, human capital has taken precedence to respond appropriately to the changing realities in the global economy (Amankwah-Amoaha & Debrahb, 2011). Unlike the other strategic resources and capabilities that the organization can build, borrow, and/or buy in the marketplace, valuable employees are difficult to obtain or imitate (Campbell et al., 2017), making investment in developing their knowledge and skills imperative to the success of any organization (Bassi & McMurrer, 2007). However, while investing in human capital is a driving force for success, it also poses a great risk to the organization because the investment in an employee's skills and knowledge often cannot be protected if the employee decides to leave the organization permanently. As ongoing technological, societal, and economic changes intensify the phenomenon of interorganizational employee mobility (Mawdsley & Somaya, 2016; PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2018), the associated risks are particularly pronounced in knowledge-intensive industries such as information technology (IT), semiconductors, finance, pharmaceuticals, higher education (HE), etc. In such industries, key organizational resources are largely embedded in the minds of knowledge employees (Bermiss & Greenbaum, 2016). Possessing this tacit knowledge and being able to take it with them when they leave the organization empowers knowledge employees to shape their own work and

² The content of this chapter was published in co-autorship with my supervisors in: Zdrilić, I., Došenović Bonča, P. & Aleksić, D. (2025). Determinants of Interorganizational Employee Mobility: Systematic Literature Review. *Economic and Business Review*, 27(1), 50-79. <https://doi.org/10.15458/2335-4216.1352>

careers by taking advantage of various employment opportunities (Donnelly, 2009). For this reason, the phenomenon of interorganizational employee mobility is particularly interesting for such industries.

Interorganizational employee mobility is diversely defined as the transfer of human capital from one organization to another (Wynen et al., 2013), as the movement of employees across the boundaries of different employers (Haunschild, 2003; Collet & Hedström, 2013; Litano & Major, 2016), as the job change that accompanies a change of employer (Korpi & Mertens, 2003), as the flow of human capital due to labor market competition between the two organizations (Y. Liu et al., 2020), as the transfer of knowledge and skills acquired by individuals through their education, training, and experience from one organization to another (Amankwah-Amoaha & Debrahb, 2011), and as the mechanism by which organizations use and implement new scientific and technological knowledge and information (J. J. Lee, 2020). Further, the growing awareness of the importance of knowledge as a competitive advantage, as well as its transferability when highly skilled employees move to another organization (Ahn & Ok, 2019), has led to increased research on both the determinants and effects of interorganizational employee mobility and the approaches employers take to manage them.

Early research on interorganizational employee mobility focused primarily on the effects of mobility (Tzabbar & Cirillo, 2020), such as creativity and innovation that drive productivity, behavior change, organizational survival, financial performance, etc. (J. J. Lee, 2020). On a larger scale, employee mobility led to a new concept of career development, the so-called boundaryless career, which allows employees to break away from traditional lifelong employment with a single employer and go beyond the boundaries of any single organization (Arthur et al., 2005). However, more current research on interorganizational employee mobility highlights the importance of examining its determinants (Tzabbar & Cirillo, 2020). Despite the many partial findings on these determinants, they have remained somewhat scattered and ambiguous (Aguirre et al., 2015; Kornblum et al., 2018; J. J. Lee, 2020). Some studies consider them only as individual motivations and incentives, while others consider them as contextual determinants, but without specifying the differences between the perspective of a single organization and that of a broader labor market (Kornblum et al., 2018). Moreover, some studies suggest that one mobility determinant such as position in the organizational hierarchy prevents or negatively affects interorganizational mobility (i.e., the higher the position in the current organization, the less likely employee is to move to another organization) (Campbell et al., 2012; Ali et al., 2018), while some other studies show that the same determinant drives or positively influences the same phenomenon (Sgobbi & Suleman, 2015; Kiefer et al., 2022) because an employee with a better rank in one organization also has greater chances of moving to another organization. Similar inconsistent results are also found in studies with other mobility determinants such as gender, education, organizational size, organizational location, etc. All these findings indicate that current research on interorganizational employee mobility has still not provided a comprehensive

overview of its determinants. Due to the increasing liberalization of markets and ever-changing institutional arrangements (Amankwah-Amoaha & Debrahb, 2011), an in-depth analysis of mobility determinants becomes particularly important and relevant for the success of economic policies aimed at reducing spatial inequalities and developing economic growth strategies (Amarante et al., 2019). Moreover, scholars today point out that no mobility research can be conducted without considering the context of employee mobility that defines the opportunities and values associated with this phenomenon (Tzabbar & Cirillo, 2020). Therefore, current mobility research is also raising awareness of interorganizational mobility as a multilevel phenomenon, thus implying its determinants as well as effects should be studied across economic, organizational, and individual levels (Tzabbar & Cirillo, 2020). Nevertheless, such a multilevel approach to examining determinants has already been proposed and applied, but only in the context of the employee turnover literature (Muchinsky & Morrow, 1980; Moynihan & Landuyt, 2008). And since the phenomenon of interorganizational mobility goes beyond a simple turnover behavior, current mobility research is urgently calling for a missing multilevel typology of its determinants which would contribute to fully and properly understanding the entire phenomenon.

Accordingly, the main purpose of this chapter is to develop a comprehensive theory-based multilevel typology of the determinants of interorganizational employee mobility in different sectors and industries. With such a typology, I enable a deeper understanding of the factors that precede interorganizational employee mobility as well as insights into the interactions among the various determinants. I also identify those that remain under-researched. In addition, I address mobility effects as they are an inevitable part of any mobility research and it is necessary and urgent to also consider their multilevel nature (Tzabbar & Cirillo, 2020).

On a broader level, this chapter helps address the negative effects of mobility and reap the benefits of improved cooperation between source organizations and destination organizations. It also explains what influences individuals' decisions to leave their employers, which in turn has implications for all the organizations involved (Wezel et al., 2006). The rest of the chapter is organized as follows: The next subchapter describes the methodology used for the purposes of this chapter, while the following subchapters and their subsections focus on the theory-based multilevel typology of mobility determinants and the observed mobility effects, followed by concluding remarks.

3.2 Methodology of systematic literature review

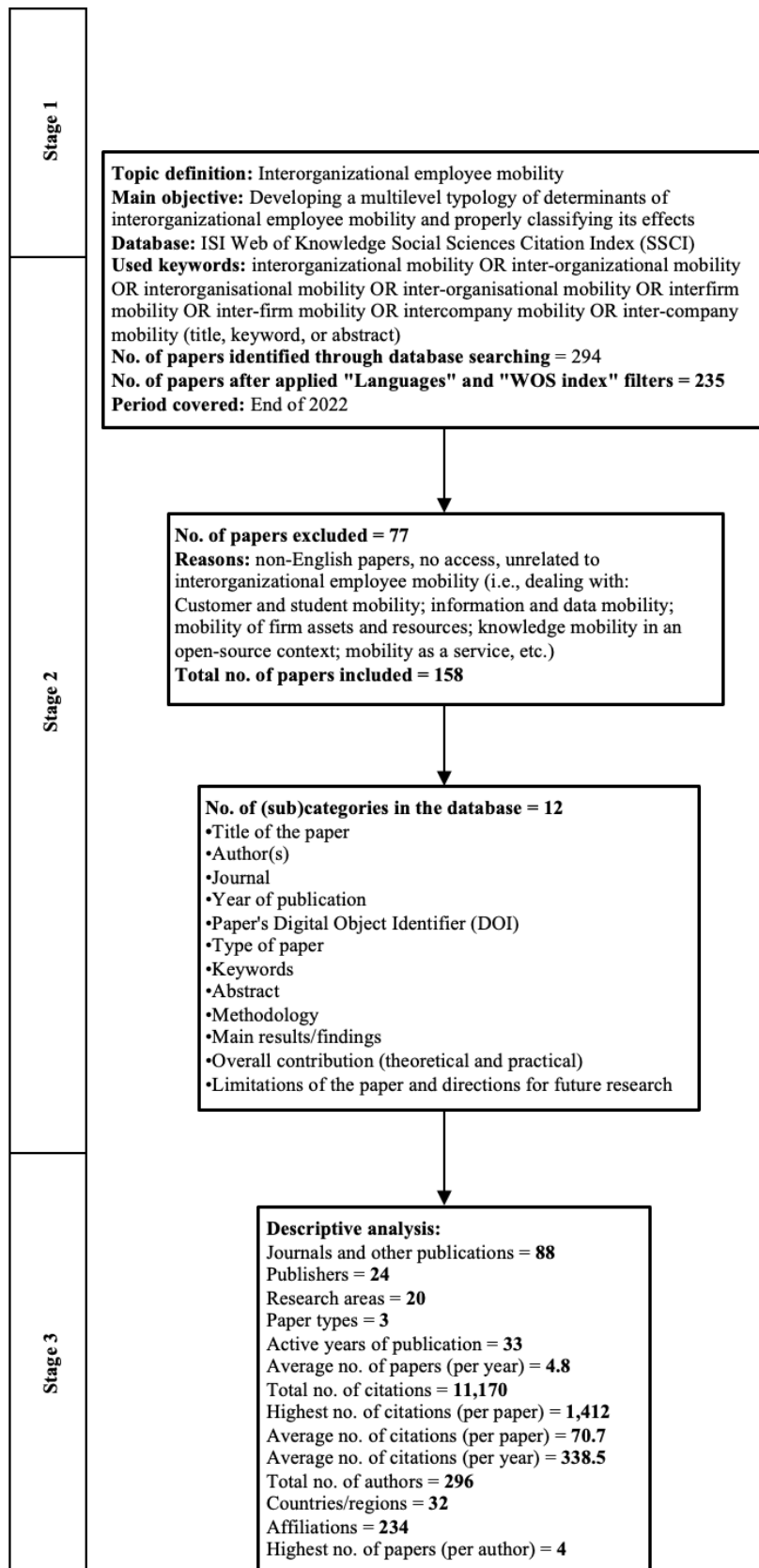
To develop a theory-based multilevel typology of the determinants of interorganizational employee mobility, I conducted a systematic literature review, as this method has proven to be clear and reproducible, producing similar results even when the entire process of reviewing and selecting articles in the target field is repeated (Pickering & Byrne, 2014).

More specifically, I based this systematic literature review on Tranfield et al.'s (2003) three-stage process, with planning of the review i.e., defining the main research objective and identifying key data sources, as the first stage. The second stage refers to conducting the review, which begins with identifying keywords and search terms. This is followed by selecting and screening the studies and determining their inclusion and exclusion criteria, based on which the reviewers decide whether to retain or exclude some of the studies for further analysis after reading them thoroughly and assessing their quality (Cronin et al., 2008). The data-extraction process then follows and this involves documenting all necessary information and characteristics of each study retained for analysis (e.g., title, authors, journal, publication details, etc.). This enables data synthesis, in which the results of the various studies on a topic or a research question are summarized and integrated (Tranfield et al., 2003). The third and final stage of Tranfield et al.'s (2003) process involves reporting and dissemination, which includes a descriptive analysis of the target field (e.g., main authors, main journals, number of citations, etc.) and writing the full report based on the findings of the entire analysis, as well as recommendations for researchers and practitioners.

As illustrated by Figure 10 that shows my entire review process, I started the Tranfield et al.'s (2003) first planning stage of the review process by conducting a preliminary search of the literature in this field and found that despite many partial findings on various factors of interorganizational employee mobility, almost all existing studies still focus on answering the question of why employees move and what happens when they do (J. J. Lee, 2020). Therefore, for the main objective of this chapter, I decided to develop a comprehensive theory-based multilevel typology of the determinants of interorganizational employee mobility across different sectors and industries and to properly classify the mobility effects. In addition, I have identified my key data source: ISI Web of Knowledge Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI) with all years available (1955-2022) at the time of the search (end of 2022). As mentioned in the previous chapter, this database is the most widely used, containing about 34,000 journals and other publications covering most of the current research in a wide range of different scientific fields (Birkle et al., 2020).

In the second stage of Tranfield et al.'s (2003) review process, I identified a list of the most important keywords for database searching and used it as a selection criterion for the targeted topic (title, keyword, or abstract). The list included "interorganizational mobility" as the main term, along with its synonyms and their spelling variants: interorganizational mobility OR inter-organizational mobility OR interorganisational mobility OR inter-organisational mobility OR interfirm mobility OR inter-firm mobility OR intercompany mobility OR inter-company mobility. The initial search of the database for these keywords yielded 294 papers. After refining this initial result using the "Languages" and "Web of Science Index" categories ("English" and "SSCI" were selected), 235 papers remained as the basis for further analysis. The "Web of Science Categories" filter was intentionally not used so that the papers from fields other than management, economics, and business would also be considered. Papers from sociology, psychology, and multidisciplinary sciences were also

Figure 10: Systematic literature review process



Source: Tranfield et al. (2003), own work

beneficial to provide a more comprehensive insight into the determinants of interorganizational employee mobility across different levels.

Since the number of papers (235) was manageable and attainable, I have started with reading of each paper. This served to gain a deeper understanding of the content of each paper in order to know which of them to exclude from further analysis. Ultimately, I excluded 77 papers because they were not written in English (although I specified the “Language” category at the outset) or because they did not focus precisely on interorganizational mobility of employees. Instead, they focused on one of the following topics: Customer and student mobility; information and data mobility; mobility of firm assets and resources; knowledge mobility in an open-source context; mobility as a service; technological mobility solutions for customers; mobility of computing and communication services; institutional mobility; green and sustainable mobility; mobility of calculations in management accounting standards; mobility in transportation systems; geographic and physical mobility, including change of residence rather than change of employer; and firm mobility to new markets or new partnerships, including firm relocation. Thus, the final total number of papers for another round of thorough and in-depth reading, and further analysis was 158. This repeated reading by me and my supervisors was used for the data-extraction process, which resulted in a spreadsheet file (ours was created in Excel) containing the following information for each of the papers we analyzed: Author(s), journal, year of publication, digital object identifier (DOI) of the paper, type of paper (e.g., empirical, review, etc.), keywords, abstract, methodology used, main results/findings, overall theoretical and practical contribution, and limitations of the paper and directions for future research.

Since my primary focus was to examine the determinants of interorganizational employee mobility, I began the data synthesis by creating another spreadsheet that contained detailed information on each determinant mentioned in each of the papers we read. At the outset, it was noted that the papers analyzed addressed these determinants only partially and in general terms, without specifically classifying them at the appropriate levels (i.e., economic, organizational, and individual). Moreover, most of these studies dealt with different mobility effects, so inclusion of these effects in my analysis seemed inevitable. However, there was no evidence of a structured and comprehensive overview of these factors (i.e., determinants and effects of interorganizational employee mobility), which additionally reaffirms the main purpose of this chapter.

The third and final stage of the Tranfield et al.’s (2003) review process began with a descriptive analysis of the selected papers (158) and their authors. The results were very similar to those of the performance analysis in the previous chapter, so only a brief summary is provided in Table 3 and the text that follows.

All papers were published in 88 different journals and other publications belonging to 24 publishers, five of which publish nearly 70% of all papers. More than half of the papers were

Table 3: Descriptive analysis of 158 papers in the field of interorganizational employee mobility

TOTAL NO. OF PAPERS: 158		
Journals and other publications	88	Organization science (11), Research Policy (7), Strategic Management Journal (7), Journal of Vocational Behavior (6), etc.
Publishers	24	Wiley (32), Elsevier (30), Sage (18), Taylor & Francis (14), Informs (13), etc.
Research fields	20	Business & Economics (87), Psychology (17), Environmental Science (10), Sociology (9), etc.
Paper types	3	Empirical papers (140), Reviews and meta-analyses (14), Theoretical papers (4)
Active years of publication	33	From 1978
Average no. of papers (per year)	4.8	13 papers in 2010
TOTAL NO. OF CITATIONS: 11,170		
No. of citations of the most cited paper	1,412	Almeida, P. & Kogut, B. (1999). Localization of knowledge and the mobility of engineers in regional networks. <i>Management Science</i>
Average no. of citations (per paper)	70.7	Top 10 cited papers: 6,075 citations
Average no. of citations (per year)	338.5	1,096 citations in 2020
TOTAL NO. OF AUTHORS: 296		
Countries/regions	32	Europe (202), USA (68), Asia (12), Australia and New Zealand (7), Canada (4), Latin America (3)
Affiliations	234	University of Illinois (8), University of Michigan (8), University of Texas (8), University of Pennsylvania (7), etc.
No. of papers of the most productive author	4	Almeida Paul

Source: ISI Web of Knowledge Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI), own work

from business and economics (55%), followed by psychology (11%), environmental science (6%), sociology (6%), information science (3%), and mathematics (3%). Among them, empirical papers represented the largest group (89%). In this group, authors applied different study designs and methods, such as surveys, interviews, experiments, qualitative and quantitative case studies, econometrics, and ethnographies. The remaining papers were mainly literature reviews or meta-analyses (14 papers) and theoretical/conceptual papers (4 papers). The number of publications in this field has remained constant since 1991 (with the exception of 1997) at about 5 papers per year. This average number almost tripled in 2010 (13 papers), which is a kind of turning point since more than half of the papers (65%) have appeared since 2010, which is also confirmed by the results of the performance analysis in the previous chapter. The top 10 most cited papers together include 6,075 citations,

accounting for more than half (55%) of the total number of citations (11,170). Most of these top 10 papers were published between 2003 and 2007, while the most recent among them is from 2015. Almost 70% of all authors (296) of the analyzed papers are from European affiliations, with England, the Netherlands, Germany, Italy, and Sweden taking the top 5 places. However, when looking at affiliations within a country, the US dominates with a total of 154 affiliations (65%) among all other countries. Among these US affiliations, the following universities lead: University of Illinois (8), University of Michigan (8), University of Texas (8), University of Pennsylvania (7), California State University (6), and Keck Graduate Institute California (5).

More detailed results obtained in the third stage of Tranfield et al.'s (2003) review process (reporting and dissemination) are described in the subsections of the following subchapters, which examine in detail both the determinants and effects of interorganizational employee mobility as an antecedent and consequence of the same phenomenon.

3.3 Multilevel determinants of interorganizational employee mobility

A review of 158 selected papers in the field of interorganizational employee mobility reveals that the targeted phenomenon has increasingly appeared since the beginning of the 21st century. Until then, most of the literature on employee mobility dealt with intraorganizational mobility or exclusively with employee turnover. However, since its inception and up to the present day, one of the established themes related to employees moving from one organization to another has been devoted to the conditions and contexts that promote or hinder employee mobility (Checkley & Steglich, 2007; Tzabbar & Cirillo, 2020). To properly structure these determinants of interorganizational employee mobility, various authors have attempted to classify them into different groups or categories. Very early on, the renowned scholars March and Simon (1958) proposed two groups of mobility determinants: the perceived desirability of movement and the perceived ease of movement from an organization. Almost half a century later, Knight & Yueh (2004), in their empirical study of interorganizational mobility in urban China, distinguished several subgroups of determinants of interorganizational employee mobility: personal and household characteristics, occupation, employer ownership, business relationships, and job search type. In their research in the higher education sector, Fernández-Zubieta et al. (2016) distinguished between mobility determinants related to the probability of receiving a job offer and those related to the probability of accepting it. Nowadays, however, scholars have found that the whole phenomenon of interorganizational employee mobility cannot be adequately studied or understood without taking into account the whole context that exists at different levels, as they call it, which means that interorganizational employee mobility should be considered as a multilevel phenomenon (Tzabbar & Cirillo, 2020). Such a multilevel classification was previously known mainly from the literature on employee turnover, where different factors influencing an employee's decision to leave his/her current job are divided into economic or environmental, organizational or work-related, and individual levels (Mobley et al., 1979;

Muchinsky & Morrow, 1980; Selden & Moynihan, 2000; Moynihan & Landuyt, 2008). However, since an employee's decision to move from one organization to another differs from and goes beyond mere turnover behavior, it has been necessary to explore the entire context of the target phenomenon of interorganizational employee mobility and classify its determinants according to the same proposed levels - i.e., economic, organizational, and individual levels, also known as macro, mezzo, and micro levels. Although there are many partial findings about the different determinants at these levels, recent authors state that interorganizational employee mobility is still a major challenge for knowledge management, especially at the organizational and individual levels (Shujahat, 2020). This means that a comprehensive overview of mobility determinants and the proposed multilevel typology is still missing (Tzabbar & Cirillo, 2020). Therefore, the following subsections show the results of my systematic literature review that focused on the development of the theory-based multilevel typology of determinants of interorganizational employee mobility, starting with the economic and followed by the organizational and individual mobility determinants.

3.3.1 Economic determinants of interorganizational employee mobility

Economic level in the broader sense usually refers to the state of an economy (March & Simon, 1958), whereas in the narrower sense it refers to specifics of economic sectors. Of all the papers I included in my analysis (158), 38 papers (24%) mentioned at least one of the mobility determinants at this level. A brief summary of all these economic-level determinants of mobility is presented in Table 4.

In a broader sense, authors mostly examine *labor market characteristics* such as job opportunities (Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Mano-Negrin & Kirschenbaum, 2000; Knight & Yueh, 2004; Sacchi et al., 2016) and the unemployment rate (Ituma & Simpson, 2009), which are usually related to another determinant, namely the level of *business activity* or *economic cycles* (Greenhalgh & Mavrotas, 1996; Huang et al., 2006; Ituma & Simpson, 2009; Kattenbach et al., 2014; Depew et al., 2017). When business activities strengthen in an economy, the movement of individuals between organizations increases. On the other hand, in times of recession, characterized by uncertainty, insecurity, high unemployment (Ituma & Simpson, 2009), and fewer opportunities in the labor market (Knight & Yueh, 2004; Depew et al., 2017), employees tend to stay in their jobs (Huang et al., 2006).

Kost et al. (2020) go a step further by introducing the framework of a *gig economy*, or a labor marker characterized by short-term contracts and freelance work as opposed to permanent jobs, noting that many of the workers who depend on platform-mediated work are increasingly less mobile because the nature and opportunities of these platforms dictate the frequency, rewards, and context of their gig work.

Some authors focus more on how differences between labor markets are based on *government policies and public services* (e.g., education system and social welfare) (Kalleberg & Mastekaasa, 2001; Korpi & Mertens, 2003; Casper, 2007; Ituma & Simpson,

Table 4: Economic determinants of interorganizational employee mobility

Broader economic determinant	Direction of the relationship	Authors	Sector-specific determinant	Direction of the relationship	Industry/sector	Authors
Labor market characteristics: job opportunities & unemployment rate	Mixed (<i>job opportunities: +; unemployment rate: -</i>)	Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Mano-Negrin & Kirschenbaum, 2000; Knight & Yueh, 2004; Ituma & Simpson, 2009; Sacchi et al., 2016	Structural characteristics: private vs. public sector	Mixed	Healthcare High-tech IT Manufacturing Non-tradables Not specified	Mano-Negrin & Kirschenbaum, 2000 Greenhalgh & Mavrotas, 1996 Donnelly, 2009 Greenhalgh & Mavrotas, 1996 Greenhalgh & Mavrotas, 1996 Yamaguchi, 1992; Kalleberg & Mastekaasa, 1998; Knight & Yueh, 2004; Sacchi et al., 2016
Business activity or economic cycles: prosperity vs. recession	Mixed (<i>prosperity: +; recession: -</i>)	Greenhalgh & Mavrotas, 1996; Huang et al., 2006; Simpson, 2009; Ituma & Kattenbach et al., 2014; Depew et al., 2017	Competitive and rapidly changing environment	Positive	Airlines Healthcare IT Semiconductors Theater TV	Amankwah-Amoaha & Debrahb, 2011 Mascia & Piconi, 2013 Bidwell & Briscoe, 2010 Almeida & Kogut, 1999 Haunschild, 2003 Sørensen, 1999
Gig-economy characteristics	Negative	Kost et al., 2020	Sector-specific conditions and requirements for employment and career advancement	Positive	Higher education Media production Theater	Smith-Doerr, 2005 Baumann, 2002 Haunschild, 2003

To be continued

Table 4: Economic determinants of interorganizational employee mobility (cont.)

Broader economic determinant	Direction of the relationship	Authors	Sector-specific determinant	Direction of the relationship	Industry/sector	Authors
Government policies & public services	Mixed	Kalleberg & Mastekaasa, 2001; Korpi & Mertens, 2003; Casper, 2007; Simpson, 2009; Ceccagno, 2015; Ituma & Ugarte, 2017	Strategic alliances	Positive	High-tech	Hoetker & Agarwal, 2007; Sampson, 2007
Type of market economy: liberal vs. coordinated	Mixed (<i>liberal</i> : +; <i>coordinated</i> : -)	Ivancic, 2000; DiVito, 2012; Kattenbach et al., 2014; Mueller & Schweri, 2015; Storz et al., 2015; Ugarte, 2017; Bos & Vannoorenberghe, 2018				

Note: **Mixed**, **negative** or -, and **positive** or + represent the direction of the relationship between the economic-level determinant and interorganizational employee mobility.

Source: own work

2009; Ceccagno, 2015; Ugarte, 2017), which is usually related to another economic-level mobility determinant and that is a *type of market economy* to which the institutional system belongs - i.e., liberal vs. coordinated market economy (Ivancic, 2000; DiVito, 2012; Kattenbach et al., 2014; Mueller & Schweri, 2015; Storz et al., 2015; Ugarte, 2017; Bos & Vannoorenberghe, 2018). In this regard, in contrast to the coordinated market economy, the liberal market economy offers lower employment protection, lower wage bargaining, and less investment in firm-specific knowledge (i.e., higher investment in general skills with low specificity that can be used in different firms in the same or different industries), leading to higher labor market flexibility and employee mobility between firms (DiVito, 2012). Storz et al. (2015) illustrate these differences by comparing the US and Japanese labor markets in the video games industry, with the latter having stricter safety laws that limit organizations' ability to hire and fire employees and consequently lead to less employee mobility between organizations. These differences also stem from the different education and social security systems in these countries: while in the US the focus is on general skills that are transferable in an open labor market, Japan emphasizes training within companies and the responsibility of companies to provide social security for their employees (Storz et al., 2015). Ugarte (2017) offers insight into the Argentine labor market which is characterized by insecurity, a weaker social welfare system (maternity and childcare policies), and strong union bargaining that strongly ties employees to their organizations and reduces their interorganizational mobility. On the other hand, the Swiss labor market is lightly regulated and therefore offers little collective labor agreements and employment protection, leading to higher interorganizational mobility of employees (Mueller & Schweri, 2015). An interesting case is that of Norway, which is considered a coordinated market economy and yet offers high unemployment compensations, which encourages employees to change jobs more frequently as they are also protected in case of failure and possible future dismissal (Kalleberg & Mastekaasa, 2001).

Economic determinants in the narrower sense tend to be sector-specific in the form of specific norms and incentives (Balland et al., 2015). This usually implies differences between the *private and public sectors* (Yamaguchi, 1992; Greenhalgh & Mavrotas, 1996; Kalleberg & Mastekaasa, 1998; Mano-Negrin & Kirschenbaum, 2000; Knight & Yueh, 2004; Donnelly, 2009; Sacchi et al., 2016). For example, workers in healthcare, high-tech, IT, manufacturing, and non-tradable industries who work in the private sector tend to change employers more than workers who work in the public sector because the latter offers more protected jobs and better retirement benefits (Greenhalgh & Mavrotas, 1996; Mano-Negrin & Kirschenbaum, 2000; Donnelly, 2009; Sacchi et al., 2016). Yamaguchi (1992), however, finds somewhat different results, noting that interorganizational mobility in Japan is lower in the private sector due to the higher salaries offered, especially early in the career, while Knight and Yueh (2004) find that urban residents in China generally prefer to work in the public sector, while rural residents tend to prefer the private sector.

In addition, employee mobility rates differ significantly due to the unique characteristics of some sectors. The semiconductors, TV, and airline industries, for example, are characterized by highly *competitive environments*, so courting by competing firms or so-called war for talent, is quite common in these sectors (Almeida & Kogut, 1999; Sørensen, 1999; Haunschild, 2003; Bidwell & Briscoe, 2010; Amankwah-Amoaha & Debrahb, 2011; Mascia & Piconi, 2013). In the healthcare sector, which is characterized by a *rapidly changing environment*, the mobility of chief executive officers (CEOs) has increased as the politics of the sector push managers toward careers in which they gain experience in different organizations. This is to help them develop a broad and diversified set of skills, knowledge, and abilities, and have the opportunity to build interorganizational networks that are beneficial to the sector as a whole (Mascia & Piconi, 2013). A similar situation can be seen in the IT sector, where the constant demand for skill development and change is driving people to move to organizations that provide what they need (Bidwell & Briscoe, 2010). However, due to the fastest growth rates that provide the most employment opportunities, the same IT sector also attracts many employees from other sectors (Ivancic, 2000; Sgobbi & Suleman, 2015), which has a positive impact on inter-sector employee mobility (i.e., employees moving between organizations from different sectors), which has been identified as one of the types of interorganizational mobility.

Some other sectors are characterized by *specific conditions and requirements for employment and career advancement*. For example, because of the common fixed-term contracts and standardized basic qualifications of actors, interorganizational mobility is common in the theater industry, and actors' careers are seen as typically boundaryless (Haunschild, 2003). In the media production industry, the employment structure is entirely shaped by its specific hiring requirements, which stipulate hiring only employees with whom organizations have worked before (Baumann, 2002). The higher education sector, on the other hand, is characterized by a limited number of positions and high academic requirements such as scholarly publications, postdoctoral experience, and the time required for career advancement (Smith-Doerr, 2005). Such sector-specific circumstances lead to employee mobility outside the academic sector to other organizations, which is another example of the aforementioned inter-sector employee mobility.

Finally, technology-intensive industries are known for their *strategic alliances* (e.g., research & development alliances) that exist between organizations and encourage employees to move from one organization to another within the same alliance (Hoetker & Agarwal, 2007; Sampson, 2007).

3.3.2 Organizational determinants of interorganizational employee mobility

The organizational level captures the internal environment of organizations as well as the connections and relationships they establish with external parties such as customers, suppliers, competitors, etc. Of all the papers included in my analysis, 52 papers (33%)

identify at least one determinant of employee mobility at this level. Table 5 summarizes all of these determinants of mobility at the organizational level.

The *interorganizational network* or *market ties* are the most common of these determinants (Sørensen, 1999; Broschak, 2004; Casper, 2007, 2013b; Donnelly, 2009; Whittington et al., 2009; Petruzzelli et al., 2010; Andersson & Thulin, 2013; Culié et al., 2014; Balland et al., 2015; Wang, 2015; Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016; Amarante et al., 2019; Eiriz, 2020; Lopez et al., 2020; Kuusk, 2021; Lahdelma, 2022; Piezunka & Grohsjean, 2022), and their importance is particularly relevant for knowledge-intensive industries. The closer the ties between organizations, especially within a region or cluster to which they belong, the greater their positive effect on interorganizational mobility (Sørensen, 1999; Donnelly, 2009; Culié et al., 2014; Eiriz, 2020; Lopez et al., 2020). Geographic proximity and spatial density (i.e., the number of organizations per square kilometer) also play an important role in moderating the relationship between interorganizational network/ties and employee mobility (Andersson & Thulin, 2013; Balland et al., 2015; Wang, 2015; Amarante et al., 2019; Lahdelma, 2022). Thus, when organizations' geographic locations are closer together, they form a common active area, which strengthens the shared interorganizational network and consequently positively influences employee mobility (Whittington et al., 2009; Wang, 2015).

The same is true for so-called organizational proximity or strategic and capability similarities between organizations (Balland et al., 2015; Wang, 2015). These similarities also have a positive effect on the creation of an interorganizational cooperation network and consequently on employee mobility, as people are more likely to move between firms that are already cooperating (Kuusk, 2021). On the other hand, greater differences between source and destination organizations increase the skills-adjustment costs, which discourages employees from moving to another organization and reduces their mobility (Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016). Moreover, due to the close relationship that consulting firms have with their clients, it is quite common for a consultant to move from his/her source organization to a client organization (Donnelly, 2009). This has a positive effect not only on interorganizational mobility, but also on inter-sector mobility (i.e., moving from the consulting industry to the, for example, IT sector).

In the video games industry, many organizations share partners with their competitors within the same network, which allows their own employees to establish connections with and potentially move to these competing organizations (Piezunka & Grohsjean, 2022). However, there are also cases that demonstrate a negative relationship between the interorganizational network and employee mobility (i.e., the weaker the network between organizations, the more likely it is that employees will move from one organization to another). For example, in the advertising industry, an exchange manager is more likely to leave his/her source organization if the organization itself is unable to maintain firm market relationships with others (e.g., customers, services, etc.) (Broschak, 2004). Simply put, in such a case, the decision to leave is positively influenced by the lack of good market relationships rather than

Table 5: Organizational determinants of interorganizational employee mobility

Organizational determinant	Direction of the relationship	Industry/sector	Authors	Organizational determinant	Direction of the relationship	Industry/sector	Authors
Interorganizational network/market ties	Mixed	Advertising (-)	Broschak, 2004	New learning & research	Negative	Higher education	Smith-Doerr, 2005; Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016
		Agriculture (+)	Amarante et al., 2019			Theater	Haunschild, 2003
		Biotechnology (+)	Casper, 2007, 2013b; Whittington et al., 2009;			Not specified	Arthur et al., 2005
		Footwear (+)	Eiriz, 2020				
		Higher education (+)	Petruzzelli et al., 2010; Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016				
		IT (+)	Donnelly, 2009	On-the-job training	Negative	Engineering	Rahman, 2012
		Micro & nanotechnology (+)	Culié et al., 2014			Public services	Wynen et al., 2013
		Services (+)	Amarante et al., 2019			Not specified	Harper, 1995
		TV (+)	Sørensen, 1999				
		Video games (+)	Piezunka & Grohsjean, 2022				
		Not specified (+)	Andersson & Thulin, 2013; Balland et al., 2015; Wang, 2015; Lopez et al., 2020; Kuusk, 2021; Lahdelma, 2022				
Organizational status	Negative	Advertising	Broschak et al., 2020	Promotions	Mixed	Construction (+)	Huang et al., 2006
		Biotechnology	Casper, 2007, 2013b			Public services (mixed)	Wynen et al., 2013; S. Lee, 2018
		High-tech	Greenhalgh & Mavrotas, 1996			Not specified (-)	Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Campbell et al., 2017; Kost et al., 2020
		Higher education	Loy & Sage, 1978; D'aveni, 1996; Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016				
		TV	Sørensen, 1999				
		Not specified	Kiefer et al., 2022				

To be continued

Table 5: Organizational determinants of interorganizational employee mobility (cont.)

Organizational determinant	Direction of the relationship	Industry/sector	Authors	Organizational determinant	Direction of the relationship	Industry/sector	Authors
Organizational support	Negative	Engineering	Gambardella et al., 2009; Rahman, 2012	Organizational size	Mixed	Agriculture (-)	Amarante et al., 2019
		Higher education	Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016			Banking (-)	Leggatt, 1979; Sgobbi & Suleman, 2015
Income/salary	Negative	IT	James, 2014			Construction (-)	Leggatt, 1979
		Micro & nanotechnology	Culié et al., 2014			Distribution (-)	Leggatt, 1979
		Public services	Wynen et al., 2013; Ali et al., 2018			Engineering (-)	Leggatt, 1979
		Textiles	Ceccagno, 2015			Foods (-)	Leggatt, 1979
		Not specified	Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Arthur et al., 2005			High-tech (-)	Greenhalgh & Mavrotas, 1996
						Insurance (-)	Leggatt, 1979
						IT (mixed)	Bidwell & Briscoe, 2010
						Manufacturing (-)	Greenhalgh & Mavrotas, 1996
						Non-tradables (-)	Greenhalgh & Mavrotas, 1996
						Petrochemicals (-)	Leggatt, 1979
		Banking	Sgobbi & Suleman, 2015; Ugarte, 2017			Publishing (-)	Leggatt, 1979
		Construction	Huang et al., 2006			Road transport (-)	Leggatt, 1979
		IT	Depew et al., 2017			Services (-)	Amarante et al., 2019
		Legal services	Campbell et al., 2012			Textiles (-)	Leggatt, 1979
		Public services	Ali et al., 2018; S. Lee, 2018			Not specified (-)	Yamaguchi, 1992; Dobrev, 2012; Balachandran & Wezel, 2020
		Textiles	Ceccagno, 2015				
		Not specified	Harper, 1995; Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Gruetter & Lalive, 2009; Kacperczyk & Balachandran, 2018				

To be continued

Table 5: Organizational determinants of interorganizational employee mobility (cont.)

Organizational determinant	Direction of the relationship	Industry/sector	Authors	Organizational determinant	Direction of the relationship	Industry/sector	Authors
Organizational age	Mixed	Not specified (mixed)	Dobrev, 2012; Balachandran & Wezel, 2020	Type of employment	Mixed (part-time: +; full-time: -)	High-tech	Greenhalgh & Mavrotas, 1996
Organizational location: urban vs. rural area	Mixed (rural: +; urban: -)	Banking	Sgobbi & Suleman, 2015			Manufacturing	Greenhalgh & Mavrotas, 1996; Seo & Somaya, 2021
		Not specified	Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Czaller et al., 2021			Non-tradables	Greenhalgh & Mavrotas, 1996
						Not specified	Campbell et al., 2017; Balachandran & Wezel, 2020

Note: **Mixed**, **negative** or -, and **positive** or + represent the direction of the relationship between the determinant of the source organization and interorganizational employee mobility.

Source: own work

their abundance. Thus, it is fair to say that this interorganizational network determinant can promote interorganizational employee mobility, but it can also prevent it.

An *organization's status* or reputation is another important organizational-level mobility determinant (Kiefer et al., 2022), especially in advertising (Broschak, 2020), biotechnology (Casper, 2007, 2013b), high-tech (Greenhalgh & Mavrotas, 1996), higher education (Loy & Sage, 1978; D'aveni, 1996; Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016), and TV industry (Sørensen, 1999). Biotechnology startups measure their status by the number of so-called star scientists who decide to take a risk and move there (Casper, 2013a, 2013b). Other high-tech organizations measure it by the production of new technologies and investment in research and development (R&D) (Greenhalgh & Mavrotas, 1996), as well as by the success of a region or cluster to which the organization belongs (Casper, 2007). The latter also applies to commercial broadcasters, whose position in the interorganizational network increases their organizational rank (Sørensen, 1999). In the higher education sector, organizational status is usually measured by the organization's performance in four areas: teaching, research, knowledge transfer, and international outlook (Times Higher Education, 2022). Thus, academic employees will move to an institution with higher status because of direct benefits, such as more time for research and increased funding, but also because of the positive externalities associated with these positions, which can contribute to their individual standing (Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016).

Various opportunities that a source organization can provide that develop additional skills and improve employee competencies, such as *new learning and research* (Haunschild, 2003; Arthur et al., 2005; Smith-Doerr, 2005; Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016), *on-the-job training* (Harper, 1995; Rahman, 2012; Wynen et al., 2013) and *promotions* (Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Huang et al., 2006; Wynen et al., 2013; Campbell et al., 2017; S. Lee, 2018; Kost et al., 2020) tend to have a negative effect on individuals' decisions to move beyond the boundaries of their source organization. However, Huang et al.'s (2006) study reached the opposite conclusion when it examined only promotion. It found that employees who are promoted faster than their colleagues, are more likely to move to another organization because such promotion speed is evidence of the quality of their competencies and skills, which make them more attractive in the labor market. A study in the US public service also found mixed results with the same determinant. Performance-based promotions were found to have a negative effect on mobility within the same sector but a positive effect on mobility outside the public service. Thus, when a promotion is based on performance, employees are more likely to stay in their current organization and less likely to accept another job in the public service. However, if they decide to move, they are more likely to go to an organization outside that sector (i.e., inter-sector mobility). One possible explanation could be that employees who are promoted frequently also have greater skills and capacity and are therefore more likely to find a job outside their sector (Wynen et al., 2013).

Several authors mention *organizational support* as a factor that may influence an individual's decision to stay in or leave the source organization (Doering & Rhodes, 1996;

Arthur et al., 2005; Gambardella et al., 2009; Rahman, 2012; Wynen et al., 2013; Culié et al., 2014; James, 2014; Ceccagno, 2015; Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016; Ali et al., 2018). Culié et al. (2014) define it as the financial and human resources needed and the importance the organization places on the individual's work, while Arthur et al. (2005) see it as support from supervisors or affirmation from other respected individuals. Several other authors see organizational support in the context of a collective bargaining union (Ali et al., 2018), as well as in the autonomy granted and the opportunity to participate in decision-making processes and performance appraisals that directly affect one's career (Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Gambardella et al., 2009; Rahman, 2012). Finally, some authors place organizational support in the context of work-life balance (Wynen et al., 2013; James, 2014; Ceccagno, 2015), which typically includes flexible work arrangements, reduced work hours, personal leave, and practical help with childcare (James, 2014).

Income level also emerges as an important mobility determinant at the organizational level (Harper, 1995; Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Gruetter & Lalive, 2009; Kacperczyk & Balachandran, 2018), especially in industries such as banking (Sgobbi & Suleman, 2015; Ugarte, 2017), construction (Huang et al., 2006), IT (Depew et al., 2017), legal services (Campbell et al., 2012), public services (S. Lee, 2018; Ali et al., 2018), and textiles (Ceccagno, 2015). It is negatively related to interorganizational mobility, i.e., employees with higher income/salary are less likely to leave their source organizations (Gruetter & Lalive, 2009). Kacperczyk and Balachandran (2018) have given even more attention to the relationship between income and mobility by including the income dispersion which occurs both between levels (vertical dispersion) and within the same level (horizontal dispersion) in an organization. While vertical income dispersion (i.e., the differences between the incomes of employees at different hierarchical levels) has a negative effect on interorganizational mobility, horizontal dispersion (i.e., the differences between the incomes of employees at the same hierarchical level) has the opposite effect. This result is also confirmed by Ali et al. (2018), who claim that male employees are more likely to switch employers if they believe they are paid less than their colleagues. The same was shown in the study by Sgobbi and Suleman (2015), who found that employees in retail banking who believed they were paid less than their colleagues were more likely to switch to a competitor (intra-sector mobility) that might value them better or, even more radically, to an organization from a completely different sector (inter-sector mobility).

Organizational size, age and location are also important determinants of employee mobility in most industries/sectors (Yamaguchi, 1992; Leggatt, 1979; Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Greenhalgh & Mavrotas, 1996; Bidwell & Briscoe, 2010; Dobrev, 2012; Sgobbi & Suleman, 2015; Amarante et al., 2019; Balachandran & Wezel, 2020; Czaller et al., 2021). The larger a firm is in agriculture, banking, construction, distribution, engineering, foods, high-tech, insurance, manufacturing, non-tradables, petrochemicals, publishing, road transportation, services, and textiles, the more likely an employee is to stay in the firm. Interestingly, Bidwell and Briscoe (2010) reach a slightly different conclusion in IT. They claim that early

in their careers, employees prefer to work in larger organizations because these organizations provide more opportunities to develop their skills, but later, as they gain more experience, their propensity to leave these large organizations increases. Dobrev (2012), on the other hand, focused more on organizational structure and concluded that the inflexibility and slowness of bureaucratic structures, as opposed to flat structures, have a positive effect on interorganizational employee mobility. He also finds that organizational age slightly weakens the relationship between organizational size and employee mobility, in the sense that the likelihood of a manager leaving is higher in a larger organization founded a century ago than in an organization that is ten times smaller but five times younger (Dobrev, 2012). The recent study by Czaller et al. (2021) shows that the mobility of the Swedish labor force is biased toward larger cities and metropolitan areas rather than some rural areas. Similar findings are confirmed in the study by Sgobbi and Suleman (2015) for the Portuguese banking sector. They find that the metropolitan area of a large city hinders intra-sector mobility but drives inter-sector mobility (i.e., switching outside the banking sector). However, both intra- and inter-sector mobility are much higher in suburban areas because they are more heterogeneous and thus make different organizations more visible, which helps employees to pursue alternative employment opportunities and consequently to leave their current employer (Doering & Rhodes, 1996).

Different *types of employment* are also determinants of mobility worth mentioning at this level of analysis (Balachandran & Wezel, 2020). While full-time employees are less likely to leave their employer, part-time employees will seek alternative opportunities (Greenhalgh & Mavrotas, 1996). There are also various agreements such as non-compete agreements (NCAs) and the inevitable disclosure doctrine (IDD) that are commonly used to protect organization's intellectual property, particularly in the area of R&D (Campbell et al., 2017; Seo & Somaya, 2021). Because they typically limit employees' alternative employment options, they have a direct negative effect on interorganizational employee mobility.

3.3.3 Individual determinants of interorganizational employee mobility

The determinants of employee mobility at the individual level refer to various personal and professional factors that influence employees' decisions to move to another organization. 68 of the papers from my sample (43%) address at least one determinant at this level. All of these individual-level determinants are presented in Table 6.

The most interesting among them, and the most frequently studied in different sectors and industries, are *social ties* (Baumann, 2002; Haunschild, 2003; Broschak, 2004; Knight & Yueh, 2004; Smith-Doerr, 2005; Casper, 2007, 2013a, 2013b; Perkmann & Walsh, 2007; Randel & Ranft, 2007; Waters & Smith, 2008; Donnelly, 2009; Ituma & Simpson, 2009; Whittington et al., 2009; Dokko & Rosenkopf, 2010; Rider, 2012; Collet & Hedström, 2013; Culié et al., 2014; Balland et al., 2015; Campbell et al., 2017; Di Lorenzo & Almeida, 2017;

Table 6: Individual determinants of interorganizational employee mobility

Individual determinant	Direction of the relationship	Industry/sector	Authors	Individual determinant	Direction of the relationship	Industry/sector	Authors
Social ties	Mixed	Advertising (mixed)	Broschak, 2004; Broschak et al., 2020	Demographic factors: Age	Negative	Agriculture	Leggatt, 1979; Amarante et al., 2019
		Biotechnology (+)	Smith-Doerr, 2005; Casper, 2007, 2013a, 2013b; Perkmann & Walsh, 2007; Whittington et al., 2009			Banking	Sgobbi & Suleman, 2015
		Engineering (+)	Perkmann & Walsh, 2007			Construction	Leggatt, 1979
		Finance (+)	Rider, 2012			Consulting	Dries & Pepermans, 2008
		High-tech (mixed)	Waters & Smith, 2008			Distribution	Leggatt, 1979; Dries & Pepermans, 2008
		IT (mixed)	Donnelly, 2009; Ituma & Simpson, 2009; Carnahan et al., 2020			Electronics	Dries & Pepermans, 2008
		Legal services (+)	Seo & Somaya, 2021			Engineering	Leggatt, 1979
		Media production (+)	Baumann, 2002			Finance	Dries & Pepermans, 2008
		Micro & nanotechnology (+)	Culié et al., 2014			Foods	Leggatt, 1979
		Pharmaceuticals (+)	Perkmann & Walsh, 2007; Di Lorenzo & Almeida, 2017			Healthcare	Mano-Negrin & Kirschenbaum, 2000
		Theater (+)	Haunschild, 2003			High-tech	Greenhalgh & Mavrotas, 1996
		Wireless telecommunications (+)	Dokko & Rosenkopf, 2010			Higher education	Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016
		Not specified (mixed)	Knight & Yueh, 2004; Randel & Ranft, 2007; Collet & Hedström, 2013; Balland et al., 2015; Campbell et al., 2017			Insurance	Leggatt, 1979
						Manufacturing	Greenhalgh & Mavrotas, 1996
						Non-tradables	Greenhalgh & Mavrotas, 1996
						Petrochemicals	Leggatt, 1979
						Publishing	Leggatt, 1979
						Public services	Wynen et al., 2013; Ali et al., 2018
						Road transport	Leggatt, 1979
						Telecommunications	Dries & Pepermans, 2008
						Textiles	Leggatt, 1979
						Not specified	Kidd, 1991; Farber, 1994; Harper, 1995; Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Knight & Yueth, 2004; Buchinsky et al., 2010; Kattenbach et al., 2014; Balachandran & Wezel, 2020

To be continued

Table 6: Individual determinants of interorganizational employee mobility (cont.)

Individual determinant	Direction of the relationship	Industry/sector	Authors	Individual determinant	Direction of the relationship	Industry/sector	Authors
Demographic factors: Gender	Mixed	Agriculture (F: -; M: +)	Amarante et al., 2019	Family related factors: marital status, children & household income share	Negative (married with children bringing home the larger share of household income)	Banking	Eby, 2001
		Banking (F: -; M: +)	Sgobbi & Suleman, 2015; Ugarte, 2017			Construction	Huang et al., 2006
Demographic factors: Education	Mixed	Construction (F: -; M: +)	Huang et al., 2006			Energy	Eby, 2001
		Healthcare (F: +; M: -)	Valcour & Ladge, 2008			Healthcare	Mano-Negrin & Kirschenbaum, 2000; Valcour & Ladge, 2008
Demographic factors: Gender	Mixed	Higher education (F: +; M: -)	Valcour & Ladge, 2008; Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016			Higher education	Valcour & Ladge, 2008; Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016
		IT (F: -; M: +)	Ituma & Simpson, 2009			Manufacturing	Eby, 2001; Valcour & Ladge, 2008
Demographic factors: Education	Mixed	Manufacturing (F: +; M: -)	Valcour & Ladge, 2008			Pharmaceuticals	Eby, 2001
		Public services (mixed)	Valcour & Ladge, 2008; Wynen et al., 2013			Public services	Valcour & Ladge, 2008; Ali et al., 2018
Demographic factors: Gender	Mixed	Not specified (mixed)	Farber, 1994; Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Valcour & Tolbert, 2003; Knight & Yueth, 2004; Javdani, 2020			Services	Eby, 2001
		Agriculture (-)	Amarante et al., 2019			Telecommunications	Eby, 2001
Demographic factors: Education	Mixed	Banking (+)	Sgobbi & Suleman, 2015			Not specified	Kidd, 1991; Valcour & Tolbert, 2003; Knight & Yueh, 2004
		High-tech (+)	Greenhalgh & Mavrotas, 1996				
Demographic factors: Gender	Mixed	IT (+)	Ituma & Simpson, 2009				
		Manufacturing (+)	Greenhalgh & Mavrotas, 1996				
Demographic factors: Education	Mixed	Non-tradables (+)	Greenhalgh & Mavrotas, 1996				
		Public services (+)	Ali et al., 2018				
Demographic factors: Gender	Mixed	Not specified (mixed)	Yamaguchi, 1992; Harper, 1995; Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Ivancic, 2000; Knight & Yueth, 2004; Buchinsky et al., 2010; Sacchi et al., 2016; Stijepic, 2017				

To be continued

Table 6: Individual determinants of interorganizational employee mobility (cont.)

Individual determinant	Direction of the relationship	Industry/sector	Authors	Individual determinant	Direction of the relationship	Industry/sector	Authors
Employment characteristics: length of service	Mixed	Agriculture (-) Banking (-) Healthcare (mixed) Public services (mixed) Not specified (mixed)	Amarante et al., 2019 Sgobbi & Suleman, 2015 Mano-Negrin & Kirschenbaum, 2000 Wynen et al., 2013; Ali et al., 2018 Kidd, 1991; Farber, 1994; Haper, 1995; Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Knight & Yueh, 2004; Buchinsky et al., 2010; Dobrev & Merluzzi, 2018; Balachandran & Wezel, 2020	Employment characteristics: work experience	Mixed	High-tech (+) Public services (-) Not specified (mixed)	Vilalta-Bufi, 2010 Ali et al., 2018 Haper, 1995; Buchinsky et al., 2010; Sacchi et al., 2016
Employment characteristics: organization specific skills	Negative	Banking Construction Consulting Distribution Engineering Foods Insurance IT Manufacturing Petrochemicals Publishing Pharmaceuticals Road transport Telecommunications Textiles Not specified	Leggatt, 1979; Sammarra et al., 2013 Leggatt, 1979; Huang et al., 2006 Sammarra et al., 2013 Leggatt, 1979 Leggatt, 1979 Leggatt, 1979 Leggatt, 1979; Sammarra et al., 2013 Sammarra et al., 2013 Leggatt, 1979 Leggatt, 1979 Leggatt, 1979 Sammarra et al., 2013 Leggatt, 1979 Sammarra et al., 2013 Leggatt, 1979 Haper, 1995; Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Mueller & Schweri, 2015; Campbell et al., 2017; Ganco et al., 2020; Kost et al., 2020	Employment characteristics: position in hierarchy	Mixed	Banking (+) Higher education (-) Legal services (-) Public services (-) Not specified (mixed)	Sgobbi & Suleman, 2015 Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016 Campbell et al., 2012 Ali et al., 2018 Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Kidd, 1991; Knight & Yueh, 2004; Kost et al., 2020; Yamaguchi, 1992

To be continued

Table 6: Individual determinants of interorganizational employee mobility (cont.)

Individual determinant	Direction of the relationship	Industry/sector	Authors	Individual determinant	Direction of the relationship	Industry/sector	Authors
Individual skills and competence	Mixed	Consulting (-)	Dries & Pepermans, 2008	Expectations to find a better job	Positive	Higher education	Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016
		Distribution (-)	Dries & Pepermans, 2008			Not specified	Kalleberg & Mastekaasa, 2001; Ruiz, 2014
Mobility experience	Positive	Electronics (-)	Dries & Pepermans, 2008	Orientation to professional development	Mixed	Healthcare (+)	Ainsworth et al., 2009; Mano-Negrin & Kirschenbaum, 2000; Mascia & Piconi, 2013; Valcour & Ladge, 2008
		Finance (-)	Dries & Pepermans, 2008			Higher education (+)	Valcour & Ladge, 2008
Current job satisfaction	Negative	Pharmaceuticals	Di Lorenzo & Almeida, 2017			Manufacturing (+)	Valcour & Ladge, 2008
		(mixed)				Public services (+)	Valcour & Ladge, 2008
		Telecommunications (-)	Dries & Pepermans, 2008			Theater (+)	Haunschild, 2003
		Textiles (-)	Ceccagno, 2015			Not specified (-)	Valcour & Tolbert, 2003
		Not specified (+)	Stijepic, 2017; Kiefer et al., 2022				
		IT	Ituma & Simpson, 2009				
		Healthcare	Mano-Negrin & Kirschenbaum, 2000				
		Not specified	Farber, 1994; Dobrev & Merluzzi, 2018				
		IT	James, 2014				
		Micro & nanotechnology	Culié et al., 2014				
		Public services	Ali et al., 2018; S. Lee, 2018;				
		Not specified	Doering & Rhodes, 1996				

To be continued

Table 6: Individual determinants of interorganizational employee mobility (cont.)

Individual determinant	Direction of the relationship	Industry/sector	Authors	Individual determinant	Direction of the relationship	Industry/sector	Authors
Personal characteristics	Mixed (<i>self-initiative, risk taking, “window-dressing”, active, investigative, enterprising, artistic, impulsive, curious personalities: +; committing, conventional, agreeable, anxious, self-conscious personalities: -</i>)	Banking Biotechnology Finance Micro & nanotechnology Public services Not specified	Alshahrani & Morley, 2015 Casper, 2007 Ahn & Ok, 2019 Culié et al., 2014 Ali et al., 2018 Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Kalleberg & Mastekaasa, 2001; Wille et al., 2010	Mobility costs	Negative	Higher education Not specified	Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016 Campbell et al., 2017

Notes: **Mixed**, **negative** or -, and **positive** or + represent the direction of the relationship between the individual-level determinant and the interorganizational mobility.

In “Demographic factor: gender”, **F** and **M** stand for **female** and **male**.

Source: own work

Broschak et al., 2020; Carnahan et al., 2020; Seo & Somaya, 2021). They are defined as relationships between people based on their social exchanges (Ituma & Simpson, 2009). Some authors refer to them as a close-knit network in which employees operate (Donnelly, 2009) or as ties that exist between individuals as a result of their mutual cooperation (Balland et al., 2015). Waters and Smith (2008) explain these ties as so-called bonding social capital, which implies the strength of the relationships that an individual shares with others in an organization. Very often, an employee's tacit knowledge is created by and embedded in these relationships, making it more difficult to transfer to other organizations, ultimately reducing the likelihood of switching to another company (Campbell et al., 2017).

When social ties arise from professional cooperation and business relationships outside organizational boundaries, they have a different effect on employees' interorganizational mobility by generally increasing it (Haunschild, 2003; Knight & Yueh, 2004). Waters and Smith (2008) refer to this as bridging social capital, which is more effective in acquiring information and more important for individual improvement (e.g., position, knowledge, skills, etc.). In other words, people cultivate their connections with others initially to secure their current job position, but later new opportunities for career advancement arise outside organizational boundaries, leading to the interorganizational movements (Randel & Ranft, 2007). In addition, social ties that exist between people from different organizations are the basis for interorganizational information exchange and potential cooperation (Collet & Hedström, 2013; Randel & Ranft, 2007). When former colleagues stay in touch, they create a basis for cooperation between their current employers (Hjertvikrem & Fitjar, 2020), which consequently form the interorganizational network. This interorganizational network enables new connections between their employees and contributes to building and improving their social ties. In other words, social ties as an individual-level determinant of mobility and the interorganizational network as an organizational-level determinant of mobility are firmly connected and often cannot be examined separately, which gives us a valid reason to study them in more detail.

Employees who are well connected to others in a variety of organizations are likely to have better insight into job opportunities elsewhere and are better able to identify and evaluate fit with other organizations and assess the costs and benefits of mobility (Di Lorenzo & Almeida, 2017). On the other hand, employers themselves prefer to hire individuals who have maintained strong interpersonal connections at their previous employer (Rider, 2012), as these connections often indicate that the employee was involved in a closer working relationship that gave him/her greater access to organizational knowledge, making him/her more attractive in the labor market, especially to competing firms (Seo & Somaya, 2021). However, Carnahan et al. (2020) found that employees of competing firms in the legal services sector whose managers have social ties based on their acquaintance (not necessarily their cooperation) are less likely to move from one firm to another. In other words, social ties shared by executives of two competing legal firms have a negative effect on their employees' switching from one firm to the other.

Another interesting aspect of social ties is that they affect not only the interorganizational employee mobility but also the inter-sector mobility. For example, engineers in the mechanical, biotechnology, pharmaceutical, and other chemical industries are encouraged to move between industry and academia by the strong social ties these engineers share with the scientific community (i.e., universities) (Smith-Doerr, 2005; Perkmann & Walsh, 2007). This is particularly the case when engineers and scientists belong to the same regional economy or cluster (Casper, 2007, 2013a, 2013b), demonstrating once again the importance of the moderating role of geographic proximity. Moreover, these inter-sector movements form a complete interorganizational network between industry and public research institutions (e.g., universities) (Whittington et al., 2009), again confirming the close link between social ties and interorganizational networks (Casper, 2013a, 2013b).

According to Broschak (2004), personal relationships between two managers of client and service organizations are the inevitable basis for a solid interorganizational relationship in the advertising industry. These ties create mutual trust between managers, lead to informal commitments, accelerate their communication, and ultimately anchor them in their current work position. As a result, managers are less likely to move to another organization because they are fully committed to the customers of their source organization. That is an example of a negative relationship between social ties and employee mobility. However, if a client organization decides to use services from a new provider, it is likely that an employee of the service organization will follow their ties and move to the client company's new provider, which is defined in the literature as circulation of social ties (Broschak et al., 2020). Using the same principle (client-service organizations) in wireless telecommunications, Dokko and Rosenkopf (2010) confirm that the social ties between service and client managers are a major reason why they easily decide to move to another organization. They simply assume that their social ties will remain and their cooperation will continue regardless of the destination organization.

In addition to social ties, *demographic factors* such as *age*, *gender*, and *education* are the most commonly studied (Leggatt, 1979; Kidd, 1991; Farber, 1994; Harper, 1995; Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Greenhalgh & Mavrotas, 1996; Ivancic, 2000; Mano-Negrin & Kirschenbaum, 2000; Valcour & Tolbert, 2003; Knight & Yueth, 2004; Huang et al., 2006; Dries & Pepermans, 2008; Valcour & Ladge, 2008; Ituma & Simpson, 2009; Buchinsky et al., 2010; Wynen et al., 2013; Kattenbach et al., 2014; Sgobbi & Suleman, 2015; Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016; Sacchi et al., 2016; Stijepic, 2017; Ugarte, 2017; Ali et al., 2018; Amarante et al., 2019; Balachandran & Wezel, 2020; Javdani, 2020). While age has been shown to have a negative relationship with employee mobility, gender and education show mixed results.

Doering and Rhodes (1996), and Valcour and Tolbert (2003) find that women are more likely to move from one organization to another, consistent with theories of “feminine” personality traits that make women more likely than men to pursue boundaryless careers (Ituma & Simpson, 2009). The same finding is confirmed by Valcour and Ladge (2008) using their

sample from healthcare, higher education, and manufacturing. However, men are more likely than women to engage in interorganizational mobility in agriculture (Amarante et al., 2019), banking (Sgobbi & Suleman, 2015), construction (Huang et al., 2006), and public services (Wynen et al., 2013; Ali et al., 2018). As Wynen et al. (2013) explain, using the example of the public service, women prefer to work there because the pay gap between women and men is smaller, significant progress has been made in gender representation, and the opportunity to balance work and family is greater than in the private sector. Ituma and Simpson (2009) found the same results in the IT sector in Nigeria. However, these could be better explained by the predominantly male society in Nigeria and its traditional gender differences, which define women primarily in terms of childcare, while giving more priority to men's careers (Ituma & Simpson, 2009).

Most authors have been able to demonstrate a positive relationship between education and mobility, implying that better educated employees are more likely to change employers (Greenhalgh & Mavrotas, 1996; Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Ivancic, 2000; Knight & Yueh, 2004; Ituma & Simpson, 2009; Sgobbi & Suleman, 2015; Sacchi et al., 2016; Stijepic, 2017; Ali et al., 2018). However Buchinsky et al. (2010) and Amarante et al. (2019) come to the opposite conclusion, as their studies prove that highly educated individuals are more likely to have a job that suits them better, which means that they are less likely to switch.

Family related factors such as *marital status*, *number of children*, and *household income share* have been shown to be important determinants of employees' interorganizational mobility (Kidd, 1991; Mano-Negrin & Kirschenbaum, 2000; Eby, 2001; Valcour & Tolbert, 2003; Knight & Yueh, 2004; Huang et al., 2006; Valcour & Ladge, 2008; Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016; Ali et al., 2018). Those who are married, have children, and earn a larger share of total household income focus more on their family life than on their career advancement, which negatively affects their decision to change current employers (Ali et al., 2018). However, these differences are more likely to apply to women than men, as women are more constrained by family-related factors and therefore seek stable employment rather than changing employers (Mano-Negrin & Kirschenbaum, 2000; Valcour & Tolbert, 2003). There are also special situations in which married individuals are more mobile because one spouse obtains a new job in a new location and his/her spouse moves with him/her and also moves from the source organization to a new destination organization (Eby, 2001).

Different *employment characteristics* also proved to play an important role when deciding about changing the employer (Leggatt, 1979; Kidd, 1991; Yamaguchi, 1992; Farber, 1994; Harper, 1995; Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Mano-Negrin & Kirschenbaum, 2000; Knight & Yueh, 2004; Huang et al., 2006; Buchinsky et al., 2010; Vilalta-Bufi, 2010; Campbell et al., 2012; Sammarra et al., 2013; Wynen et al., 2013; Mueller & Schweri, 2015; Sgobbi & Suleman, 2015; Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016; Sacchi et al., 2016; Campbell et al., 2017; Ali et al., 2018; Dobrev & Merluzzi, 2018; Amarante et al., 2019; Balachandran & Wezel, 2020; Ganco, 2020; Kost et al., 2020). One of the most important proved to be the *length of a service* in an organization. Dobrev and Merluzzi (2018) find that the chances of leaving

current employer decrease after five years on the job. This is quite logical because these employees develop organization-specific skills (i.e., knowledge about people, organizational processes, organizational culture, organizational history, business and product specifics, etc.) that are not transferable across organizations (Sammarra et al., 2013). Thus, a higher value of *organization-specific skills* reduces the opportunity for workers to gain economic benefits from their accumulated knowledge and skills by changing employers (Leggatt, 1979; Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Huang et al., 2006; Buchinsky et al., 2010; Ganco et al., 2020). Employees also feel they have found a “good match” with their employer (Mueller & Schweri, 2015), which ultimately reduces the likelihood that they will leave (Sammarra et al., 2013). This is also suggested in part by research in the public services (Wynen et al., 2013), which states that the longer someone stays in an organization within the same sector, the less likely they are to move to another organization within that sector. However, the same determinant (i.e., length of service within the organization) has a positive effect on the decision to move to a completely different sector (inter-sector mobility). It is also important to differentiate organization-specific from occupation-specific skills, as latter are less organization-oriented and easily transferred to other organizations usually within the same sector, thus enabling easier intra-sector mobility (Ivancic, 2000; Sammarra et al., 2013).

In addition to the length of service in a particular organization, general *work experience* is also crucial for individual mobility decisions. Buchinsky et al. (2010) and Ali et al. (2018) find that more experienced employees tend to move less, which is usually mitigated by their age and length of service in an organization. However, other authors note that experienced employees, especially in high-tech industries, tend to be more mobile because of their accumulated knowledge, well-developed skills, and established connections (Vilalta-Bufi, 2010; Sacchi, 2016). Usually, the better their position in the organizational hierarchy (e.g., managing partner), the less likely employees are to leave (Kidd, 1991; Yamaguchi, 1992; Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Donnelly, 2009). If they eventually decide to do so, they are more likely to start something of their own than to move to an established organization (Campbell et al., 2012).

Regardless of the organization-specific and occupation-specific skills that are more technical in nature (i.e., expertise and the ability to use the tools and techniques of the specific discipline – Katz, 1974), the *human skills* (i.e., the ability to work effectively with others – Katz, 1974) and *conceptual skills* (i.e., the ability to see the organization as a whole – Katz, 1974), and other *competencies* that someone possesses are something that differentiates them from others and thus affects their mobility decision differently (Dries & Pepermans, 2008; Ceccagno, 2015; Di Lorenzo & Almeida, 2017; Stijepic, 2017; Kiefer et al., 2022). Dries and Pepermans (2008) found that organizations invest more in employees they perceive to be future leaders or more talented than their peers, so these individuals are less likely to be mobile. Some other studies have shown that employees with specialized and unique skills are able to perform a broader range of tasks and adapt to new work demands, so they have a better chance of finding another job (Stijepic, 2017; Kost et al., 2020). On the other hand,

those with generalized and repeatable skills will not be able to compete in a diversified labor market, so their mobility ambitions will be lower (Kost et al., 2020). In the pharmaceutical industry, if an inventor performs better than his/her peers, he/she can negotiate an appropriate salary and profit sharing, which increases motivation to stay with the organization (Di Lorenzo & Almeida, 2017). What is interesting here, however, is that even inventors who perform worse than the reference group are less likely to leave because they know they can benefit from a familiar work environment with relatively higher-performing colleagues who provide them with opportunities to learn. They may also have access to the resources for innovative activities of more successful inventors (in their peer group), so the benefits of moving to another company may be unclear. Therefore, the inventor may be willing to accept lower incentives and rewards from the organization (associated with lower relative performance) and still remain in the organization (Di Lorenzo & Almeida, 2017).

Another determinant that tends to have a positive impact on employee mobility is the *mobility experience* itself (Farber, 1994; Mano-Negrin & Kirschenbaum, 2000; Ituma & Simpson, 2009; Dobrev & Merluzzi, 2018). Those who have had experience with interorganizational mobility will be more willing to change employers again (Farber, 1994; Ituma & Simpson, 2009). This is especially true for male workers (Mano-Negrin & Kirschenbaum, 2000). However, Dobrev and Merluzzi (2018) found that after the third job change, the probability of further changes decreases. This is explained by the fact that multiple and frequent job changes lead to a perception of lack of commitment and focus, which is perceived as undesirable by employers, especially those who tend to employ individuals who have career continuity instead of too many job changes (Sacchi, 2016).

Another mobility determinant mentioned at the individual level is *satisfaction with the current job* (Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Culié et al., 2014; James, 2014; Ali et al., 2018; S. Lee, 2018). Culié et al. (2014) define current job satisfaction with meeting career advancement goals and goals for developing new skills, as well as satisfaction with the social context of one's job. James (2014) focuses more on satisfaction with work-life balance. The better the work-life balance is, less likely one is to move away (Doering & Rhodes, 1996; S. Lee, 2018; Ali et al., 2018). However, if someone expects the new job to satisfy them even more or provide them with better resources for higher performance, they will not hesitate to move there, thus an *expectation to find a better job* is another significant determinant at the individual level (Kalleberg & Mastekaasa, 2001; Ruiz, 2014; Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016).

Further, some people seek different experiences simply because they want access to broader and more diverse labor markets (Alshahrani & Morley, 2015), and they see interorganizational mobility as an opportunity for challenge and growth, so their departure does not necessarily mean they are tired of their current job (Ainsworth et al., 2009). This implies that *individual orientation to a professional development* is another determinant on the individual level (Mano-Negrin & Kirschenbaum, 2000; Haunschild, 2003; Valcour & Tolbert, 2003; Valcour & Ladge, 2008; Ainsworth et al., 2009; Mascia & Piconi,

2013). Mano-Negrin and Kirschenbaum (2000) found that this is especially true for male employees as they seek to maximize their human capital returns and therefore tend to stay in one position until they find something better. However, Valcour and Tolbert's (2003) study showed the opposite: men who prioritized their career advancement were more likely to stay with the same employer as interorganizational mobility depressed their earnings. There are also differences between female employees as there are women who are more inclined to build their careers and therefore more likely to move between organizations that offer them such an opportunity (Valcour & Ladge, 2008). On the other hand, there are women who are more oriented toward fulfilling their family responsibilities and therefore are more likely to seek sheltered jobs and settle for what they have. In theater and healthcare, those who want to succeed also change the environments because routines and entrenched relationships are seen as limiting one's creativity and skill development (Haunschild, 2003; Mascia & Piconi, 2013).

Some studies examine *personal characteristics* as significant in the decision to leave or stay in an organization (Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Kalleberg & Mastekaasa, 2001; Casper, 2007; Wille et al., 2010; Culié et al., 2014; Alshahrani & Morley, 2015; Ali et al., 2018; Ahn & Ok, 2019). Wille et al. (2010) emphasize that employees who are ambitious, impulsive, curious, experimental, imaginative, and courageous are more inclined to interorganizational mobility. On the other hand, those who prefer to work in a familiar environment and with familiar tasks as well as those more committed (Kalleberg & Mastekaasa, 2001) will tend to stay where they are. There are also individuals who generally show a higher propensity to relocate and seek alternatives, even if that means trading their secure job for a new one (Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Casper, 2007). However, Culié et al. (2014) introduce the notion of "psychological mobility", which describes individual perceptions of their own ability to move. They find that the more individuals feel they could move to another organization, the less likely they are to actually do so. In their study of the security analyst market, Ahn and Ok (2019) focused more on the behavior of those employees who chose to move to another organization. They found that these employees tend to engage in what they call "window-dressing", increasing the quantity of tasks they resolve even as they decrease their quality.

Finally, the personal *mobility costs* associated with job search, bargaining, and switching, as well as the opportunity costs associated with leaving the original job (Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016; Campbell et al., 2017), may negatively affect interorganizational mobility.

3.4 Multilevel effects of interorganizational employee mobility

Tzabar and Cirillo (2020) developed a life-cycle approach to employee mobility research. They note that in the early phases, research in this area focused primarily on developing and testing theories around the main phenomenon. In the growth phase, it focused on the overall context in which employee mobility occurs, as well as the period after the employee leaves the organization, examining how this affects the organization that loses employees (i.e., the

source organization) and the organization that hires the employee (i.e., the destination organization), or how an individual employee gains or loses through his/her own mobility decision (Ahn & Ok, 2019). In practice, most mobility research up to its mature phase, which Tzabar and Cirillo (2020) refer to as the current stage, addressed various mobility effects. The data I used for this systematic literature review confirm this fact, with nearly 63% of the sample (99 of 158 papers) focusing on at least one of the mobility effects. However, the same mature phase of research on employee mobility in different disciplines such as economics, organizational behavior, human resource management, and sociology suggests that these mobility effects should be studied again, but this time more comprehensively and across the levels to which they belong (i.e., economic, organizational, and individual), given the growing awareness of interorganizational employee mobility as a multilevel phenomenon (Tzabbar & Cirillo, 2020). Thus, in this systematic literature review, I also briefly classified the effects of interorganizational employee mobility at the economic, organizational, and individual levels and across different sectors and industries (Table 7).

The effects of interorganizational employee mobility at the economic level have been studied mainly in the literature on regional learning and innovation and regional development policies, which emphasize the positive aspects of employee mobility for regional economic competitiveness (James, 2014). However, some other authors warn about its negative effects and undesirability, especially when economic success depends on long-term labor relations (Korpi & Mertens, 2003). In my sample, only six papers mention some of the mobility effects that can be attributed to the economic level. They mostly focus on how interorganizational mobility of employees in knowledge-intensive sectors increases business activity and thus affects the *productivity and growth* of markets, industry clusters, and geographic regions or practically *entire economies* (Beaverstock, 2005; Whittington et al., 2009; Gianelle, 2014; Campbell et al., 2017; Kuusk, 2021; Tóth & Lengyel, 2021). Moreover, interorganizational mobility often implies international movements, which in turn create global business networks through new knowledge, organizational practices, and wealth for the organization and the international space (Beaverstock, 2005).

Most of the papers from my sample primarily address the effects of mobility at the organizational level. *Knowledge transfer* is among the most frequently observed organizational-level mobility effects (Helmsing, 2001; Williams, 2007; Gambardella & Giarratana, 2010; Collet & Hedström, 2013; Broekel et al., 2014; Ganco et al., 2020; Y. Liu et al., 2020; Kuusk, 2021) studied in various industries, such as biotechnology (Casper, 2007), construction (Parrotta & Pozzoli, 2012), dairy (Tamásy et al., 2008), finance (Madsen et al., 2003; Cici et al., 2021), furniture manufacturing (Hoffmann et al., 2014), high-tech (Hoetker & Agarwal, 2007; Cantner & Graf, 2006; Waters & Smith, 2008; Maliranta et al., 2009; Cantner et al., 2010; X. Liu et al., 2010; Simonen & McCann, 2010; Vilalta-Bufi, 2010; Parrotta & Pozzoli, 2012; Corsino et al., 2019), IT (Ituma & Simpson, 2009; Taylor, 2010; Tóth & Lengyel, 2021), machines (Møen, 2005), manufacturing and services (Parrotta & Pozzoli, 2012; Bos & Vannoorenberghe, 2018; Seo & Somaya, 2021), petrochemicals

Table 7: Multilevel effects of interorganizational employee mobility

Economic level			Organizational level			Individual level		
Effect	Industry/sector	Authors	Effect	Industry/sector	Authors	Effect	Industry/sector	Authors
Productivity and growth of economic system			Transfer of knowledge	Biotechnology	Casper, 2007	Social ties	Advertising	Broschak et al., 2020
				Construction	Parrotta & Pozzoli, 2012		Biotechnology	Casper, 2007, 2013a
				Dairy	Tamásy et al., 2008		Finance	Checkley & Steglich, 2007
				Finance	Madsen et al., 2003;		High-tech	Cantner & Graf, 2006;
					Cici et al., 2021;			Fleming & Frenken, 2007;
				Furniture manufacturing	Hoffmann et al., 2014		IT	Castellani et al., 2022
				High-tech			Semiconductors	Tóth & Lengyel, 2021
					Cantner & Graf, 2006;			Corredoira & Rosenkopf, 2010; Goossen &
					Hoetker & Agarwal, 2007; Waters & Smith, 2008; Maliranta et al., 2009; Cantner et al., 2010; X. Liu et al., 2010; Simonen & McCann, 2010; Vilalta-Bufi, 2010; Parrotta & Pozzoli, 2012; Corsino et al., 2019		Underwaters	Carnabuci, 2020
					Ituma & Simpson, 2009; Taylor, 2010; Tóth & Lengyel, 2021		Not specified	Hjertvikrem & Fitjar, 2020
	Biotechnology	Whittington et al., 2009		IT		Professional development	Banking	Gianelle, 2014; Y. Liu et al., 2020
	Finance	Beaverstock, 2005					Energy	Eby, 2001
	IT	Tóth & Lengyel, 2021					Higher education	Eby, 2001
	Not specified	Gianelle, 2014; Campbell et al., 2017; Kuusk, 2021					Manufacturing & services	Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016
				Machines	Møen, 2005		Pharmaceuticals	Eby, 2001
				Manufacturing & services	Parrotta & Pozzoli, 2012; Bos & Vannoorenberghe, 2018; Seo & Somaya, 2021		Telecommunications	Eby, 2001
							Theater	
				Petrochemicals	Isaksen & Karlsen, 2012		Not specified	Haunschild, 2003
				Publishing	Bugge & Thune, 2016			Buchinsky et al., 2010;
				Semiconductors	Almeida & Kogut, 1999; Rosenkopf & Almeida, 2003; Song et al., 2003 Corredoira & Rosenkopf, 2010; Goossen & Carnabuci, 2020			Vinkenburg & Weber, 2012; Ruiz, 2014; Campbell et al., 2017; Javdani, 2020; Czaller et al., 2021

To be continued

Table 7: Multilevel effects of interorganizational employee mobility (cont.)

Economic level			Organizational level			Individual level		
Effect	Industry/sector	Authors	Effect	Industry/sector	Authors	Effect	Industry/sector	Authors
			Transfer of knowledge	Telecommunications	Sampson, 2007	Income/salary	Banking	Eby, 2001; Sammarra et al., 2013; Sgobbi & Suleman, 2015
				Textiles	Saxonhouse, 1999		Consulting	Sammarra et al., 2013
				Wholesales	Parrotta & Pozzoli, 2012		Energy	Eby, 2001
				Not specified	Helmsing, 2001; Williams, 2007; Gambardella & Giarratana, 2010; Collet & Hedström, 2013; Broekel et al., 2014; Ganco et al., 2020; Kuusk, 2021		IT	Sammarra et al., 2013
							Manufacturing & services	Eby, 2001; Martins, 2011
							Pharmaceuticals	Eby, 2001; Sammarra et al., 2013
							Telecommunications	Eby, 2001; Sammarra et al., 2013
							Not specified	Kidd, 1991; Valcour & Tolbert, 2003; Knight & Yueh, 2004; Buchinsky et al., 2010; Mueller & Schweri, 2015; Pearlman, 2018; Javdani, 2020
			Organizational productivity, performance, and competitive advantage	Airlines	Amankwah-Amoaha & Debrahb, 2011	Mobility experience	Not specified	Lopez et al., 2020
				Agriculture	Marino et al., 2016			
				Construction	Parrotta & Pozzoli, 2012			
				Finance	Cici et al., 2021			
				Fishing & quarrying	Marino et al., 2016			
				High-tech	Maliranta et al., 2009			
				Legal services	Brymer & Sirmon, 2018			
				Manufacturing & services	Martins, 2011; Parrotta & Pozzoli, 2012; Seo & Somaya, 2021			

To be continued

Table 7: Multilevel effects of interorganizational employee mobility (cont.)

Economic level			Organizational level			Individual level		
Effect	Industry/sector	Authors	Effect	Industry/sector	Authors	Effect	Industry/sector	Authors
			Organizational productivity, performance, and competitive advantage	Public services Theater Wholesales Not specified	Marino et al., 2016 Haunschild, 2003 Parrotta & Pozzoli, 2012 Mannix & Loewenstein, 1993, 1994; Campbell et al., 2017; Rocha et al., 2018; Wang & Cao, 2022			
			Business innovations	Biotechnology Engineering High-tech Pharmaceuticals Video games Not specified	Perkmann & Walsh, 2007; Whittington et al., 2009 Perkmann & Walsh, 2007 Simonen & McCann, 2008 Perkmann & Walsh, 2007 Storz et al., 2015 Alnuaimi et al., 2012; Broekel et al., 2014			
			Replication of organizational routines and processes	Accounting Advertising Foods Healthcare High-tech Legal services Petrochemicals Not specified	Wezel et al., 2006 Bermiss & Murmann, 2015 Shujahat et al., 2020 Shujahat et al., 2020 Castellani et al., 2022 Campbell et al., 2012; Brymer & Sirmon, 2018 Shujahat et al., 2020 Inkpen et al., 2019; Grandinetti, 2022; Park & Belderbos, 2022			

To be continued

Table 7: Multilevel effects of interorganizational employee mobility (cont.)

Economic level			Organizational level			Individual level		
Effect	Industry/sector	Authors	Effect	Industry/sector	Authors	Effect	Industry/sector	Authors
			Interorganizational network/market ties	Advertising	Broschak, 2004; Broschak & Block, 2014			
				Biotechnology	Casper, 2007			
				High-tech	Fleming & Frenken, 2007; Waters & Smith, 2008; Y. Liu et al., 2020			
				Higher education	Mai et al., 2015			
				IT	Tóth & Lengyel, 2021			
				Legal services	Carnahan & Somaya, 2013; Bermiss & Greenbaum, 2015			
				Semiconductors	Shimizu & Hirao, 2009; Corredoira & Rosenkopf, 2010			
				Underwaters	Hjertvikrem & Fitjar, 2020			
				Textiles	Ceccagno, 2015			
				Trades	Sosnovskikh, 2021			
				TV	Sørensen, 1999			
				Wireless telecommunications	Dokko & Rosenkopf, 2010			
				Not specified	Collet & Hedström, 2013; Raffiee, 2017; Lahdelma, 2022; Sun et al., 2022			
			Organizational status	Legal services	Betancourt & Wezel, 2016			

Source: own work

(Isaksen & Karlsen, 2012), publishing (Bugge & Thune, 2016), semiconductors (Almeida & Kogut, 1999; Rosenkopf & Almeida, 2003; Song et al., 2003; Corredoira & Rosenkopf, 2010; Goossen & Carnabuci, 2020), telecommunications (Sampson, 2007), textiles (Saxonhouse, 1999), and wholesales (Parrotta & Pozzoli, 2012).

Almeida and Kogut (1999) are most often cited for their research in the semiconductor industry. They suggest that the mobility of an employee, also known as a patent holder, spreads ideas, which is a driving force for local knowledge transfer. Some other studies have confirmed that these findings hold for other knowledge-intensive industries as well (Rosenkopf & Almeida, 2003; Sampson, 2007), where most knowledge is tacit and embodied by highly skilled employees, so its transfer through their mobility is also known as learning-by-hiring (LbH) (Vilalta-Bufi, 2010; Parrotta & Pozzoli, 2012). Some authors have even extended the relationship between mobility and knowledge transfer by examining the nature of the source and destination organizations and the characteristics of the mobile employees. In their sample of R&D laboratories, Maliranta et al. (2009) found that destination organizations unrelated to R&D activities benefit more from the employment of former R&D employees than R&D firms. Using a sample of the Portuguese manufacturing and services sectors, Martins (2011) has shown that only foreign organizations that hire employees of domestic organizations succeed in absorbing new knowledge because they can offer high salary increases and are thus able to hire the best workers. On the other hand, domestic organizations tend to hire “underperforming” workers from foreign organizations, which means that there is no greater source of knowledge spillover for them. Organizations may also lack the capacity to absorb external knowledge (Cici et al., 2021) or be reluctant to make novel changes in their established organizational patterns because such changes may be disruptive to their existing staff (Madsen et al., 2003). The educational background of mobile employees and the length of their tenure in the source organization also play an important role. Those with longer tenure were exposed to organizational knowledge for a longer period of time and thus contribute more to knowledge transfer between source and destination organizations (Marino et al., 2016).

However, despite the direct relationship between interorganizational employee mobility and knowledge transfer, the latter also acts as a mediator or moderator in a relationship between interorganizational employee mobility and other effects such as *organizational productivity, performance, and competitive advantage* (Mannix & Loewenstein, 1993, 1994; Haunschild, 2003; Maliranta et al., 2009; Amankwah-Amoaha & Debrahb, 2011; Martins, 2011; Parrotta & Pozzoli, 2012; Marino et al., 2016; Campbell et al., 2017; Brymer & Sirmon, 2018; Rocha et al., 2018; Cici et al., 2021; Seo & Somaya, 2021; Wang & Cao, 2022), as well as *business innovations* (Perkmann & Walsh, 2007; Simonen & McCann, 2008; Whittington et al., 2009; Alnuaimi et al., 2012; Broekel et al., 2014; Storz et al., 2015). While these effects are positive for the destination organizations, especially when mobility occurs between two sectors (i.e., inter-sector mobility) or between different regions/clusters, as these types of mobility prove to be one of the most important channels for fostering fresh and innovative ideas for existing

and new products and processes (Simonen & McCann, 2008; Alnuaimi et al., 2012; Isaksen & Karlsen, 2012), employee mobility usually has negative effects on the source organizations. It puts them in the precarious position of losing their tacit knowledge and expertise (Amankwah-Amoaha & Debrahb, 2011; Shujahat et al., 2020), draining their resources (Mannix & Lowenstein, 1993, 1994), increasing the cost of hiring and training new employees (Brymer & Sirmon, 2018), and demoralizing the remaining organizational members in an employee turnover work environment (Seo & Somaya, 2021).

All of this subsequently leads to lower performance and productivity, followed by the loss of competitive advantage of the source organizations (Amankwah-Amoaha & Debrahb, 2011; Cici et al., 2021; Seo & Somaya, 2021). This is particularly detrimental and occurs when key employees (defined as top decision makers) move to a competitor, where they not only transfer tacit knowledge but also *replicate the advantageous routines and processes* of their source organization (Wezel et al., 2006; Campbell et al., 2012; Bermiss & Murmann, 2015; Brymer & Sirmon, 2018; Inkpen et al., 2019; Grandinetti, 2022; Castellani et al., 2022; Park & Belderbos, 2022; Shujahat et al., 2020). Not surprisingly, the literature on strategic human capital views employee mobility as a threat and emphasizes the critical role of labor market constraints in limiting it (Møen, 2005; Campbell et al., 2017), especially in knowledge-intensive industries (Williams, 2007).

However, when employees move between organizations that share a common knowledge base or common information pool (Gambardella & Giarratana, 2010), such mobility strengthens their market ties and positively affects the development of their *interorganizational network* (Somaya & Williamson, 2008; Somaya et al., 2008), which is another frequently studied effect of employee mobility (Sørensen, 1999; Broschak, 2004; Casper, 2007; Fleming & Frenken, 2007; Waters & Smith, 2008; Shimizu & Hirao, 2009; Corredoira & Rosenkopf, 2010; Dokko & Rosenkopf, 2010; Carnahan & Somaya, 2013; Collet & Hedström, 2013; Broschak & Block, 2014; Bermiss & Greenbaum, 2015; Ceccagno, 2015; Mai et al., 2015; Raffiee, 2017; Hjertvikrem & Fitjar, 2020; Y. Liu et al., 2020; Sosnovskikh, 2021; Tóth & Lengyel, 2021; Lahdelma, 2022; Sun et al., 2022). Some authors also refer to it as network capital (Sosnovskikh, 2021) or human capital flow network (Y. Liu et al., 2020). Such a network often occurs in knowledge-intensive industries, especially when employees move between organizations from different sectors (e.g., from higher education to a related industry - inter-sector mobility), which enables organizations to adopt different innovative resources from each other (Sun et al., 2022) and gives them the opportunity for collective learning (Helmsing, 2001).

All these findings provide evidence that the interorganizational network, which we have already noted as a determinant of mobility at the organizational level, also emerges as a mobility effect. The same is true for *organizational status*, which also acts as both a determinant and an effect of employee mobility. Employees are driven by the organizational status of their preferred destination organization, but when an organization hires an

employee from a source organization with higher status, such mobility usually improves the status/ranking of the destination organization (Betancourt & Wezel, 2016).

The formation of an interorganizational network as a result of employees moving between organizations is based on social and professional connections between these mobile employees or with colleagues with whom they worked in the source organization but remained in contact after they left. Such network formation can therefore be applied to *social ties*, which also act as a mobility determinant and mobility effect, but at the individual level (Cantner & Graf, 2006; Casper, 2007, 2013a; Checkley & Steglich, 2007; Fleming & Frenken, 2007; Corredoira & Rosenkopf, 2010; Gianelle, 2014; Broschak et al., 2020; Goossen & Carnabuci, 2020; Hjertvikrem & Fitjar, 2020; Y. Liu et al., 2020; Tóth & Lengyel, 2021; Castellani et al., 2022). These social ties that employees share across organizational boundaries in turn lead to new channels between organizations and the formation of a new interorganizational network (Hjertvikrem & Fitjar, 2020). This network enables employees to receive information about new employment opportunities and mitigates asymmetric information related to job changes, which in turn triggers new interorganizational employee mobility events (Gianelle, 2014).

This basically closes the “employee mobility-interorganizational network/social ties” circle. Thus, it is quite difficult to disentangle the complicated relationship between employee mobility and the formation of networks/ties, as they have co-evolved over time and are closely intertwined (Shimizu & Hirao, 2009). Thus, an organization’s advantageous position in the interorganizational network can act as a double-edged sword: while it promotes organizational growth and competitiveness (Sørensen, 1999) by attracting skilled and talented employees, it enables existing employees to strengthen their social ties across organizational boundaries, which may cause them to permanently move elsewhere. There are many situations that show how interorganizational employee mobility can also have a negative effect on the market and social ties that organizations and their employees have with each other (e.g., with customers, buyers, suppliers, etc.). For example, in the advertising, legislative lobbying, and telecommunications sectors, where market relationships between service and client firms depend largely on the social ties of their exchange managers, there is a high risk that market ties between these firms will dissolve once one of the managers (either from the service or client firm) leaves (Broschak, 2004; Dokko & Rosenkopf, 2010; Broschak & Block, 2014; Bermiss & Greenbaum, 2015; Raffiee, 2017; Broschak et al., 2020). When a buying firm hires a new employee from a competitor of its usual supplier, the existing ties between buyer and supplier begin to weaken (Carnahan & Somaya, 2013). This basically means that interorganizational mobility almost always affects interorganizational ties, but the direction of such a relationship usually depends on whose employees move and where to.

In addition to social ties, papers addressing the effects of interorganizational mobility at the individual level also emphasize the opportunity for a *professional development* (Eby, 2001; Haunschild, 2003; Buchinsky et al., 2010; Vinkenburg & Weber, 2012; Ruiz, 2014;

Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016; Campbell et al., 2017; Javdani, 2020; Czaller et al., 2021). Acquiring diverse work experiences and improving work attitudes increase employees' performance, productivity, and market value (Buchinsky et al., 2010; Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016; S. Lee, 2018), thus contributing positively to their professional development. In the theater industry, mobility is a prerequisite for creative and innovative theater work and thus a must for those who want to advance professionally (Haunschild, 2003).

Various studies have examined how interorganizational mobility affects one's *income/salary* and have come to different conclusions. Some suggest a positive effect (Valcour & Tolbert, 2003; Knight & Yueh, 2004; Sammarra et al., 2013; Sgobbi & Suleman, 2015; Javdani, 2020), while others have found the opposite (Kidd, 1991; Eby, 2001; Mueller & Schweri, 2015). Positive effect tends to be applied to strategically more important employees because they are harder to replace. Martins (2011) found that this increase is about 10% in manufacturing and services, especially when the employee moves from a domestic to a foreign organization within the same country. Buchinsky et al. (2010) found that employees who choose to move elsewhere risk losing the return on their accumulated seniority in their source organization. Accordingly, these losses are higher the longer they worked at the source organization, and they are higher for employees with less education (high school graduates versus college graduates). For those who did not spend much time at their previous job, the lost returns to tenure are offset by the salary increase at their new job, and this increase will be higher for the more educated employees (Buchinsky et al., 2010). There are also some gender differences, as occupations with a larger share of male employees offer the same opportunities to college-educated women and men, regardless of their college degree (Pearlman, 2018).

Finally, *mobility experience* itself, which has already been examined as a mobility determinant, has also been shown to be a mobility effect. The study by Lopez et al. (2020) shows that an employee's mobility between organizations increases the likelihood of one or more subsequent moves between the same organizations. Further, once an individual has experienced interorganizational mobility and its associated benefits, such an employee is more likely to move again. However, some other authors point out that excessive mobility can be destructive for individuals, especially in the early stages of their careers, as too frequent changes of employer can lead to loss of human capital and be a sign of limited employability (Korpi & Mertens, 2003). Castellani et al. (2022) emphasize that organizations engaged in patenting innovations perceive employees involved in interorganizational mobility as organizational outsiders, which hinders their ability to develop important relational assets. As a result, mobile employees have difficulty forming trusting social ties with colleagues in their new organization (Castellani et al., 2022). Moreover, the highlighted benefits of the boundaryless career concept only reflect the reality for highly educated and highly skilled professionals, while employees with lower levels of education and easily replaceable skills often perceive this perspective as a burden because they cannot demand and receive fair treatment from their employers (Kost et al., 2020).

3.5 Discussion and conclusion

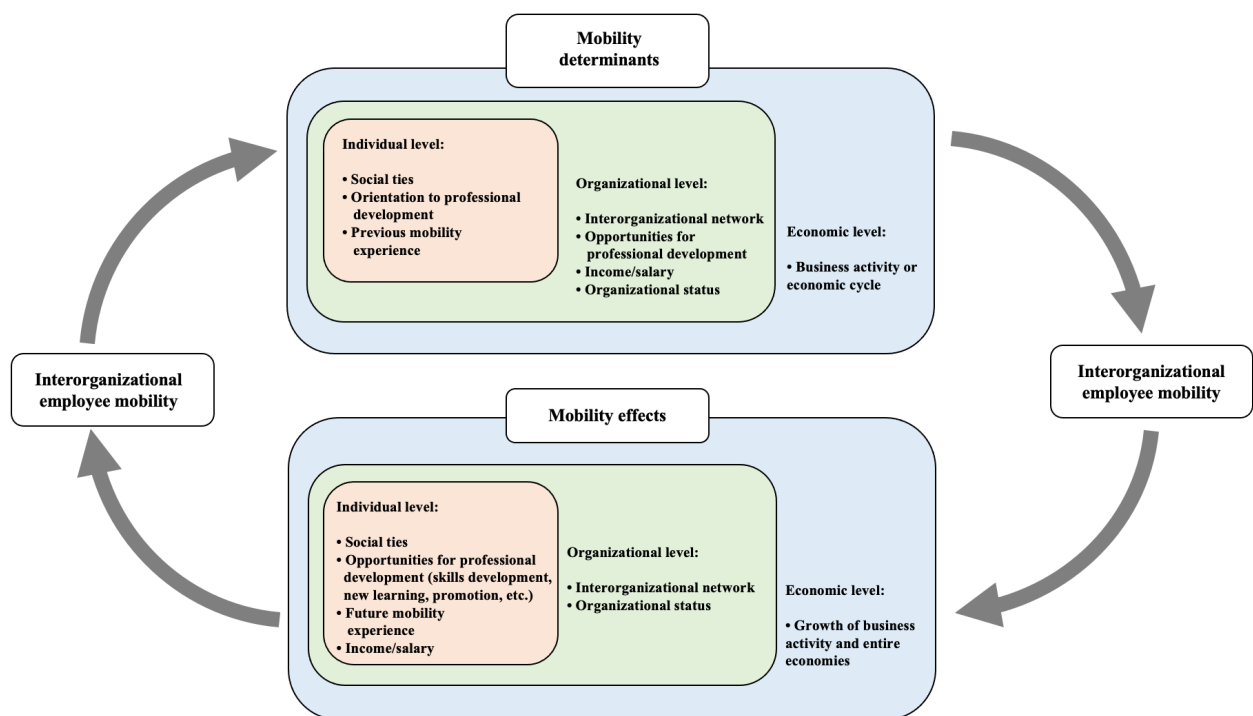
Interorganizational employee mobility corresponds to the transition from organizational to boundaryless careers (Wille et al., 2010), characterized by physical and psychological movement across organizational boundaries and self-determined career planning guided by personal values (Dries & Pepermans, 2008). Moreover, the phenomenon of interorganizational employee mobility represents a fundamental shift in the psychological contract of employment that undermines any assumption that an organization is capable of providing lifetime employment. It is essentially a new contract in which both the employer and the employee know that their relationship is unlikely to last forever (Arthur et al., 2005). Moreover, it is a multilevel phenomenon that connects at least two organizations through one employee, thus every action is determined by and affects all parties involved (i.e., source and destination organizations and mobile employee) at all levels (i.e., economic, organizational, and individual). At the same time, both the source and the destination organizations may experience negative consequences, as well as benefits of employee mobility.

The interorganizational network that exists at the organizational level and is rooted in the social ties between individuals in those organizations (i.e., at the individual level) influences interorganizational mobility, but also results from it (i.e., its determinant and effect). Organizations benefit from being networked with as many other “market participants” as possible (e.g., customers, buyers, suppliers, etc.) or, in other words, from being more deeply rooted in the network. This helps them strengthen their market ties in many directions, including those through which they attract and recruit new employees (i.e., the recruitment network - Mai et al., 2015). This same network and its connections across organizational boundaries help organizational employees share valuable information with employees in other organizations, which strengthens their social ties. These social ties, which are practically rooted in the interorganizational network or market ties, create new channels through which these employees perceive their employment opportunities elsewhere, or simply put, they determine their interorganizational mobility decisions. Once they have left but remained in contact with their former employer, mobile employees essentially create new market ties (or interorganizational networks) between their current and former employers (i.e., between their source and destination organizations). This again proves how market ties practically emerge from social ties and how these two are mutually intertwined, acting as both a determinant and an effect of employee mobility and closing the vicious circle of “market/social ties - employee mobility”.

Several other factors also appear as a determinant and effect of employee mobility. Organizational status is one of them. The higher the status of the destination organization, the higher the probability of moving there. When a destination organization hires someone from a higher status source organization, this mobility usually improves the status/reputation of the destination organization (Betancourt & Wezel, 2016). Professional development is also seen as a determinant and effect of a mobility decision. Based on their individual

orientation toward career advancement and improvement, employees decide whether their current employer provides them with sufficient learning and promotion opportunities or whether they need to seek them elsewhere. In addition, their movement between organizations affects the success they seek. Since the career management literature generally distinguishes between the individual and organizational levels of managing career success (Baruch, 2022), this factor should be examined at both the individual and organizational levels. The same is true for income/salary, as this factor also appears as both a determinant and an effect of mobility. However, if it plays a role of a determinant, it appears at the organizational level, but if it plays a role of a mobility effect, it is classified at the individual level. Mobility experience is another factor that usually determines a person's future mobility, as those who have already changed employers tend to do so again. On the other hand, it can also be considered as an effect of mobility, because when employees move from one organization to another, it usually increases the likelihood of one or more future moves, usually between the same organizations (Lopez et al., 2020). Finally, growing business activity, which has been shown to be a determinant of mobility at the economic level, can also be found as a mobility effect at the same level, because in times of prosperity people tend to move more, which contributes to the further growth of the economic system. Figure 11 summarizes what has been said and highlights factors that occur in different roles and at different levels.

Figure 11: Closed circle of determinants and effects of interorganizational employee mobility



Source: own work

This literature review also revealed interesting relationships between different mobility determinants at different levels of analysis. For example, when examining how the size of an organization affects an employee's mobility decision, this factor usually cannot be considered in isolation, as it interacts with other determinants at the same level, such as the location and the age of the organization, as well as with some determinants at the economic level, such as government policies and sectoral characteristics (private vs. public sector), and individual-level determinants, such as the employee's gender, age, family relationships, length of service, and position in the organizational hierarchy. In addition, some studies have shown that there may also be a slight hierarchy among mobility determinants, as some may appear more important or have a stronger relationship with interorganizational mobility. As Betancourt and Wezel (2016) found in their study in the legal services sector, employees tend to move to a destination organization despite its lower organizational status because of its higher salary and greater organizational support. This calls for future research to examine the strength of the relationship between interorganizational employee mobility and each of its determinants at different levels.

It has also been shown that although employee mobility is perceived negatively by source organizations and positively by destination organizations because knowledge and related expertise flows from source to destination organizations, my results show that the reality is not simply black and white. In other words, individuals who tend to move between organizations frequently are perceived as a threat to a new employer, so their knowledge, skills, and competencies are often not shared in the destination organization (Castellani et al., 2022). In addition, because of the social ties that mobile employees maintain with their source organizations, knowledge spillovers might facilitate in the opposite direction - i.e., from the destination to the source organization. This often occurs in some patent industries, as inventors continue to share ideas with their former colleagues (Goossen & Carnabuci, 2020). Therefore, the loss of an employee does not always mean a loss for the source organization, nor does it mean a benefit for the destination organization.

However, when employee mobility occurs between two organizations that previously worked together, or when it leads to new interorganizational cooperation based on social ties that employees establish and maintain with each other, it has benefits for all parties involved and, consequently, for entire regions, sectors, national or even global economies (Tóth & Lengyel, 2021). This also contradicts the findings that knowledge transfer as a mobility effect and its benefits are one-dimensional (Cantner et al., 2010). Instead, its transfer takes place reciprocally and bidirectionally and thus might have a positive effect on both the source and destination organization (Corredoira & Rosenkopf, 2010). The importance of a cooperation between organizations from different sectors, especially those from higher education and other knowledge-intensive sectors is particularly emphasized because academia, as a knowledge gatekeeper, produces scientific knowledge while related industry commercializes it (Fleming & Frenken, 2007; Petruzzelli et al., 2010). Such a cooperative nature leads to the participation and involvement of many other economic actors, ultimately

resulting in the creation of innovative useful products and processes that enrich the lives of members of the entire community.

The systematic approach I used in my work allowed me to create a comprehensive and structured literature review. Comprehensiveness was achieved by assessing in detail all the determinants and effects of employee mobility that researchers in the field of interorganizational mobility have found to date (Table 8), as well as the precise results of their studies. The structured approach was achieved by ensuring that the entire process of collecting and analyzing the literature and writing the paper followed a series of clear and repeatable steps (Pickering & Byrne, 2014). By developing a reliable knowledge base, this chapter contributes primarily to the literature on career development that recognizes interorganizational mobility as a primary mechanism for achieving individual work-life balance goals. By systematically constructing a theory-based multilevel typology of the determinants and effects of employee mobility, the results of this chapter also contribute to labor economics and are useful to practitioners in various sectors and industries, as they help them understand the motivations and perceptions of mobile employees and mitigate the negative consequences of such mobility at multiple levels (i.e., economic, organizational, and individual). Since employees are recognized as an integral part of value creation whose value increases with the knowledge intensity of an industry (Campbell et al., 2012), the results of this systematic literature review are applicable to various knowledge-intensive industries (e.g., higher education, IT, pharmaceuticals, biotechnology, etc.).

Table 8: Distribution of observed factors of interorganizational employee mobility

Observed interorganizational mobility factors	No. of papers	% of sample (158 papers)
Economic determinants of interorganizational employee mobility	38	24
Organizational determinants of interorganizational employee mobility	52	32.9
Individual determinants of interorganizational employee mobility	68	43
Economic effects of interorganizational employee mobility	6	3.8
Organizational effects of interorganizational employee mobility	83	52.5
Individual effects of interorganizational employee mobility	32	20.3

Source: own work

Limitation of this chapter is that I only captured the determinants and effects of interorganizational employee mobility that have been explored up to date. Empirical testing of the results of this review in some knowledge-intensive sectors/industries, e.g., through case studies, expert interviews, etc., could be useful for a better understanding of the important aspects of the relationships between different determinants of mobility. Moreover, since I have found that interorganizational mobility can be related to inter- or intra-sector mobility, future research could pay more attention to uncovering possible types of interorganizational mobility. Since knowledge-intensive sectors/industries tend to grant

different types of sabbaticals to their employees (Society for Human Resource Management, 2018), future research should also consider temporary and permanent types of interorganizational mobility. Moreover, since interorganizational mobility has been shown to have different effects when employees move between competitors than between cooperators, studying and uncovering possible factors that facilitate cooperation even between competing source and destination organizations could be beneficial for strengthening existing and building new interorganizational networks. These networks will consequently have a positive impact on the development of some countries' regions and entire economies.

4 MULTILEVEL DETERMINANTS OF INTERORGANIZATIONAL EMPLOYEE MOBILITY IN HIGHER EDUCATION

The systematic literature review from the previous chapter served to develop a so-called theory-based typology of the determinants of interorganizational employee mobility in different sectors and industries. This chapter serves to adapt this theory-based typology to the higher education (HE) sector, taking into account 4 different types of interorganizational mobility: temporary intra- and inter-sector and permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility. After the introductory subchapter (4.1), the methodology of the qualitative study conducted in this chapter is explained (subchapter 4.2). This subchapter describes the data collection process – i.e. the interviews conducted – and the data analysis in detail. The thematic data analysis revealed that, in addition to dividing the determinants into individual, organizational, sector and economic levels, it is also necessary to classify them into 4 further groups that have different effects on mobility. The naming of these groups is borrowed from the migration literature: push determinants and anchors were groups of determinants that represent the source context of mobile academics, while pull determinants and barriers were groups of determinants that represent the destination context of mobile academics. In the following subchapter (4.3.) and its subsections (4.3.1. etc.), the analyzed data are summarized and the results interpreted. First, the process of adapting the theory-based typology to the higher education sector is described, with a particular focus on the new determinants uncovered. Subsequently, the so-called data-based typology of mobility determinants for each type of interorganizational mobility of academics is presented. Particular attention was paid to categorize all mobility determinants into 4 established levels as well as 4 established groups. In the final subchapter (4.4.), the results of this study are discussed in the context of the findings from the existing literature.

4.1 Introduction

In addition to the recruitment and integration of international students and the internationalization of curricula, academic mobility or mobility within the higher education (HE) sector is one of the main strategies implemented by most public and private universities, colleges and universities of applied sciences (Weisbrod et al., 2008) in order to respond to global competition and remain sustainable (Cantu, 2013; Soliman et al., 2018). When such mobility takes place on an international level, it promotes progress in science and education on a global scale and becomes one of the most important ways of internationalizing higher education institutions (HEIs) (Sharada et al., 2022). Academic mobility is also important at an individual level, as it allows mobile individuals to develop their professional and social skills while improving their employability (European Commission, 2024).

In addition to academic mobility that takes place between two HEIs and is also referred to as intra-sector mobility, the existing literature suggests that inter-sector mobility or mobility between organizations from different sectors (Elliott & Lindley, 2001; OECD, 2011; Masso et al., 2012; Vandeveld, 2014; Simonen et al., 2016, 2018; Technopolis Group, 2019; Pratiwi et al., 2020; Riker, 2020) cannot be observed without focusing on the HE sector, as this type of interorganizational mobility is the origin of knowledge transfer between academic and non-academic sectors (Vandeveld, 2014; European Commission, 2016; Pittnerová & Rydvalová, 2017; Tohmo & Viinikainen, 2017; Technopolis Group, 2019). A study conducted for the academic year 2021/2022 in the UK HE sector shows that the number of people moving from the private sector to academia increased by 41% and the number of academics moving from academia to the private sector increased by 45% compared to the previous academic year (Higher Education Statistics Agency, 2023; Velez Ospina & Rodriguez, 2023). Researchers moving from the HE sector to private organizations from related industries (e.g., IT, pharmaceuticals, biotechnology, etc.), government agencies, public and private research institutes, etc., and vice versa, transfer tangible knowledge contained in their publications and patents, as well as tacit knowledge contained in new ideas and insights resulting from their experiences with inter-sector mobility (Vandeveld, 2014). Such movements also enable the creation of strong links between different sectors and between academia and practice, as mobile researchers gain perspectives and insights from all sectors in which they have gained experience, thus also positively influencing society (Technopolis Group, 2019).

However, when examining the intra- and inter-sector mobility of academics, it is important to consider the differences between permanent and temporary forms of these mobilities. In other words, in addition to the permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility of academics, there are also temporary intra- and inter-sector mobilities. While permanent interorganizational mobility means that academics move to another HEI or a destination organization from another sector without the intention of returning to their source HEI, temporary interorganizational mobility refers to academics who move to a destination organization from the HE or another sector in order to gain experience and return to their source HEI after a certain period of time (Bell & Ward, 2000; O'Reilly, 2003; Lawson & Shibayama, 2013; Nagy & Korpela, 2013; Haldimann et al., 2021, 2022; De Moortel et al., 2022).

While permanent interorganizational mobility is usually perceived negatively and associated with employee turnover (Lambert & Hogan, 2009), temporary interorganizational mobility is often strongly encouraged in the HE sector, especially among younger researchers and postdocs (Burkus, 2017; Society for Human Resource Management, 2018). Some studies show that more than 30% of academics are involved in some form of temporary interorganizational mobility, which differs mainly in the duration of mobility (e.g., short-term conferences and workshops, medium-term research stays and internships, and long-term training and sabbaticals - De Moortel et al., 2022). On an individual level, temporary mobility to another HEI (i.e., temporary intra-sector mobility) provides great opportunities

for mobile academics to acquire new knowledge, specific know-how and practical skills that are relevant to their academic work and further professional development (Edler et al., 2011; Teichler, 2015). At the same time, at an organizational level, such a temporary mobility promotes the dissemination and transfer of knowledge and technology as well as the establishment of networks between different HEIs, which increases their individual productivity (Lawson & Shibayama, 2013). To achieve their strategic goals such as graduate employability, influential research outcomes and valuable societal impact (SEB LU, 2020; European Commission, 2024), it is essential for almost all HEIs to cooperate with organizations and practitioners from related sectors and industries and create links between academia and practice, resulting in these HEIs also strongly promoting the temporary inter-sector mobility of their academics.

Although the literature reviews conducted in Chapters 2 and 3 (the bibliometric analysis and the systematic literature review) served to explore the determinants of interorganizational employee mobility in different sectors and industries, leading to the development of a theory-based multilevel typology, the question of the determinants of the four different types of interorganizational mobility – i.e. temporary intra- and inter-sector mobility and permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility – remains to be answered, which is the main objective of this chapter. Given the above-mentioned relevance of these different types of mobility to the HE sector, this chapter further explores whether the so-called theory-based typology (i.e. the typology of mobility determinants developed through the systematic review of the literature in this field) is applicable to the HE sector, also taking into account the different types of mobility identified. Therefore, the main question (RQ1) to be answered in this chapter is: *What is the multilevel typology of determinants of different types of mobility in the higher education sector?*

Answering the posed question is important as it provides empirical evidence that interorganizational mobility is indeed a multilevel phenomenon. Furthermore, a more detailed, data-based typology of mobility determinants is needed for 4 different types of mobility. By situating the research in the HE sector, answering the question posed contributes to both the literature on employee mobility and the literature on higher education.

To answer the posed question, I conducted an exploratory qualitative study in the HE sector. More specifically, I interviewed 27 academics who had experienced at least one of the 4 proposed types of interorganizational mobility. The results of the study provided an in-depth understanding of what motivates people to enter or leave academia and move between different HEIs. They also revealed the differences between permanent and temporary moves, as well as possible relationships between same-level and across-level determinants of the different types of mobility. They also showed that the mobility experience itself can act as a determinant of another mobility experience.

In the next subchapter and its subsections, I present the methodology of the research approach used for the purposes of this chapter, including the description of the research

context, data collection methods and sampling, and data analysis. The following subchapter and its subsections deals with the summary of the data and the interpretation of the results, followed by the final subchapter with concluding remarks.

4.2 Methodology of a qualitative study

To empirically test whether the theory-based typology of mobility determinants from Chapter 3 also applies to different types of mobility of academics, I conducted a qualitative study. Qualitative research is generally used to better understand the motives, feelings, values, attitudes, and perceptions of individuals or groups that underline and influence a particular behavior, as well as the contexts in which these behaviors occur (O'Brien et al., 2014; Ograjenšek, 2016). This means that it provides detailed descriptions of actions in real-life contexts that reflect the actual meanings that social actors attribute to phenomena (Gephart, 2004). For all these reasons, and because the main phenomenon of my study (i.e., interorganizational employee mobility) is increasing in different types (i.e., temporary and permanent, intra- and inter-sector) in the HE sector, I consider the qualitative approach appropriate to investigate the perceptions of mobile academics and what determines their mobility between different HEIs, or from academia to another sector and vice versa. Such an investigation would provide an in-depth description of the targeted phenomenon and its types, as well as potentially uncover new theoretical insights that could shed new light on the phenomenon (Basal & Corley, 2012). It could also better describe and interpret the wider context of the individual mobility experiences of academics that take place in an organizational setting (Gephart, 2004; O'Brien et al., 2014).

Although there are many attempts to standardize the methodological approach in qualitative studies, as many scholars prescribe and guide scientific and theoretically grounded qualitative approaches, especially in the field of social sciences (Gopaldas, 2016), each qualitative study is context-specific, so blindly following previous works and prescriptions may result in one's approach being incoherent (Bansal et al., 2018). Therefore, in my qualitative study, I referred to a combination of O'Brien et al.'s (2014) Standards for Reporting Qualitative Research (SRQR) and Gopaldas's (2016) guide to writing a qualitative research paper to properly structure my qualitative research design. The next subsections focus on the overall context of my qualitative research, which describes the qualitative approach used, followed by qualitative data collection, including sampling, and qualitative data analysis.

4.2.1 Research context

In their SRQR, O'Brien et al. (2014) emphasize the importance of explaining the qualitative approach used in each study. This explanation reveals several important aspects: the paradigm of qualitative research (e.g., functionalist, interpretivist, radical structuralist, and radical humanist - Burrell & Morgan, 2016); the underlying philosophy (e.g., positivism,

critical realism, interpretivism, postmodernism, and pragmatism – Saunders et al., 2023); the main approach to conceptualization and theory development (e.g., deduction, induction, and abduction - Bryman, 2012; Saunders et al., 2023); and the methodological purpose (e.g., explanatory, descriptive, and exploratory – Sue & Ritter, 2012). All of these aspects help to categorize the study within the qualitative continuum.

Most qualitative studies, especially in the field of management and business, belong to the interpretivist paradigm (Gephart, 2004; Burrell & Morgan, 2016). This is also the case with my qualitative study, which draws on interpretivism as one of the main philosophies that states that different people from different socio-demographic backgrounds in different circumstances and at different times experience and create different social realities (Saunders et al., 2023). For the targeted academics in my study, this means that individual mobility experiences are determined by different factors at different levels of analysis (i.e. individual, organizational, economic). Thus, the aim of my qualitative research is to create a better understanding and interpretation of the determinants that drive someone out of academia permanently or temporarily, attract others into academia, or make them move within academia.

In qualitative research, researchers often rely on inductive approaches to conceptualization and theory development (Bansal et al., 2018). In the inductive approach, the theory follows the data and not the other way around as in the deductive approach (Basal & Corley, 2012; Saunders et al., 2018). Thus, the inductive approach begins with the observation of individuals within the sample of a target population to better understand the nature of the targeted phenomenon and to create a theoretical or conceptual framework that reveals the existing relationships around the main phenomenon as well as some previously undiscovered but important factors (Saunders et al., 2018). By examining the individual interorganizational mobility experiences of academics, I aim to uncover relationships between different determinants and types of mobility as well as potential interactions between different mobility determinants at the same level and across different levels of analysis. These findings will thus help to provide a conceptual framework for the main phenomenon as they will fill the existing theoretical gaps about the main determinants of interorganizational academic mobility and their mutual interactions as well as their relationships with the different types of mobility.

In contrast to quantitative studies, whose methodological purpose is usually explanatory, qualitative studies are usually exploratory, i.e., they serve to investigate a phenomenon inductively, and are particularly useful for under-researched phenomena or in new or under-researched empirical contexts (Bansal et al., 2018; Hunter et al., 2019). As all the types of interorganizational employee mobility highlighted have not yet been fully explored and addressed at different levels of analysis and in the context of the HE sector, where they are increasingly common and of great importance (Edler et al., 2011; Teichler, 2015; De Moortel et al., 2022; Higher Education Statistics Agency, 2023; Velez Ospina & Rodriguez, 2023), my qualitative study meets the criterion of exploratory research.

4.2.2 Data collection

Typologies in qualitative research distinguish between desktop or secondary data and field research or primary data (Ograjenšek, 2016). A distinction is also made between questioning-driven and observation-driven data (Ograjenšek, 2016). To gain insights into the determinants of different types of interorganizational mobility in the HE sector, I used field research or primary questioning-driven data collected through personal qualitative interviews with academics who have experienced interorganizational mobility. A personal interview is an interaction between just two people – the researcher and the respondent – and is conducted face-to-face, with the researcher usually asking questions that the respondent answers (Gephart, 2004). It can be conducted in person in real time or using modern telecommunication technology (Ograjenšek, 2016). A qualitative interview focuses on the respondent's perspective and, unlike a structured quantitative interview, provides a deeper insight into what the respondent considers relevant and important (Bryman, 2012). In such an interview, the researcher can move freely from a predetermined concept and ask new questions to follow up on the respondent's responses, resulting in rich, detailed and in-depth answers about the given topic (Bryman, 2012).

There are also differences between completely unstructured and semi-structured qualitative interviews. In semi-structured interviews, the researcher has a list of questions on specific topics that need to be covered, called the interview guide (Bryman, 2012). However, despite these predetermined questions, the respondent has a lot of freedom in answering the questions. Furthermore, the researcher's questions during the interview may not fully adhere to the predetermined interview guide and new, additional questions may arise throughout the process (Bryman, 2012). For these reasons, the semi-structured interview proved to be suitable to fulfill the purpose of my qualitative study as it allowed me to explore the respondents' experiences of interorganizational mobility in detail. This method allowed me to limit myself to some predetermined questions about the main reasons for respondents' mobility decisions, but still inquire in detail about which determinants played a greater role in such a decision than others, what differences and similarities there were when comparing the different mobility experiences, whether there were differences between the determinants that were decisive for the different types of mobility, what potential obstacles they experienced, etc. My interview guide for data collection through semi-structured interviews with academics was divided into 4 main phases (Mojtahedzadeh et al., 2021), which can be seen in Table 9 (the full interview guide can be found in Appendix 11).

Since the literature on qualitative research methods suggests a typology of questions and questioning techniques and it is insufficient to distinguish only between open and closed questions (Ograjenšek, 2016), I tried to combine different types of questions to obtain the most comprehensive answers from my respondents. The information phase served to familiarize the respondents with my qualitative study and its main objectives, as well as to define the main phenomenon and the variety of its types, all of which are relevant to my research. I emphasized complete anonymity and confidentiality and informed the

Table 9: Interview guide

Phase of the Interview	Content
Information phase	Introduction to the qualitative study; definition of the main phenomenon; anonymity and confidentiality of respondent and consent to recording
Warm-up phase	Direct and factual questions on respondents' socio-demographics, family and household characteristics and employment characteristics
Main phase	Grand Tour questions about the respondents' career path and the types of interorganizational mobility experienced
	Structural leading questions, hypothetical questions and the third-person questions about the most important individual determinants of the respondent's interorganizational mobility experience(s)
	Structural leading questions, contrast questions, hypothetical questions and the third-person questions about the most important organizational determinants of the respondent's interorganizational mobility experience(s)
	Structural leading questions, hypothetical questions and the third-person questions about the most important economic determinants of the respondents' interorganizational mobility experience(s)
Final phase and end of the interview	Experienced barriers/obstacles to respondent's mobility; questions, comments and suggestions

Source: own work

respondents that I would number them and use these numbers instead of their real names. I also asked the respondents for their consent to record the interview and asked them if they would like me to send them the transcript of the interview for approval once I had completed it. I also explained to them that their answers will be used for academic purposes. They also had the opportunity to ask additional questions before the main part of the interview began.

The warm-up phase consisted of direct and factual questions (Ograjenšek, 2016; Banda et al., 2017), which included respondents' socio-demographics, family and household characteristics, as well as their current employment characteristics (e.g., total work experience, current employer, length of service, position in the organization, etc.).

In the main phase, we began to discuss respondents' experiences of interorganizational mobility. I started with the so-called "grand tour" questions (Gee & Ullman, 1998; Ograjenšek, 2016), which gave the respondents complete flexibility and freedom to engage in a conversation about the main reasons for their interorganizational mobility. This allowed

them to tell me about their career path and all the types of interorganizational mobility they have experienced, and the main factors that came to mind when they thought about why they moved. The rest of the main phase was structured according to my multilevel typology of mobility determinants and divided into different levels of analysis (i.e., individual, organizational and economic). During this phase of the interview, I also used structural leading questions (Ograjenšek, 2016; Cairns-Lee et al., 2021) to ask about some of the mobility determinants from my multilevel typology that the respondent had not previously mentioned, to check whether this determinant might still be relevant in a particular case. I used contrast questions (Ograjenšek, 2016) to compare mobility determinants related to the source and destination organizations. Hypothetical questions (Gee & Ullman, 1998; Ograjenšek, 2016) were used to present respondents with a specific scenario or situation and ask them how this would affect their decision to move interorganizationally. I also occasionally used third-person questions (Ograjenšek, 2016; Zhou & Hall, 2016) to present what other anonymous respondents had considered when discussing a particular issue or factor, so that respondents could be encouraged to share more about their own experiences.

In the final phase, respondents were asked about something that was a kind of obstacle or barrier to their mobility decisions. At this stage, I also encouraged respondents to ask me about details that might concern or interest them, or to comment on the whole interview process and give me suggestions for improvement.

4.2.3 Sampling

The target population of my qualitative study were academics working in teaching and/or research at a HEI who had already experienced permanent and/or temporary intra- and/or inter-sector mobility. As previous research on some types of mobility in the HE sector has mainly focused on IT and engineering disciplines (D'Este & Perkmann, 2011; Sgobbi & Suleman, 2015) or on biotechnology, which encompasses both natural and engineering sciences (Simon, 1990; Smaglik, 1998; Smith-Doerr, 2005; Wilson et al., 2014), I wanted to gain deeper insights into the interorganizational mobility experiences of academics in the social sciences. More specifically, I narrowed the scope of social sciences to economics and business disciplines as they cover a wide range of aspects of micro, macro and international economics, finance, accounting, management, organization, marketing, entrepreneurship, etc. (Biehl et al., 2006; Benlagha & Hemrit, 2018). Moreover, within each of these disciplines, various branches (e.g., strategic management, leadership, organizational behavior, etc.) are closely related to other social science disciplines such as anthropology, demography, development and regional studies, education, geography, political studies, psychology, sociology, statistics, etc. (Academy of Social Sciences, 2023). For these reasons, academics from the field of economics and business were an appropriate representative within the social sciences.

In qualitative research, the discussion about sampling usually revolves around so-called purposive sampling or purposeful sampling, a non-probability form of sampling, which means that is not based on randomization, i.e., the researcher does not randomly select participants (Bryman, 2012). This was also the case when selecting respondents for my qualitative study, as they had to fulfill certain criteria: They had to be academics in the field of economics and business and have some experience with interorganizational mobility. They could therefore not be chosen randomly but were selected based on their relevance to the purpose of the study and the posed research question. Since there is no database containing contacts of academics fitting the given description, I started recruiting respondents from those I know personally and who fit the described sample. Such an approach is in line with the convenience sampling method, where researchers recruit participants who are easily accessible and convenient for them (Bryman, 2012). A problem with convenience sampling is that the findings cannot be generalized, as it is difficult to determine whether the sample studied really represents the desired population. Although I started with accessible and known respondents, they were from different organizations (not just one or two HEIs), and since these respondents, after learning about the given criteria, put me in touch with their colleagues from different HEIs, I also met the criterion of snowball sampling. This sampling method is a form of convenience sampling, where a small group of people relevant to the research topic are contacted first and then further contacts are made so that the results of the study can be generalized (Bryman, 2012).

Besides concrete and specific criteria for selecting my sample, I did not have a predetermined number of cases, as determining a qualitative sample size a priori is not necessarily the best approach, especially in more interpretive, exploratory qualitative studies (Sim et al., 2018) such as mine. While quantitative studies often aim for the largest possible sample to maximize statistical power, qualitative studies usually work with a smaller number of cases that allow researchers to examine them in depth and explore them in detail (Farrugia, 2019). Crouch and McKenzie (2006) even recommend fewer than 20 cases when conducting interviews, as such an approach allows researchers to immerse themselves in the research field, build fruitful and lasting relationships with respondents and engage more deeply with the overall research problem.

Despite the proposed sample size, the entire sampling process should be iterative and cyclical, i.e. it develops and defines itself throughout the qualitative research process and not just at its beginning (Farrugia, 2018). This means that even when we have started collecting data through our chosen method and are transcribing, coding, analyzing and interpreting the collected data, we should keep checking whether sampling additional data provides new information, codes, ideas, concepts or themes for the existing data set or whether they are repetitive and do not provide new insights that could contribute to our study (Farrugia, 2018). Such a methodological principle in sampling is known as saturation and occurs in various “hybrid” forms in the qualitative literature, such as theoretical saturation, inductive thematic saturation, a priori thematic saturation, and data saturation (Saunders et

al., 2018). While theoretical saturation refers to the development of theoretical categories, which is particularly important in grounded theory, inductive thematic saturation refers to the emergence of new codes and themes, while a priori thematic saturation refers to the degree to which the identified codes and themes are exemplified in the data (Saunders et al., 2018). Finally, the data saturation approach refers to the degree to which new data replicate what was expressed in the previous data (Saunders et al., 2018).

In my qualitative study, I used a combination of data saturation and inductive thematic saturation to determine my sample size. Had I received the same responses and comments from respondents to questions about their experiences with interorganizational mobility at the data collection phase (i.e., prior to coding and analyzing the data), I could have inferred data saturation and decided not to conduct any more interviews. However, to support this decision, I also referred to the aforementioned inductive thematic saturation, which focuses on the data analysis phase. Thus, when no additional codes emerged that represented new interorganizational mobility determinants, this was a sign that saturation had been reached and the final sample size was confirmed.

To collect the data for a better understanding of the key determinants of the different types of interorganizational employee mobility in the HE sector, I conducted 27 interviews with academics from economics and business field, which constitute my final sample. The main demographic, family and employment characteristics of the respondents can be seen in Table 10. I focused on different academic positions – from teaching and research assistants to full professors – to also examine differences in mobility experiences related to tenure and academic hierarchy. I also attempted to capture all relevant types of interorganizational mobilities: temporary intra-sector, temporary inter-sector, permanent intra-sector, and permanent inter-sector (both moving into and out of academia), so that some respondents had several different mobility experiences, while others covered only one or two mobility types.

The respondents were between 29 and 58 years old, with an average age of 41. 30% of the respondents were male, the rest female. Their current place of residence was in 13 different countries. Almost 70% of these countries were in the European Union (EU), representing almost 75% of all respondents in the sample. The number of married and unmarried respondents was almost equal (14 to 13 respondents). Almost 52% of respondents had no children. All male respondents had a doctorate and worked in the HE sector as assistant professors, associate professors and full professors or in comparable positions. In addition to these academic positions, seven female respondents also worked as teaching and research assistants or as lecturers. Two female respondents were no longer working in the HE sector. The average total work experience of female respondents was slightly longer than that of their male counterparts (16 to 14 years), while they had less work experience in the HE sector (11 to 13 years). The average length of service of all respondents in their current organizations was 6.8 years.

Table 10: Characteristics of the respondents in qualitative study

No. of the respondent	Gender	Age	Residence	Marital status	No. of children	Level of education	Total work experience (years)	Work experience in HE sector (years)	Current sector / industry	Length of service in current organization (years)	Job position	No. of interorg. mobility experiences	Experienced mobility types
001	F	29	Croatia	Unmarried	0	MA	5	5	HE	5	Teaching & research assistant	1	Permanent inter-sector
002	F	33	Slovenia	Married	2	PhD	9	7	Electrical engineering	1	Chief Strategy Officer	5	Permanent & temporary inter-sector; Temporary intra-sector
003	F	38	UK	Married	2	PhD	10	10	HE	5	Senior lecturer	5	Permanent inter-sector; Permanent & temporary intra-sector
004	F	30	Slovenia	Unmarried	0	PhD	6	6	HE	5	Teaching & research assistant with doctorate	3	Permanent & temporary intra-sector
005	F	38	UK	Unmarried	0	PhD	16	16	HE	6	Associate professor	4	Permanent & temporary intra-sector
006	M	33	Italy	Unmarried	0	PhD	9	9	HE	1	Assistant professor	6	Temporary inter-sector; Permanent & temporary intra-sector
007	F	38	Netherlands	Married	1	MA	11	9	HE	5	Lecturer	3	Permanent inter-sector; Permanent intra-sector
008	M	49	UK	Unmarried	0	PhD	20	8	HE	4	Senior lecturer	5	Permanent inter-sector; Permanent & temporary intra-sector
009	F	38	Croatia	Unmarried	0	PhD	12	9	Consulting	3	Company founder and owner	4	Permanent inter-sector; Temporary intra-sector
010	F	52	Turkey	Married	0	PhD	29	28	HE	28	Full professor	6	Permanent & temporary inter-sector; Temporary intra-sector

To be continued

Table 10: Characteristics of the respondents in qualitative study (cont.)

No. of the respondent	Gender	Age	Residence	Marital status	No. of children	Level of education	Total work experience (years)	Work experience in HE sector (years)	Current sector / industry	Length of service in current organization (year)	Job position	No. of interorg. mobility experiences	Experienced mobility types
011	M	44	Poland	Married	0	PhD	20	20	HE	20	University professor	15	Permanent & temporary inter-sector; Temporary intra-sector
012	F	58	Bosnia & Herzegovina	Married	1	PhD	28	25	HE	25	Full professor	10	Permanent & temporary inter-sector; Temporary intra-sector
013	M	41	UK	Married	2	PhD	14	14	HE	1 month	Full professor	9	Permanent & temporary intra-sector
014	M	42	Netherlands	Married	1	PhD	10	10	HE	7	Assistant professor	2	Permanent intra-sector
015	F	40	Netherlands	Married	1	PhD	18	12	HE	1	Assistant professor	5	Permanent inter-sector; Permanent & temporary intra-sector
016	F	52	Slovenia	Married	3	MBA	27	4	HE	4	Teaching & research assistant	2	Permanent & temporary inter-sector
017	F	43	Croatia	Unmarried	0	PhD	19	19	HE	19	Full professor	7	Temporary intra-sector
018	M	38	Netherlands	Unmarried	0	PhD	10	10	HE	7	Associate professor	2	Permanent inter-sector; Permanent intra-sector
019	F	51	Netherlands	Divorced	2	MSc	10	4	HE	4	Lecturer	4	Permanent & temporary inter-sector; Temporary intra-sector
020	F	57	Cyprus	Married	2	PhD	32	7	HE	7	Postdoc	6	Permanent & temporary inter-sector; Permanent & temporary intra-sector
021	F	40	Netherlands	Unmarried	0	PhD	20	5	HE	5	Assistant professor	7	Permanent & temporary inter-sector; Permanent intra-sector

To be continued

Table 10: Characteristics of the respondents in qualitative study (cont.)

No. of the respondent	Gender	Age	Residence	Marital status	No. of children	Level of education	Total work experience (years)	Work experience in HE sector (years)	Current sector / industry	Length of service in current organization (year)	Job position	No. of interorg. mobility experiences	Experienced mobility types
022	M	36	Spain	Unmarried	0	PhD	13	12	HE	2 months	Assistant professor	7	Permanent inter-sector; Permanent & temporary intra-sector
023	F	33	Netherlands	Married	0	PhD	13	10	HE	2	Lecturer	4	Permanent inter-sector; Permanent intra-sector
024	F	39	Slovenia	Married	3	MSc	12	3	HE	3	Teaching & research assistant	4	Permanent & temporary inter-sector
025	F	44	Austria	Unmarried	1	PhD	20	20	HE	12	Assistant professor	7	Permanent inter-sector; Temporary intra-sector
026	F	41	Belgium	Married	1	PhD	15	15	HE	3	Associate professor	5	Permanent & temporary intra-sector
027	M	42	New Zealand	Unmarried	0	PhD	17	17	HE	1	Associate professor	5	Permanent & temporary intra-sector

Source: own work

I began data collection by recruiting potential interview participants via e-mail. As explained in the convenience sampling method, I sent invitation letters to my acquaintances who met the given criteria (i.e., academics from the field of economics and business with some experience in interorganizational mobility). The invitation letter (see Appendix 12) contained important information about the main aim of my PhD research project and the target population explaining why they had been recruited. It also included information about the expected duration of the interview and how it would be conducted, as well as information about the confidentiality of the whole interview process and subsequent data analysis and interpretation. Participants were also offered to receive the final research results. After receiving positive feedback from each participant that he/she would like to participate in my study, I sent him/her a follow-up e-mail confirming the interview date, the Zoom link through which the interview was conducted, and the informed consent document that participant was asked to sign. This document (see Appendix 13) proves that the person is participating in my study voluntarily and without financial compensation and agrees to the interview being recorded and later transcribed. I also indicated that I would send a transcribed interview to the participants for approval. All procedures throughout my research project were conducted in accordance with the guidelines of the Declaration of Helsinki and the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR). Furthermore, behavioral perception studies, which are non-invasive, fully anonymized and confidential, are exempt from evaluation by the Ethics Committee of the School of Economics and Business, University of Ljubljana (SEB LU), so I did not need their approval to begin the interviews.

The process of conducting the interviews began in mid-June 2023 and lasted until September 2023. Pilot interview was also conducted, and later included in the final data sample. Only two interviews were conducted in person, while the rest were conducted via the Zoom platform and its recording option, which allowed for both video and audio-only recordings. 4 interviews were conducted in Croatian, the native language of the participants, while the rest were conducted in English. The interviews lasted between one hour and one and a half hours, on average one hour and 9 minutes.

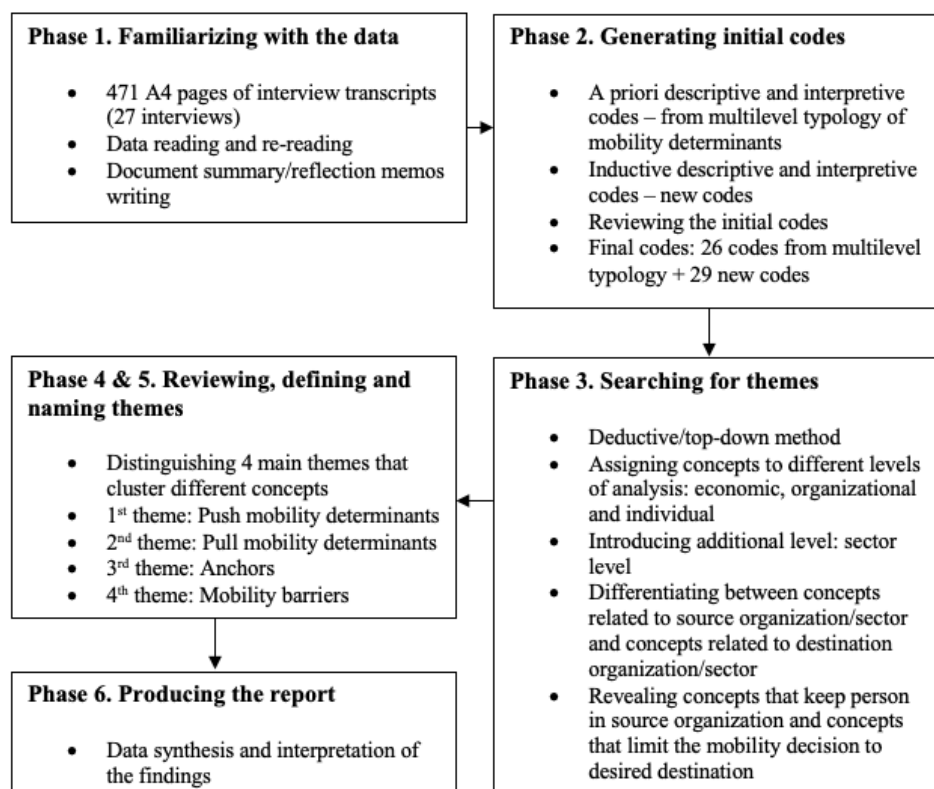
4.2.4 Data analysis

There are various methods of qualitative data analysis such as conversation analysis (CA), interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA), grounded theory, narrative analysis, content analysis, discourse analysis and thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Virtually all of these analyzes have in common that they look for themes in the collected data (Bryman, 2012). Therefore, thematic analysis is a kind of cornerstone for all other qualitative methods of data analysis and is the most commonly used (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Bryman, 2012). As the name suggests, thematic analysis is a method of identifying, analyzing and presenting patterns or themes in the collected data. By organizing the given data set minimally, it describes it in great detail (Braun & Clarke, 2006). It is also the first qualitative data analysis method that researchers should learn because it provides the basic skills needed for the other

methods mentioned. Because it does not require detailed theoretical knowledge such as grounded theory, it is more accessible to researchers engaging in qualitative research for the first time (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

For all these reasons, I used thematic analysis as the method for analyzing the data collected in my qualitative study. To do this, I followed the thematic analysis guide suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006), which is divided into six phases of analysis. The first phase is about familiarizing yourself with the data. This includes transcribing the data and reading the transcripts several times to get initial ideas about the entire data set. The second phase involves generating initial codes, while in the third phase the researcher searches for themes – i.e., summarizes all relevant codes relating to a particular theme (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The fourth and fifth phases are about reviewing the themes found in the previous phase and defining and naming the themes so that the overall story that the analysis tells can be constructed. The sixth and final phase is about writing a report on the whole analysis, which is a kind of conclusion of what has been said before, emphasizing its relevance to the literature as well as to the research question researcher is aiming to answer. The entire process of my thematic analysis can be seen in Figure 12.

Figure 12: Process of the thematic analysis



Source: Braun & Clarke (2006), own work

In the first phase, I transcribed all the interviews conducted, which I recorded via the Zoom platform and with my mobile phone (two interviews were conducted in person). The

transcripts of four interviews conducted in Croatian were translated into English. I also used the transcription service of Cockatoo Inc, that automatically generates text from recorded speech using a state-of-the-art artificial intelligence (Cockatoo Inc, 2023). This makes the transcription process much easier as it saves a lot of time and effort. However, each transcript was additionally checked and corrected by listening to the recordings several times. The whole process ended up with 471 A4 pages of interview transcripts. I then began to read each transcript to get a feel for the main topics discussed in each interview. The entire process of reading and re-reading the transcripts ended with the writing of a summary of each document, also known as a reflection memo (Birks et al., 2007), in which I highlighted various topics crucial to answering my research question, such as the different types of interorganizational mobility experienced by the respondent, the crucial factors that led to each of these mobility experiences, and some other important and interesting observations about each respondent or some contradictory facts that were said during the interview. Thus, I treated each interorganizational mobility experience referred to by the same respondent as a separate event and assigned the most important determinants. In other words: If the same person had experienced more than one type of interorganizational mobility in their career (e.g., temporary inter-sector and permanent intra-sector mobilities) or had experienced the same or different types of mobility several times (e.g., three temporary intra-sector and two permanent inter-sector mobility experiences), I treated each mobility experience separately. In this way, I was able to trace respondents' career paths and identify some of their demographic, family and employment characteristics that were present prior to each individual interorganizational mobility experience they had.

In the second phase, I created the initial codes for my data set (Braun & Clarke, 2006), by using MAXQDA 2022 software. Codes in qualitative research are the most basic segments of raw data, i.e., they can be a single word or whole phrase from the data set that provides meaningful and valuable information about the targeted phenomenon (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Saldana, 2008). In qualitative research, there are different typologies of codes and their combinations. For example, there are differences between a priori or deductive codes on the one hand and inductive codes on the other (Mihas & Odum Institute, 2019). A priori codes are developed prior to data analysis based on what we know about the research topic from existing findings in the literature. Inductive codes, on the other hand, are developed during data analysis and are based on the words of the respondents, presenting something new or unexpected. There are also differences between descriptive and interpretive codes (Mihas & Odum Institute, 2019). Descriptive codes are usually developed at a superficial level, i.e., they can be derived from the exact words of the respondents, usually when answering the what, where, who and when questions. Interpretive or conceptual codes, on the other hand, are abstract rather than factual, i.e., they are developed when interpreting respondents' statements or conceptualizing their exact answers to the how and why questions. Examples of these codes and short sections of the raw data from my interviews to which these codes were applied can be seen in Table 11.

Table 11: Examples of raw data sections from the interviews and the initial codes applied to them

Data segment from the interview	Initial code	Code type
<i>Maybe the most important thing was dissatisfaction with the current job. (Respondent no. 001)</i>	Job satisfaction	A priori descriptive code
<i>I think that I would be very happy if I get a job, academic job at a top institution that has the resources and prestige that will enable me to do very impactful things in the future. (Respondent no. 006)</i>	Organizational status	A priori interpretive code
<i>I am fed up with the situation in the country, with our politicians, the way they are. (Respondent no. 012)</i>	Political situation	Inductive descriptive code
<i>I applied for some jobs and then of course I got rejected, but I was already expecting that because the structure of education, higher education that we have in country X and the things that the academicians can do are completely limited because of the mindset, everything. So I knew that to start, I cannot start with an assistant professorship, but I can start maybe with a lower level. (Respondent no. 023)</i>	Quality differences	Inductive interpretive code

Source: own work

Since my interviews with economics and business academics focused primarily on the key determinants of their different interorganizational mobility experiences, a priori or deductive codes for my data were developed from the theory-based typology of mobility determinants. In other words, in coding respondents' answers to the questions related to reasons for their interorganizational mobility, I used some of the a priori developed codes from theory-based typology of mobility determinants, e.g., job satisfaction, organizational status, etc. These a priori codes can also be categorized as descriptive codes as they were derived from the exact words of the respondents. However, sometimes respondents did not use the exact terminology from theory-based typology when answering why they moved between two organizations, but based on the whole context and their explanations, I could have conceptualized the main reason and attribute it to some of the determinants from theory-based typology as well. These a priori codes were interpretive. Inductive codes were developed based on the reasons respondents gave as important for their interorganizational mobility decisions, but which were not included in theory-based typology of mobility determinants. Some of these reasons were related to the political situation in the country where they live and work, or differences in quality between different HE systems, etc., and were coded accordingly. Again, the codes that could be derived from the respondents' exact words were categorized as inductive descriptive codes, while the others were inductive interpretive codes.

Before the third phase, which involved finding the themes in the coded data, I discussed all the initial codes with my two supervisors, who are two experts in this field, because

involving other researchers in the coding process contributes to the reliability of qualitative research (Skjott Linneberg & Korsgaard, 2019). We discussed the meaning of each code and its importance in the research context so that we could reduce the code list. We also realized that some code names might be too broad and therefore wanted to see if other, more precise codes could be applied to the same data. In this way, we decided on some new codes that were not yet present in theory-based typology, such as academic visibility, work demands, work environment and organizational culture, research field, academic job significance, academic activities, academic flexibility, COVID-19 pandemic, etc. Some of the codes that were initially categorized as new codes were eventually mapped to existing codes from theory-based typology shown in Chapter 3. For example, political situation was one of the initial codes which was later replaced by government policies and public services, which are already included in theory-based typology. The same happened with quality differences as a new initial code, which was replaced by the code “competitive and rapidly changing environment” from theory-based typology.

In the third phase of my thematic analysis, I looked for themes in my coded data. Some researchers say that a theme is more or less the same as a code, while others say that it is something that stands above the single code and consists of a group of codes (Bryman, 2012). However, when searching for themes, researchers usually form clusters of seemingly related codes and then name the conceptual glue that holds them together (Mihás, 2023). Thus, the codes may represent pre-existing concepts based on the research question(s), and when researchers consider them all together, rather than each code individually, they may address themes which in turn serve as a kind of bridge connecting separate concepts (Mihás, 2023). Since the purpose of my qualitative study is to uncover the key determinants of the different types of interorganizational mobility of academics, these mobility determinants were the most important concepts in my data. The codes applied to the different reasons for interorganizational mobility of my respondents thus also represented the main concepts in my study. This approach is consistent with what Braun and Clarke (2006) refer to as a deductive or top-down method of identifying themes, as it is driven more by the researcher’s analytical interest in a particular field and provides a more detailed analysis of a particular concept (e.g., the determinants of mobility) rather than a comprehensive description of the overall data. When the data is coded for a specific research question, as it was in my case, such an approach is more useful than, for example, inductive or bottom-up method, where the research question only develops retrospectively after the whole coding process has begun (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

I started by assigning the concepts from my data to the appropriate levels of the theory-based typology (i.e., the economic, organizational, and individual levels). Although it has already been established for the economic level that it can be considered in a broader sense as the state of a national economy and in a narrower sense as the state of a sector or industry, I have introduced the sector level as a separate level that lies below the economic level and above the organizational level. This is due to the many specificities of the HE sector, such as its

specific conditions and requirements for employment and career advancement, the demands of academic work, the specific characteristics of academic work and its significance, etc. This helped me to see the underlying logic and connections that emerged between the different concepts in my data, as respondents who experienced inter-sector mobility referred to different determinants related to the HE sector that led them to move into academia, as well as different determinants related to the HE sector that led them to move from the HE sector to another sector. A similar pattern emerged when examining respondents' answers about the organizations they switched between. They cited various determinants related to their source organizations that were decisive for leaving them. However, they also mentioned determinants related to their chosen destination organizations. In the case of mobility between organizations from different countries, they also mentioned various determinants related to both the source and the destination country and their economies. Therefore, in structuring the data at the levels of the theory-based typology (i.e., economic, organizational, and individual levels) and the additional sector level, I separated the determinants of mobility that were key to leaving the source organization, sector, and/or country from the determinants that were key to choosing the exact destination organization, sector, and/or country. When discussing the details of their interorganizational mobility experiences, respondents also mentioned some determinants that keep them to some extent in their current organization, sector and/or country, as well as determinants that made it difficult or prevented them entirely from moving to a destination organization, sector and/or country of their choice.

In the next, fourth phase of my thematic analysis, I began to look at this separately structured data together, and I was able to distinguish four main themes that summarized different concepts (i.e., mobility determinants). Two of these four themes dealt with the source context of mobile academics, while the other two themes dealt with the destination context. One of the source context themes concerned the determinants related to the academics' source organization, sector or country that caused them to move away from there, while another source context theme concerned the determinants related to the academics' source organization, sector or country that keep them there and prevent their mobility elsewhere. One destination context theme was determinants related to the academics' destination organization, sector or country that attracted them to move there, while another destination context theme was determinants from the academics' destination organization, sector or country that prevented or hindered their mobility there.

In the fifth phase of the thematic analysis, I defined and named the themes that I had reviewed in the previous phase. The mobility determinants from the academics' source organization, sector or country that drive them to move away from there were called "push determinants". Determinants from the same source organization, sector or country that keep them where they are and prevent their mobility were called "anchors". Determinants from the destination organization, sector or country that attract academics to move there were called "pull determinants". Determinants of the same destination organization, sector or

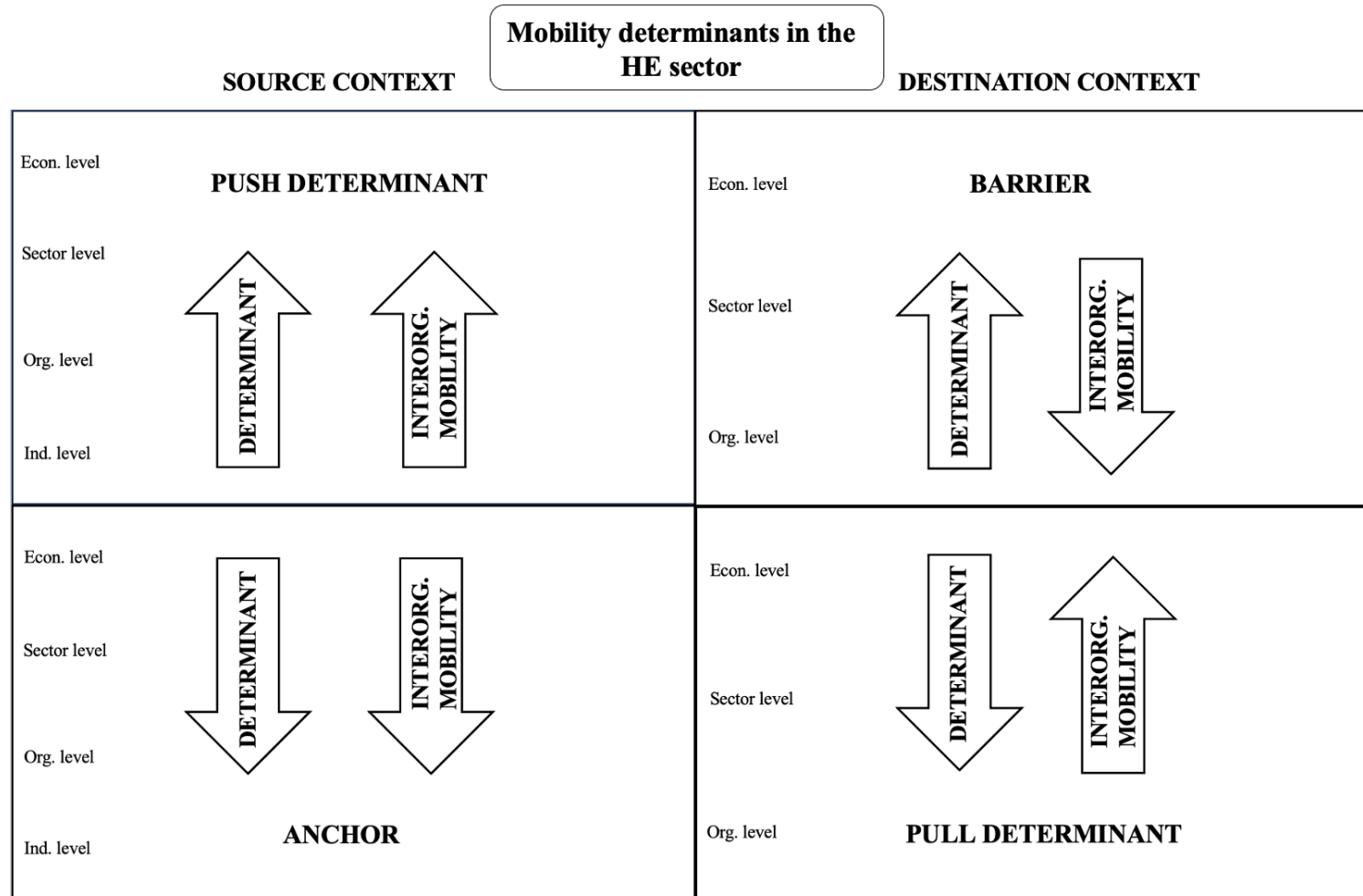
country that prevent or hinder the mobility of academics there were referred to as “mobility barriers”.

The logic for naming these themes was derived from the migration literature, where the theory of push and pull factors is well known and researched (E. S., 1966; Passaris, 1989; de Haas, 2010; Van Hear et al., 2018; Urbański, 2022). While push factors are considered as incentives to move that originate from various circumstances in the person’s source context or a place (Sokolic et al., 2024), pull factors refer to the attractive circumstances related to the person’s intended destination (Sokolic et al., 2024). Anchors and barriers are also present in the migration literature, and although they are less researched and established than push and pull factors, scholars are increasingly interested in them (Lalot et al., 2019; Grzymala-Kazłowska & Ryan, 2022; World Economic Forum, 2022; Bargłowski & Bonfert, 2023; Sokolic et al., 2024). Anchors, like push factors, relate to the source context of the mobile person, but unlike push factors, they offer greater perceived opportunities if the person remains in the source context and thus keep them there (Sokolic et al., 2024). Barriers, like pull factors, relate to the destination context of the mobile person, but unlike pull factors, they prevent or hinder the person’s mobility to a specific desired destination (Sokolic et al., 2024).

A further step in this fifth phase of the thematic analysis was the linking of 4 new themes representing 4 new groups of mobility determinants with 3 levels from the theory-based typology (individual, organizational and economic) and an additional sector level. The push determinants and anchors related to the source context of mobile academics, as described above, comprised all 4 levels. Since the mobile academics themselves are the source of their mobility decisions and actions, something personal or something at their individual level as well as something at the levels of their source organization, sector or economy could have caused them to move from or stay in the source context. In contrast, the pull determinants and barriers related to the destination context of mobile academics, as described above, comprised all levels except the individual level. More specifically, only something at the levels of the destination organization, sector or economy could attract, prevent or hinder the mobility of academics there.

The conceptualization of the described themes, which represent four new groups of mobility determinants, and their corresponding levels of analysis can be seen in Figure 13. The arrows in the figure represent possible directions of the relationships that each group of determinants has with interorganizational mobility. As described earlier, determinants at the individual level can act as push determinants and anchors, while determinants at the organizational, sector and economic levels can act as push determinants, anchors, pull determinants and barriers, depending on where they originate (i.e., in the source or destination context), as well as on the comparison of the value of such a mobility determinant between the source and destination contexts. If we take work demands as an example of a mobility determinant, we can assume that higher work demands in the source organization push the person to move

Figure 13: Themes from the qualitative data and the corresponding levels of analysis



Notes: The arrows show the possible direction of a relationship between each group of determinants and interorganizational mobility.

Source: own work

from it. In this case, the work demands as a push determinant have a positive direction of relationship with interorganizational mobility – i.e., if the work demands in the source organization increase, the employees of the same organization are more likely to move away from that organization. On the other hand, if the same work demands decrease, employee mobility is also likely to decrease. In other words: If a determinant related to the source context has a positive relationship with interorganizational mobility, higher values or larger amounts of this determinant are likely to act as a push determinant, while lower values or smaller amounts of the same determinant act as an anchor, and vice versa.

On the other hand, higher values or larger amounts of the same determinant related to the destination context are likely to act as a barrier. In other words, high work demands in a given destination organization are likely to discourage individuals from moving there, implying the negative direction of the relationship between work demands as a barrier and interorganizational mobility. However, if the destination organization offers lower work demands, these act as a pull determinant. In other words: If a determinant related to the destination context has a negative relationship with interorganizational mobility, higher values or larger amounts of this determinant are likely to act as a barrier, while lower values or smaller amounts of the same determinant act as a pull determinant, and vice versa.

If we compare determinants from the source context with determinants from the destination context, push and pull determinants act in opposite directions, as do anchors and barriers. Taking the example of work demands again: If higher work demands push a person to move from the source organization, they will be “pulled” by the lower work demands at the destination organization. If low work demands keep the person in the source organization and thus serve as an anchor, high work demands in the destination organization act as a barrier and prevent potential mobility there.

Having established these uncovered themes, the sixth and final phase of my thematic analysis involves summarizing and interpreting the data, which is presented in the subsections of the next subchapter.

4.3 Data synthesis and interpretation of the findings

Based on the described thematic analysis, in this subchapter I have summarized the data and interpreted the results in terms of the first research question (RQ1), which is about the relationships between multilevel determinants and intra- and inter-sector mobility types in the HE sector. Thus, the main aim of this subchapter is to explain the relationships between the different concepts in my data, as well as the underlying patterns that map them to the same themes, and to draw concrete conclusions to answer the RQ1. To this end, I have tried to structure the following subsections so that the findings are logically grouped and described around the main phenomenon. Thus, the following first subsection presents the multilevel typology of determinants of academics' interorganizational mobility. More specifically, I have adapted the previously presented theory-based typology (Chapter 3) to the HE sector,

resulting in a new so-called data-based typology. Therefore, some of the existing determinants from the theory-based typology were re-specified to better fit the HE sector. Furthermore, new additional determinants were introduced based on the respondents' answers. In the next subsection, the temporary intra- and inter-sector mobility types are discussed in relation to the four main themes identified: push determinants, pull determinants, anchors and barriers. The remaining subsections deal with permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility types, again in relation to the four main themes identified. The proposed hierarchy of mobility determinants is also presented for these two permanent mobility types.

4.3.1 Data-based typology of determinants of the interorganizational mobility of academics

Because I treated each interorganizational mobility experience of an individual respondent as an individual and separate event, I was able to count how often each determinant occurred at each level in an individual respondent's mobility experience and which of these determinants occurred most frequently when observing all mobilities of all respondents. The results showed that academics from the field of economics and business are primarily guided by various determinants at the individual and organizational levels. While the determinants at the individual level were the most diverse, as respondents mentioned 20 different individual determinants, the 17 different organizational determinants were mentioned most frequently as the reason for the interorganizational mobility of academics (284 times compared to 233 times mentioned individual determinants). This was followed by the 12 different determinants at sector level, which were mentioned 99 times, and finally the least represented determinants at economic level (5 determinants, which were mentioned 60 times). Most of the determinants from the theory-based typology presented earlier appeared at all levels of analysis, as did the new ones. The overview of the new data-based typology, which includes all mobility determinants in the HE sector at all four levels of analysis, is presented in Table 12.

4.3.1.1 *Individual determinants of the interorganizational mobility of academics*

From the theory-based typology of mobility determinants developed in the previous chapter, most of the individual determinants appeared in whole or in part in the responses of the academics interviewed, with 8 new determinants found at this level of analysis (Table 12). Some determinants from the theory-based typology that were not directly mentioned, such as *marital status*, *number of children*, *expectation to find a better job* and *mobility costs*, were implied by some of the new determinants at this or other levels of analysis. Other determinants that were not directly mentioned, such as *gender*, *length of service* and *total work experience*, are determinants that were commonly used as control variables in the existing quantitative studies. Control variables are variables that are not of interest in the study but are usually held constant because they could have an impact on the results of the

Table 12: Data-based typology of determinants of the interorganizational mobility of academics

Individual determinants		Organizational determinants		Sector determinants		Economic determinants	
Determinant	No. of occurrences	Determinant	No. of occurrences	Determinant	No. of occurrences	Determinant	No. of occurrences
<i>Social ties</i>	62	<i>Organizational location</i>	44	Academic flexibility	18	<i>Government policies and public services</i>	23
Family ties	35	<i>Organizational support</i>	41	<i>Structural characteristics</i>	14	National culture	20
<i>Personal characteristics</i>	21	<i>Opportunities to develop new knowledge and skills</i>	30	<i>Academic specific conditions and requirements for employment and career advancement</i>	13	Economic development	10
<i>Personal skills and competence</i>	21	Establishment of the research field	30	Academic labor market characteristics	11	<i>Labor market characteristics</i>	4
<i>Orientation to professional and personal development</i>	21	Work demands	24	Opportunities to develop new knowledge and skills	10	COVID-19 pandemic	3
Individual interests and preferences	12	<i>Organizational status</i>	24	Academic activities	10	Σ: 5 determinants	Σ: 60
<i>Permanent intra and inter-sector mobility experience</i>	10	Work environment and organizational culture	21	<i>Competitive academic environment</i>	10		
<i>Temporary intra- and inter-sector mobility experience</i>	9	<i>Type of employment</i>	18	Academic job demands	4		
<i>Job satisfaction</i>	9	<i>Interorganizational ties</i>	14	Academic job significance	4		
Academic visibility	8	<i>Salary</i>	12	Academic salary	3		
<i>Age</i>	5	Job position	8	Work-life balance conditions	1		
<i>Organization-specific skills</i>	4	Work-life balance conditions	5	Status of HE sector	1		

To be continued

Table 12: Data-based typology of determinants of the interorganizational mobility of academics (cont.)

Individual determinants		Organizational determinants		Sector determinants		Economic determinants	
Determinant	No. of occurrences	Determinant	No. of occurrences	Determinant	No. of occurrences	Determinant	No. of occurrences
<i>Job position</i>	4	<i>Career opportunities</i>	4	Σ: 12 determinants	Σ: 99	Σ: 5 determinants	Σ: 60
Additional income	3	Organizational structure	3				
Nature of the research field	3	<i>Organizational size</i>	2				
<i>Household income share</i>	2	Temporary intra- and inter-sector mobility	2				
<i>Education</i>	1	Research mentor	2				
Established career	1	Σ: 17 determinants	Σ: 284				
Comfort zone	1						
Health problems	1						
Σ: 20 determinants	Σ: 233						

Notes: The determinants in italics were mentioned in whole or in part in the theory-based typology. The determinants in bold are results of the qualitative study and new determinants of the data-based typology that are relevant for interorganizational mobility in the HE sector.

Source: own work

study (Gliner et al., 2017). In the following paragraphs, each individual determinant is explained, starting with those that occurred most frequently. The overview of all new determinants at the individual level of analysis and the corresponding sections of the raw data from my interviews can be seen in Table 13.

Table 13: New individual mobility determinants in data-based typology and examples of raw data sections from the interviews

New determinant	Data segments from the interview
Family ties	<i>My next move was because of my partner. (Respondent no. 005)</i>
Individual interests and preferences	<i>Since my childhood I always thought of being part of education, one way or another. (Respondent no. 010)</i>
Academic visibility	<i>If I had more publications at the end of my postdoc, maybe I would have been considered for other universities. For example, I applied for another university that would have been closer to home and this was not possible because, yeah, my ACD wasn't really attractive for them. So I think that was something that maybe reduced my chances. (Respondent no. 026)</i>
Additional income	<i>Of course that additional income is a certain motivator. (Respondent no. 012)</i>
Nature of the research field	<i>I had the opportunity to meet employees from a company that somehow fascinated me. It was a consulting firm that deals with scenario management consulting, scenario modeling. And since the topic for my doctoral dissertation was in the field of strategic management, it was quite, quite interesting to me. (Respondent no. 012)</i>
Established career	<i>Having the habilitation, I have quite stable situation. Elsewhere, I would have to start maybe not from the scratch, but that would be another start of the career path, which is not so nice from my point of view. (Respondent no. 011)</i>
Comfort zone	<i>What keep me where I am is security mainly and comfort zone. (Respondent no. 017)</i>
Health problems	<i>After my assistantship, I unfortunately had some health problems and then I left the system. (Respondent no. 009)</i>

Source: own work

Social ties, defined as relationships between people based on their social exchanges (Ituma & Simpson, 2009), are a determinant that was already included in the theory-based typology. However, based on the responses of the academics I interviewed, I had to distinguish the social ties they share with their colleagues, friends and acquaintances from the ties they share with their family members, resulting in a new determinant called “*family ties*”. This new determinant also includes the aforementioned *marital status* and *number of children*, but goes a little further and also includes the relationships a person has with family members, which also influence their mobility decisions.

Personal characteristics, skills and competencies have already been presented in theory-based typology from the previous chapter and were also reflected in the responses of the academics, who occasionally described their adventurous or indecisive personality as well as their good computer or communication skills as something that influenced their mobility experiences.

The *orientation to professional development* was also mentioned in the theory-based typology, as different people prioritize the professional and personal aspects of their lives differently – i.e., some are more career-oriented than others (Mano-Negrin & Kirschenbaum, 2000; Haunschild, 2003; Valcour & Tolbert, 2003; Valcour & Ladge, 2008; Ainsworth et al., 2009; Mascia & Piconi, 2013). Accordingly, this determinant had to be slightly adjusted in this new data-based typology to include both *professional and personal development*, as respondents also mentioned the importance of their personal growth, which led them to some mobility experiences.

Individual interests and preferences were a new determinant that frequently emerged in respondents' answers to the question of why they chose the HE sector. Some of them stated that they had simply always wanted to be an academic and work in education. Some mentioned their interests in writing, research and working with students which led them to move into the HE sector. Some mentioned that they were interested in discussing big ideas, participating in intellectual debates and deep conversations, and constantly challenging and developing themselves rather than doing some routine administrative work.

Mobility experience was a known determinant from theory-based typology, but as differences between mobility types emerged, it is important to specify the exact mobility type that acts as a determinant for another mobility type. In the case of my data, respondents' temporary intra- and inter-sector mobilities proved to be determinants of their future permanent moves. It happened that the temporary stay of some respondents at another HEI (temporary intra-sector mobility) facilitated social ties with the academics working there and opened the doors for them to move there (permanent intra-sector mobility) or simply helped them to realize that they wanted to make a permanent career change. One of the respondents was officially employed in another sector but had gained temporary work experience in academia (temporary inter-sector mobility) as she had taught some courses there. This experience gave her an impression of academic work and the academic environment and ultimately influenced her decision to move permanently to the HE sector and to this particular destination HEI (permanent inter-sector mobility). One respondent also had many temporary inter-sector mobility experiences as a member of various committees and societies in her field, and such mobility made her attractive to the HEI that eventually recruited her and was decisive for her permanent inter-sector mobility. One respondent's temporary stay at another HEI (temporary intra-sector mobility) led her to meet people who started a company in an industry related to her field, which in turn affected her temporary stay in that company (temporary inter-sector mobility).

Sometimes permanent types of mobility also influenced temporary mobility. For example, the permanent moves of five respondents between HEIs (permanent intra-sector mobility) prompted their source HEIs to offer them a temporary position as a visiting or guest lecturer (temporary intra-sector mobility). The same happened with one respondent who moved from the HE sector and was offered a temporary position by her ex academic employer, meaning her permanent inter-sector mobility determined her temporary inter-sector mobility.

Finally, the types of permanent mobility can also influence the next permanent mobilities. The permanent mobility of some respondents within the same sector or between different sectors (permanent intra- and inter-sector mobilities) but within the same field (e.g., human resources) helped them to find a job in the same field but within the HE sector, which determined their new permanent inter-sector mobility.

Job satisfaction is a well-known determinant from a theory-based typology and was also something that respondents mentioned as a reason for their mobility. In theory, it is usually defined as satisfaction with achieving career goals and goals for developing new skills, as well as satisfaction with the social context of the person's job (Culié et al., 2014; James, 2014). According to the academics' responses, this determinant was usually linked to another determinant at the individual level (e.g. *family ties*) or a determinant at the organizational level (e.g. *organizational support*, *work demands*, *work-life balance conditions*, etc.).

Academic visibility is a newly introduced individual determinant that various respondents described as successful academic work and the ability to publish high quality papers in top journals as well as being competent in certain fields and having a good reputation in previous cooperations, which greatly enhanced their academic profile and made them attractive to their new academic employer.

Age, *organization-specific skills* and *job position* were the determinants known from the theory-based typology. *Age* limited the respondents' mobility options and usually caused them to stay where they were. The same applies to *organization-specific skills*, which had an impact on the choice of employer and caused most respondents to stay where they are. In terms of *job position*, for example, those who held a higher position in the hierarchy (e.g. associate or full professor), that also entailed some additional organizational responsibilities (e.g., vice dean), were pushed by these positions to some temporary intra-sector mobilities. The same applies to some postdocs who were forced by their position to move temporarily or permanently between HEIs.

Additional income is a newly introduced determinant that influenced the temporary intra- or inter-sector mobility of respondents. This determinant was not about a specific amount of money offered to them by a specific destination organization, but about the general opportunity to earn extra income for themselves, which prompted them to be temporarily mobile in addition to their official academic job.

The *nature of the research field* was another new determinant that also proved to be important for the mobility of employees in the HE sector, as the subject areas in which they worked influenced some of their mobility experiences. For example, the respondent who taught international and human resource management wanted international and intercultural experiences herself, so her research field led to some of the temporary intra-sector mobilities she experienced. The same was true for the respondent who taught international business. This field was crucial for his temporary stay at another HEI in a specific country that he wanted to get to know, as well as for his further permanent intra-sector mobility to another country, as he wanted to experience the specific international environment himself.

Household income share and *education* are known from the theory-based typology and have also influenced the mobility experiences of some academics. For example, those who earn a larger proportion of their household income tend to move less, as this responsibility tends to keep them in their secure job. One of the respondents attended international schools from an early age, and this educational background has encouraged her to have many interorganizational mobility experiences, especially those of international nature.

Established career is a new determinant that has a negative impact on respondent's permanent intra-sector mobility. An established career in a source HEI discouraged one respondent from moving away, as starting from scratch in a new organization is stressful and involves significant mobility costs.

The same applies to the *comfort zone*, which keeps a person where they are and has a negative impact on permanent mobility while providing them with stability and security.

Health problems were also mentioned by one respondent as an important mobility determinant that had a positive impact on changing employers, as they made her aware that something was wrong and urgent change was necessary.

4.3.1.2 *Organizational determinants of the interorganizational mobility of academics*

With the exception of the *organizational age*, all organizational determinants from theory-based typology appeared at least once in whole or in part in the respondents' answers. At the same time, 8 new determinants appeared at this level of analysis (Table 12). In the following paragraphs, each organizational determinant is explained, starting with those that occurred most frequently. The overview of all new determinants at organizational level of analysis and the corresponding sections of the raw data from my interviews can be seen in Table 14.

Organizational location was the organizational determinant from theory-based typology and the most frequent reason for interorganizational mobility among the academics interviewed. Being too far away from family members, spending too much time commuting, living in a city/town which is not suitable for raising children or where the cost of living and standard

Table 14: New organizational mobility determinants in data-based typology and examples of raw data sections from the interviews

New determinant	Data segments from the interview	New determinant	Data segment from the interview
Establishment of the research field	<i>Actually, I got more interesting topic at Organization X so that was kind of my main motivation. The topic I got at that time at the Organization Y was too boring for me. (Respondent no. 002)</i>	Work-life balance conditions	<i>Essentially, when I decided to move, for example, from organization X to organization Y, I did consider the fact that in terms of teaching requirements, things would be easier. And obviously, how that would affect my... not only research time, but also spending time with family, spending time with my children, so on and so forth. So yeah, that definitely played a role. (Respondent no. 013)</i>
Work demands	<i>At the organization X, we have an enormous pressure to be brilliant professors, teachers, and brilliant researchers. Which, in my opinion, it is feasible, it's possible but very, very hard. (Respondent no. 024)</i>	Organizational structure	<i>But it's another type of university and I wanted really to work at a traditional university, not at a university of applied sciences. (Respondent no. 026)</i>
Work environment and organizational culture	<i>I would say now that I'm looking for opportunities elsewhere, the thing that probably is more important to me than organizational support is organizational culture. I think I'm at a stage in my career where I'm not counting on or don't need that much support myself and it's becoming more what is this environment like to work in, what are the people, are they collegial? And one of the reasons that it was such an easy decision to come to university X was that the environment was much more collegial. (Respondent no. 027)</i>	Temporary intra- and inter-sector mobility	<i>I'm still employed over there, actually in a small percentage of time, for research purposes, which gives me a greater freedom and is less demanding in terms of being at the institution for the time working there. So, it is easier for me to manage the work with this new position. (Respondent no. 002)</i>
Job position	<i>It was always moving up one step in the academic ranking. So from assistant to associate and now full professor. (Respondent no. 013)</i>	Research mentor	<i>Why I decided to go to organization X? I knew there was a professor that was doing a research on my topic. (Respondent no. 022)</i>

Source: own work

of living is too high were the reasons why someone disliked the location of their current organization and left.

Organizational support was another most frequently mentioned determinant from the theory-based typology. In theory, it is usually defined by financial and personnel support and the importance the organization attaches to the employee's work, as well as support and affirmation from superiors and colleagues (Arthur et al., 2005). This is exactly how the academics interviewed explained their reasons for their mobility decisions. For some, it was more about the support they receive from superiors and/or colleagues, while for others it was more about the support at an institutional level in the form of resources and finances that give the person a certain freedom. Either way, this was an important factor for many of the respondents when deciding on mobility.

Opportunities for new learning, research and on-the-job training, also a determinant from the theory-based typology, was renamed as *opportunities to develop new knowledge and skills*. In the case of academics, these opportunities also included certain opportunities for new social ties and cooperations offered by the destination organizations, which consequently triggered their mobility there. For example, there were situations where respondents wanted to move permanently to the destination HEI because most of the established authors in their research field came from there and they therefore wanted to be closer to them and take the opportunity to learn from and cooperate with them. Or one respondent left her source HEI because there were no opportunities to cooperate with colleagues there, partly due to a lack of collegiality, but also because their research fields were not entirely congruent.

Nature of the research field was one of the new determinants already explained at the individual level. However, since many respondents related this determinant to their choice of destination organization – i.e. they chose the destination HEI for a temporary stay or a permanent move there because it offered a position that covered the exact research field they were trained in or looking for – it was logical to identify a similar determinant at the organizational level as well: *the establishment of the research field*.

Work demands was a new organizational determinant that caused many of the respondents to leave their source HEIs. In particular, they mentioned the increased workload, which could mean too many teaching hours and less time for research or vice versa - too much emphasis on the research part and too little teaching. One respondent also mentioned that the equal emphasis on the teaching and research parts of the job that some HEIs insist on put a lot of pressure on academics. Some of the respondents mentioned the same determinant as a deciding factor in their choice of destination HEI. While some found the high demands of research and publishing exciting and exhilarating, others wanted a more relatable and human work demands in their new workplaces, especially when it came to the demands of publishing in top journals.

Organizational status was a well-known determinant from the theory-based typology. In different sectors and industries, the status of an organization can be measured by the number of so-called star scientists working there (Casper, 2013a, 2013b), by the production of new technologies and investment in R&D (Greenhalgh & Mavrotas, 1996), or by the success of a region or cluster to which the organization belongs (Casper, 2007). In the HE sector, the status of a HEI is usually perceived on the basis of its ranking, which is measured by its performance in four areas: teaching, research, knowledge transfer and international outlook (Times Higher Education, 2022). Accordingly, many academics interviewed stated that this determinant was decisive in their choice of destination HEI. In other words, they were attracted by the reputation and ranking of a HEI or simply by the fact that this HEI would offer them the opportunity to work on more important projects which would help them increase their academic visibility and build the academic profile they wanted.

Work environment and organizational culture was new determinant at the organizational level. Many of the respondents cited this determinant as a deciding factor in leaving their source organizations. They stated that they felt constrained and could not express their thoughts freely, or that they did not have a collegial working environment. Someone also mentioned an overly toxic and politicized environment that did not provide opportunities for further development, or an environment where they could not passionately discuss their research or engage in intellectual debates, as they could even be ridiculed for doing so. Some cited the same determinant when naming the reason why they went into academia in the first place. They started working at the same HEI where they had completed their master's degree, so they were familiar with the whole environment and culture that attracted them there. One respondent also cited this determinant as something that keeps her in her job, as she likes the environment and culture of her source HEI.

Type of employment was known determinant from the theory-based typology that was a key reason for many respondents to leave their source organization. A fixed-term contract without the possibility of extending it at the end was the reason for many to move to another organization. In addition, some HEIs do not extend the contracts of their academics after they have completed their doctorate or only hire them in a higher position if they have already gained several years of experience at another HEI, which was also a reason for many to change their source HEI.

Interorganizational ties were another well-known determinant from the theory-based typology that was crucial for the interorganizational mobility of academics. In theory, these ties were defined as connections that organizations share with each other, which also implies their mutual cooperation (Kuusk, 2021). Many of the academics interviewed stated that they chose the destination HEI based on their ties with practitioners and companies from related sectors/industries. This was particularly true for respondents who had worked in a different sector before entering academia, as they were more likely to be attracted to a HEI that conducted research that was highly transferable to the outside world or had greater practical value.

Salary was also a known organizational determinant that, if inadequate, prompted respondents to leave their source organization. On the other hand, if it was attractive and high enough, it was one of the factors that attracted respondents to their destination organization.

Job position was a known determinant at the individual level, but it was newly introduced at the organizational level. For example, when a person moves because of their position in their source organization, this determinant is located at the individual level and is perceived as part of the person's employment characteristics. However, if a person decides to move to a destination organization because they are offered a better or more senior position there, this determinant is located at the organizational level.

Three of the respondents chose their destination HEIs because of the reduced workload and increased free time they had there, allowing them to spend more time on their personal life and family, thus *work-life balance conditions* was introduced as another new determinant at organizational level.

Promotion opportunities were a well-known determinant from the theory-based typology, which was slightly respecified in the new data-based typology and renamed *career opportunities*. Some of the respondents considered career opportunities to be crucial in choosing their destination HEI, but not only in the sense that their new employer had to immediately offer them a higher position than the one they had in their source organization (in this case this would be an organizational determinant called "job position" described above), but it was simply about the general opportunity to build a career there and move up in the hierarchy, which guaranteed them job security.

While *organizational size* was a known determinant from the theory-based typology and is measured in the number of employees, two respondents mentioned things that could be considered *organizational structure*, which is the newly introduced mobility determinant at this level of analysis. One of them stated that too much administration and paperwork bothered him, as the organization had a slight tendency towards a more bureaucratic structure. The other respondent stated that she chose the destination HEI because it belongs to a traditionally structured university and not a university of applied sciences.

Temporary intra- and inter-sector mobility, which has been explained in detail at the individual level as a determinant of permanent mobility, can also be located at the organizational level. This is the case when the destination HEI offers the mobile academic the opportunity to work temporarily for their source HEI (temporary intra-sector mobility), which has been shown to be an important determinant in respondents choosing such a HEI and moving there permanently (permanent intra-sector mobility). Or a similar situation in which the respondent wanted to leave academia permanently but was unsure whether to go ahead with the idea. When she discussed this with her source HEI, she was offered to work there temporarily for a small percentage of the time while working in another sector, which

encouraged her to make the permanent move. In this way, the temporary inter-sector mobility offered to her by her source HEI was crucial for her permanent inter-sector mobility – i.e., leaving academia.

Finally, the *research mentor* was a new determinant that emerged at the organizational level. Some respondents explicitly stated that a research mentor working at a HEI was a reason for their decision to join that organization, as they wanted to learn from that person, or that they even chose to enter HE sector because of a particular mentor. Despite the aforementioned social ties at the individual level as well as the opportunities to learn from experts in the field that some organizations offer, the research mentor in some ways goes beyond everything described and is therefore developed as an independent determinant at the organizational level.

4.3.1.3 *Sector determinants of the interorganizational mobility of academics*

In the theory-based typology of mobility determinants created in the previous chapter, I treated the sector-level determinants as part of the economic level. However, due to the many specificities of the HE sector as evidenced by the respondents' answers, I decided to treat the HE sector as a separate and independent level. Moreover, the determinants at this level influenced not only inter-sector mobility or movement to or from HE, but also mobility within the HE sector. When they influenced this intra- sector mobility, it was mostly mobility between HE sectors in different countries or international mobility.

All of the sector-related determinants mentioned in the theory-based typology appeared at least once in whole or in part in the respondents' answers. At the same time, 9 new determinants emerged at this level of analysis (Table 12). *Strategic alliances* was the only sector-related determinant from the theory-based typology which was not mentioned directly, but was implied by interorganizational ties as another determinant already explained at the organizational level. Each determinant at the sector level is explained in the following paragraphs, starting with those that occurred most frequently. The overview of all new determinants at the sector level of the analysis and the corresponding sections of the raw data from my interviews can be seen in Table 15.

Academic flexibility was a new sector-level determinant that emerged most frequently in academics' responses. They referred to this determinant when naming reasons for entering the HE sector, citing in particular things such as the freedom and autonomy to think critically and choose different research ideas, topics and projects, rather than doing repetitive work or being bossed around as is often the case in other sectors, particularly the private sector. Another aspect of this flexibility was in managing their own working hours, which had a positive impact on their work-life balance.

Structural characteristics as determinant of mobility from theory-based typology mostly referred to whether a sector was private or public, which was also crucial for my respondents,

Table 15: New sector-level mobility determinants in data-based typology and examples of raw data sections from the interviews

New determinant	Data segments from the interview	New determinant	Data segment from the interview
Academic flexibility	<i>For me, basically, the greater attraction is freedom that it allows. So basically, as long as I keep students happy and I do research on the appropriate level for my institution, I can pretty much do whatever I want. And also intellectual freedom to just research things and go into... Basically I just see PhD as a license to ask questions, right? (Respondent no. 008)</i>	Academic job demands	<i>I didn't know that it was so complex, like for example to publish papers, that it takes so long and that you would get a rejection or that you have to spend so much time in responding. (Respondent no. 026)</i>
Academic labor market characteristics	<i>The academic market in country X, where mostly how it happens is either you stay at your institution where you did your PhD, or you're out of academia. There's very little mobility between the different institutions. So there is some, but very, very, very little. So this is the nature of the academic market in country X. (Respondent no. 008)</i>	Academic job significance	<i>I always thought that being an academician is... Well, I don't want to say that it's giving you a kind of status, but it's more like a respected occupation. (Respondent no. 023)</i>
		Academic salary	<i>And the other reason, pretty important, was that at the university the salaries are not competitive. (Respondent no. 001)</i>
Opportunities to develop new knowledge and skills	<i>At academia you have a lot of freedom and a lot of learning opportunity, absolutely. This is, I would say, the most fruitful environment for learning. (Respondent no. 002)</i>	Work-life balance conditions	<i>I think it was more work-life balance. And that's something that initially kind of attracted me to the HE sector X. This idea that you can earn a decent salary, that you don't have to work insane hours, like in the HE sector Y. (Respondent no. 027)</i>
Academic activities	<i>I really liked research and I didn't see myself in a company that is more oriented to be on the market. If it would be a research company, sure, but these kind of jobs in country X are quite rare. You don't have an analytic department, especially at that time. Now, maybe they do. So I was looking for something that is related to higher education, so that you are employed in an institution and then you also do your PhD. (Respondent no. 014)</i>	Status of the HE sector	<i>I chose HE sector X because I knew their results, all of their universities were among the top 100 in the world, so their scores or whatever you choose, their public universities are amazing and of very good quality. So then I decided that was my motivation. I chose the best that I could. (Respondent no. 017)</i>

Source: own work

but had a somewhat deeper meaning. In terms of structural characteristics that were decisive for inter-sector movements or leaving academia, two of the respondents mentioned the bureaucratic and overly hierarchical structure of academia, as well as the overly rigid procedures and strict rules. When asked why they opted for the HE sector in another country, one respondent mentioned destination sector was based more on performance than the hierarchy. People are also put off by the overly vague structure of some HE sectors when it comes to the division of academic work into teaching, research, institutional and practice commitments.

Specific conditions and requirements for employment and career advancement were a known sector-level determinant from theory-based typology. For the respondents who decided to leave academia (permanent inter-sector mobility), this determinant mainly referred to a too slow academic promotion system as well as not enough academic positions, as it often happened that a person fulfilled the requirements for a higher position but had to wait until this position became available. On the other hand, one of the respondents sees these particularities of academic promotion as something that drives her to constantly move up and from one position to the next, which she likes. For some of the respondents, this determinant is more related to the special academic conditions that allow employees to move temporarily within the HE sector as well as to another related sector or industry. In this way, they get a great chance to improve their skills and gain experience in another HEI or sector, while enjoying the security and protection of their permanent job at their source HEI. This is another feature that the HE sector offers and encourages, attracting people to the academic world in the first place.

Labor market characteristics, which mostly consider the employment opportunities and unemployment rate in a country's labor market (Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Mano-Negrin & Kirschenbaum, 2000; Knight & Yueh, 2004; Ituma & Simpson, 2009; Sacchi et al., 2016), have been cited in the theory-based typology at the economic level as crucial for the mobility of employees between different sectors and industries. However, when these characteristics are narrowed down to the HE sector, a new determinant emerges that relates to this specific sector – *the academic labor market characteristics*. This determinant was crucial for academics' moving within the HE sector (permanent intra- sector mobility), but also between two countries, as opportunities in the academic labor market are very limited in some countries and some of the respondents had no alternative academic employment opportunities after their fixed-term contract at their source HEI had expired.

Opportunities to develop new knowledge and skills is a determinant already mentioned at the organizational level. However, sometimes these opportunities go beyond a particular HEI and have more to do with the academic environment in general or a particular HE sector, so they can also be located at the sector level.

Academic activities are new mobility determinant at sector level and one of the main reasons for respondents' decision to move from another sector to HE. These activities mostly relate

to the teaching and research aspects of academic job which are quite unique and almost exclusively tied to this sector. One respondent also mentioned that the HE sector is one of the few sectors where you can do a PhD and research while working and receiving a salary. Another respondent stated that working in the HE sector allows you to build a closer relationship with students than working in high school because the college students are more mature and interested, which made her decide to work in academia.

The *competitive and rapidly changing environment* is mentioned in theory-based typology as a sector determinant, which in the case of the HE sector was reduced only to the *competitive academic environment*, as the academic sector is not known for its rapid changes, as is common in the IT sector and similar industries, for example. However, this competitive academic environment was often a kind of barrier to respondents' mobility. This was especially true for those respondents who did not have an established academic profile (e.g., a completed PhD, good publications, etc.), which limited their mobility options and choice of destination HEIs, especially if they were trying to enter a highly competitive HE sector that has greater standards and requirements (e.g., the US HE sector).

Work demands were a newly introduced mobility determinant at the organizational level, but when it comes to the *specific demands of an academic job*, they are also placed at the sector level. Four respondents mentioned these demands as intense, challenging and stressful teaching hours and publication requirements that cause them leave academia rather than move to another HEI (permanent inter-sector mobility).

Two respondents mentioned that working in academia is a prestigious profession, as many people still revere someone as a professor, which has led them to move into this sector, so another newly introduced determinant at sector level is the *academic job significance*. Some respondents who ran their own business or worked for other companies in different sectors were also motivated to move into the HE sector by the significance of the academic job. They saw this significance as contributing to practice, bridging the gap between the academic and non-academic sectors and making a difference to society in general.

When deciding to accept more temporary positions in other sectors/industries (temporary inter-sector mobility), one respondent referred to a generally low *academic salary*, so this new determinant has more to do with the sector as a whole than with a particular HEI. Two respondents also referred to salary differences between HE sectors in different countries as a determining factor in accepting or rejecting a job offer.

Work-life balance conditions is a determinant that was introduced at an organizational level, but according to one respondent who says that some countries' HE sectors are more reasonable than others when it comes to earning a decent amount of money without having insane working hours, which affects work-life balance, this can also be captured as a sector-level determinant.

Finally, the *status of the HE sector* was defined by one respondent as a measure of the best European or global schools/faculties that a country's HE sector hosts, which made it attractive for her to move there temporarily.

4.3.1.4 Economic determinants of the interorganizational mobility of academics

Determinants at the economic level were decisive for the mobility decisions of the academics in my qualitative study when this mobility took place between different countries, regardless of whether it was intra- or inter-sector mobility. Of all the determinants at the economic level from the theory-based typology, the *gig economy* proved not to be relevant for academics' mobility decisions, as the academic type of work is highly regulated and does not match the characteristics of the gig economy, such as freelance or platform-mediated work. *Government policies and public services* as well as *labor market characteristics*, determinants from the theory-based typology, were directly mentioned as driving the interorganizational mobility of respondents between two countries, while *economic cycles*, mostly referring to differences between employment opportunities in times of prosperity and recession, and the *type of market economy* (liberal vs. coordinated) were not directly mentioned, but were implied under the newly introduced determinant at this level – *COVID-19 pandemic*. In addition to the COVID-19 pandemic, 2 other new determinants were introduced at this level of analysis (Table 12). Each determinant at the economic level is explained in the following paragraphs, starting with those that occurred most frequently. The overview of all new determinants at the economic level of analysis and the corresponding sections of the raw data from my interviews can be seen in Table 16.

Table 16: New economic mobility determinants in data-based typology and examples of raw data sections from the interviews

New determinant	Data segment from the interview
National culture	<i>I love country X, I love everything about it, so I always thought, okay, this is going to be nice there. And I studied language X in high school, so I use it fully, so I thought it's going to be easy. (Respondent no. 006)</i>
Economic development	<i>In country X, yeah, the housing prices are really high as you can imagine that. Which makes it like at some point you think big city, doing good things, but you don't want to be living in a rented room for the rest of your life. I mean, if you don't have one million then you cannot even think about buying a proper house in some sensible place. So that's not the life, that's not the kind of figures I live on. (Respondent no. 018)</i>
COVID-19 pandemic	<i>I had the opportunity to stay there for six years. But at that point... So what happened? COVID happened. (Respondent no. 022)</i>

Source: own work

Government policies and public services were frequently mentioned in respondents' answers as the reason for their mobility to a HEI from another country. Many of them emphasized that the political situation in the country they previously lived in (e.g. Brexit, new leading political party, etc.) caused them to move away and change employers in the HE sector accordingly. On the other hand, sometimes it was the same reason that attracted someone to a particular country and its HEIs. For example, some respondents stated that they moved to another country because public services were better organized there (e.g., public transport, pension system, rule of law, democracy, freedom of the press, etc.), which offered them a certain stability and security. In several cases, respondents were pleased with the tax cuts for academics or expats in some countries, as these had a positive impact on their salary.

National culture was a newly introduced determinant that emerged at the economic level. This determinant reflects a country's norms, beliefs, customs and values, as well as specific characteristics such as language, religion, ethnic and racial identity, etc. For example, many respondents mentioned the language aspect, as they chose HEIs in countries where they are native speakers or where English is widely spoken. One respondent also said that he moved to a HEI in a particular country because he loves everything about the culture there. Another respondent mentioned the different, more relaxed approach in a particular country that made her decide to move to HEI there temporarily. In addition, respondents chose HEI in countries whose cultural aspects they preferred for most temporary stays. One respondent also stated that she had initially chosen a particular country's HEI because of the cultural uniqueness of that country and that part of the world, which was later also a decisive factor in her decision to move away, as she could not imagine living permanently in such a specific part of the world.

Economic development is another newly introduced determinant at this level of analysis that plays a role in academics' decisions on whether and where to move. This determinant usually reflects some macroeconomic variables of the source and destination countries, such as GDP, inflation rate, standard of living, etc. For example, for two respondents in my sample, the fact that they live in a country where they cannot afford normal housing due to the high standard of living and rising costs there was a reason for interorganizational mobility and moving out of it. One respondent stated that he chose to move to HEI in a particular country because of its economic development measured by the number of multinational companies based there, which offered him a certain stability and security. Another respondent justified his decision to move to the HEI from another country because of the potential increase in prosperity offered by the standard of living in that country. When moving between HEIs, which also included moving between less and more economically developed countries, some respondents stated that they were limited by these differences as they did not want to move to a country where they could not afford a normal life.

The *labor market characteristics* was a familiar economic determinant from theory-based typology, usually reflecting employment opportunities, unemployment rates, and other indicators of the quality of the labor market in a country. Three of the academics interviewed

stated that the general situation on the labor market of their destination country (not necessarily the academic labor market) played an important role in their mobility decision, as they assumed that they would easily find a job there, even if it would be outside the academic world. Moreover, in some countries mainly temporary or fixed-term contracts are concluded, often limited to a certain period of time (not a typical full-time contract), which forces employees there to constantly look for alternatives to fulfill their work schedule, or in case they lose their main job. Such a situation directly increases the interorganizational employee mobility in such a market. However, since all employment opportunities are temporary and usually part-time, this mainly positively affects temporary mobility.

Finally, the *COVID-19 pandemic* was a new determinant mentioned in the interviews with academics. As this factor goes beyond a single person, organization or even sector, it was appropriate to place it at the economic level. It was also often linked to government policies as an already known economic determinant, as for some of the respondents who were living abroad and far away from their families, the lockdown, which made international travel completely impossible, was the trigger for their decision to move to a place where they could be closer to their family. The COVID-19 pandemic was also linked to another well-known determinant - the characteristics of the academic labor market. Some academic labor markets were severely affected by the pandemic and their HEIs had to undergo financial restructuring, leading to the dismissal of many academics, which was also a decisive factor for one of the respondents to seek his fortune in another country. However, for one of the respondents, the COVID-19 pandemic itself had an impact on how she coped with all the challenges of the academic job while working from home and taking care of her children at the same time, which was the trigger for her decision to leave the academic world (permanent inter-sector mobility).

4.3.2 Temporary intra- and inter-sector mobility of academics

As mentioned in the theory-based typology of mobility determinants from the previous chapter, the mobility experience has been shown to be a determinant of another mobility experience. As described in the previous sections of this chapter, the temporary mobility of academics proved in many cases to be decisive for their further permanent moves. It is therefore necessary to examine the two types of temporary mobility (intra- and inter-sector) separately from the two types of permanent mobility (intra- and inter-sector) by identifying their determinants at all four levels of analysis (individual, organizational, sector and economic). Furthermore, the thematic data analysis has shown that there are differences between these determinants at each level in the way they influence academic mobility, so it is not sufficient to categorize these determinants of temporary mobility types by level only. Therefore, for both types of temporary mobility of academics, within each level of analysis I have identified 4 different groups of determinants that have already been explained: push determinants from the source context that made the respondents move temporarily elsewhere; pull determinants from the destination context that made the respondents move

there temporarily; anchors or determinants from the source context that kept the respondents there and prevented their temporary mobility elsewhere; and barriers or determinants from the destination context that prevented or hindered their temporary mobility there. The details are explained in the following subsections. First, the push and pull determinants, anchors and barriers at all levels of analysis for temporary intra-sector mobility are presented. Subsequently, only the push and pull determinants for temporary inter-sector mobility are presented, as the thematic analysis did not reveal any anchors or barriers for this type of mobility.

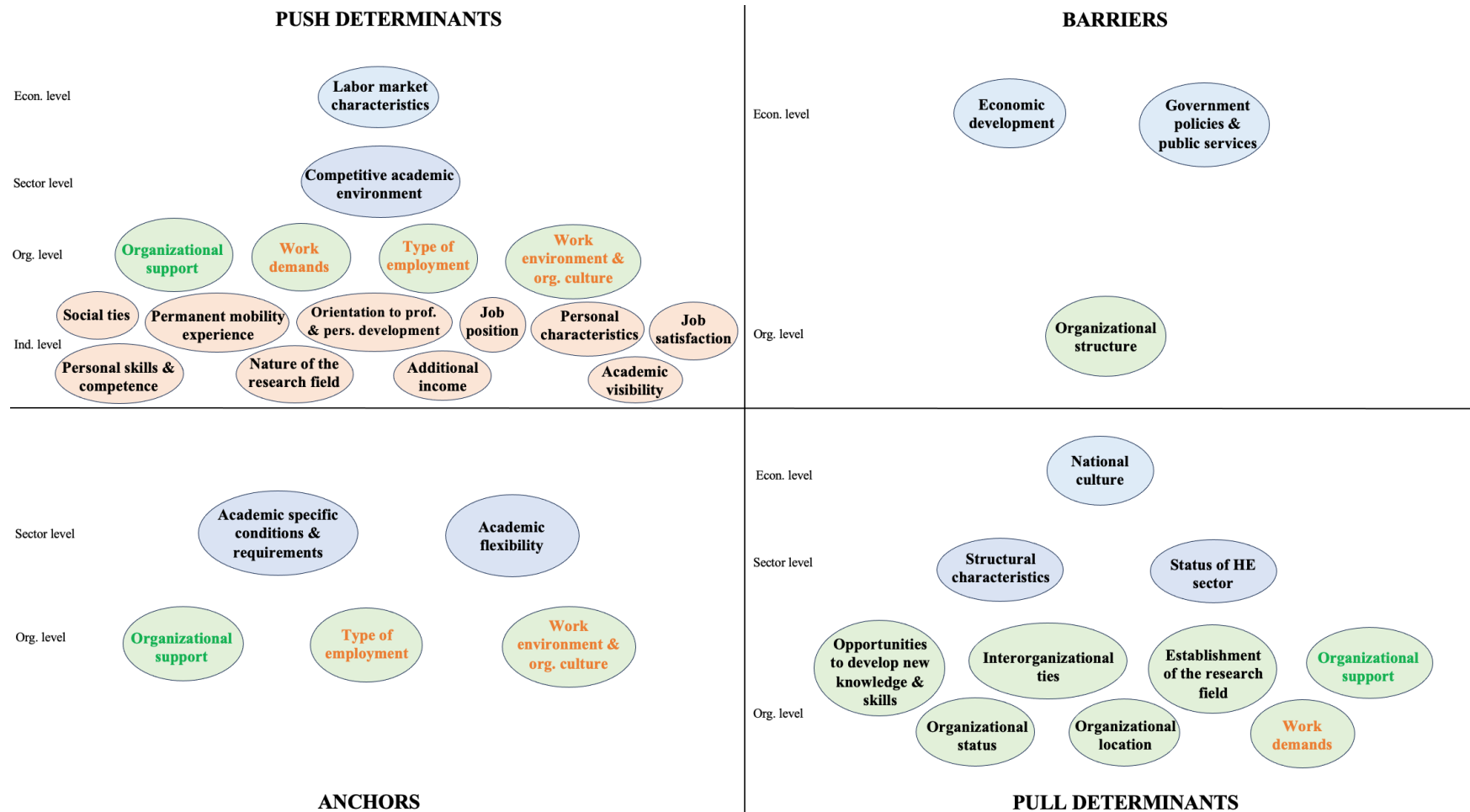
4.3.2.1 Data-based typology of determinants of temporary intra-sector mobility of academics: push and pull determinants, anchors and barriers

Of 27 academics interviewed, 19 have experienced temporary intra-sector mobility, or a temporary stay at another HEI. All push and pull determinants, anchors and barriers that were relevant to these experiences of temporary intra-sector mobility can be seen in Figure 14. The detailed information of the number of occurrences of each determinant for this type of mobility can be found in Appendix 14.

A closer look at the push determinants shows that the things that caused respondents to move away temporarily were mostly related to the individual level. *Social ties* were the most frequently cited individual push determinant for temporary intra-sector mobility of academics (Appendix 14). These social ties usually represent the connections that respondents had with people outside of their source organization that pushed them to move temporarily. In some cases, these were not even the personal ties of the mobile respondent, but ties through colleagues or superiors that pushed them to move to a particular HEI. There were also situations in which the respondents left their source HEI permanently but were offered a temporary position there due to their social ties. So, in a sense, their *permanent intra- sector mobility*, through the mediation of the *social ties* they had with their previous employer, determined their *temporary intra-sector mobility* – i.e., the visiting role at their source HEI.

As the example described between *social ties* and *permanent mobility experience* shows, certain relationships between different push determinants of temporary intra-sector mobility can be identified both at the same and at different levels of analysis. For example, *job position* as an individual determinant can be related to the *type of employment* at the source HEI as an organizational determinant, as one respondent had to temporarily move to a partner HEI to teach there for a semester due to her postdoctoral contract. For two respondents, their *job position* was related to the *work demands* at their source HEI, as managing different departments/academic units and committees entails a lot of additional pressure and administrative work, which also led to *dissatisfaction with their current job* and caused these respondents to move away temporarily. For one respondent, the *type of employment* was related to the *characteristics of the labor market*, as in her country almost

Figure 14: Push and pull determinants, anchors and barriers of temporary intra-sector mobility of academics



Notes: The determinants colored orange were identified in two groups. The determinant colored green was identified in three groups.

Source: own work

80% of employment contracts in different sectors and industries are temporary, forcing people to accept temporary roles and always look for alternatives. Both determinants are also related to *competitive nature of the academic environment*, as many people are constantly “fighting” for the same jobs, so they must always have an alternative, which they achieve through temporary intra-sector mobility – i.e., by working a certain percentage of the time at a different HEI.

For one of the respondents, the *work environment and organizational culture* at his source HEI were related to *organizational support*. In his case, poor leadership and a bad working atmosphere in the source HEI led to poor support and forced him to take a leave of absence, during which he decided to work temporarily at another HEI. This is an example of the negative direction of the relationship between organizational support and temporary mobility – i.e., when the support in the source organization decreases, the temporary mobility of the academic increases. However, the same determinant – *organizational support* – also showed a positive relationship with the temporary mobility of the academics interviewed. Most of them stated that they would not be able to move temporarily to another HEI without the support of their source HEI. In other words, organizational support has a mixed relationship with the temporary intra-sector mobility of academics: while for some of them a high level of support is unavoidable to temporarily move to another HEI, for others a lack of support in some professional aspects may also lead to temporary mobility to another HEI.

Taking a closer look at the *pull determinants*, the results of the qualitative study indicate that the respondents’ temporary intra-sector mobility was primarily influenced by the organizational determinants of their destination context. The *opportunities to develop new knowledge and skills* offered by some destination HEIs were the most attractive for the respondents to move there temporarily. This determinant was related to the *interorganizational ties* that a destination HEI has with other HEIs and companies in related industries, which is another commonly cited organizational pull determinant. This is another example of how the pull determinants, just like the push determinants, can be interconnected. In addition, the *location of the destination organization* may be related to the *national culture*, as some respondents stated that they chose a HEI in a particular country because they wanted to learn more about its culture or simply because of the language spoken there.

As already described, push determinants reflecting the source context and pull determinants reflecting the destination context can complement each other in the sense that a person who is pushed out of the source context by small/high values/quantities of a determinant is likely to be “pulled” by opposite values/quantities of the same determinant in the destination context. This is also suggested by the results of this qualitative study, as *organizational support* and *work demands* were found to be both push and pull determinants of temporary intra-sector mobility of academics. While, as explained earlier, organizational support as a push determinant showed a mixed relationship with temporary intra-sector mobility of academics, organizational support as a pull determinant only showed a positive relationship

with the same type of mobility. This means that only a high level of or strong support from the destination organization attracted academics to temporarily move to that organization.

It is also interesting to note that not all push and pull determinants were complementary, meaning that what caused respondents to temporarily move away from the source context is not necessarily the same as what caused them to choose the destination context. For example, as Figure 14 shows, *opportunities to develop new knowledge and skills*, *interorganizational ties*, *the establishment of the research field*, *the status and the location of the organization* were organizational determinants that acted only as pull determinants. The same applies to the sector determinants *structural characteristics* and *status of the HE sector* as well as the economic determinant *national culture*. This means that the respondents did not temporarily leave their source HE sector or their source country because of structural specifics or the status of the HE sector in their source country or because of its national culture. However, they chose the destination HE sector and the destination country to which they moved temporarily on the basis of these determinants.

Another interesting aspect indicated by the results of this qualitative study is that different push and pull determinants can also be related. For example, as mentioned in the theory-based typology of mobility determinants from Chapter 3, which was also confirmed by the results of this study, *social ties* (push determinant) can be based on *interorganizational ties* (pull determinant) and vice versa. Two HEIs (source and destination) establish ties with each other – they become partners in a project and begin to cooperate – and on the basis of these ties, their employees establish social ties with each other, which act as a mobility determinant between the two HEIs. The same applies to social ties (push determinant) and the location of the destination organization (pull determinant), as some people tend to choose the destination HEI for their temporary stay based on their private ties to friends and acquaintances in that location. In addition, there is also a relationship between *nature of research field* as an individual push determinant and the *establishment of the research field* as an organizational pull determinant. Some respondents were teaching in a particular field and personally wanted to gain as much knowledge as possible about that field, which led them to go somewhere temporarily. When deciding where to go, they chose an organization in which that field played an important role. At that moment, the establishment of the targeted research field became a pull factor at the organizational level, as the destination HEI offered them invaluable knowledge in a specific field that matched the mobile respondents' aspirations.

Regarding the anchors of temporary intra-sector mobility, respondents cited a number of things at organizational and sector levels. It was explained that strong or high *support from the source organization* may encourage a person to move away temporarily and, correspondingly, a lack of support in the source organization may discourage someone from moving elsewhere temporarily. This is often also related to the poor *work environment and organizational culture* in the source HEI, because when a person temporarily moves to another HEI, their colleagues have to step in and replace the entire workload of the mobile

person, which they are often not willing to do. Such a situation is also linked to the lack of *flexibility in the HE sector*, which is another crucial anchor determinant at sector level. In other words, the HE sector pushes its staff to be mobile between different HEIs, but at the same time its inflexibility represents a kind of anchor, because the person who leaves temporarily has to be replaced, which puts a strain on the rest of the staff. And since there are no concrete operational solutions and proposals on how these things could work, the process of temporary mobility is made more difficult.

As far as the *barriers* to temporary intra-sector mobility are concerned, the academics interviewed mainly mentioned things at an economic level which were important for temporary mobility between HEIs from different countries. *Economic development* or the differences in economic development between the source country and the destination country was one of them. If there are large differences in living standards between these countries, mobility costs are further increased for the mobile individual, which is an obstacle to their plans for temporary mobility.

Finally, it is important to mention determinants that act simultaneously as different mechanisms and therefore appear simultaneously in two or more identified groups (i.e., push, pull, anchor, and barrier). *Work demands* have already been mentioned as both a push and a pull determinant. Thus, if excessive work demands drove respondents away from their source HEI (push determinant), they automatically chose a destination HEI with lower work demands (pull determinant). For one respondent, a fixed-term contract with the source HEI (i.e., the *type of employment*) was a push determinant, as it obliged her to work at the partner HEI for one semester. However, for another respondent the same determinant was an anchor, as the same fixed-term contract restricted her freedom of movement. The *work environment and organizational culture* were also perceived as push determinant and anchor. While for one respondent the poor atmosphere at his source HEI was a reason to move away temporarily, for another respondent the same determinant was an anchor for her temporary mobility that kept her in the source HEI. In the latter case, the poor atmosphere was reflected in the lack of collegiality and unwillingness of her colleagues at her source HEI to cover for her and take on some of her workload while she was away. This result proves that the work environment and organizational culture can have a mixed relationship with the temporary intra-sector mobility of academics. A poor, bad or deteriorating work atmosphere can both push a person to temporarily move away (negative relationship with mobility) and keep the person in the source HEI and prevent their temporary mobility elsewhere (positive relationship with mobility).

Organizational support was the only determinant found in three categories (push, pull and anchor). As explained earlier, both support from the source HEI and the lack of it were a reason for respondents to temporarily move to another HEI, while only the lack of the same support was a reason for staying and not moving elsewhere (anchor). For 4 respondents, support from the destination organization was a decisive pull determinant, as they chose the

HEI that was responsive to their wishes and provided them with everything they needed in advance so that they could join it as a regular employee.

4.3.2.2 *Data-based typology of determinants of temporary inter-sector mobility of academics: push and pull determinants*

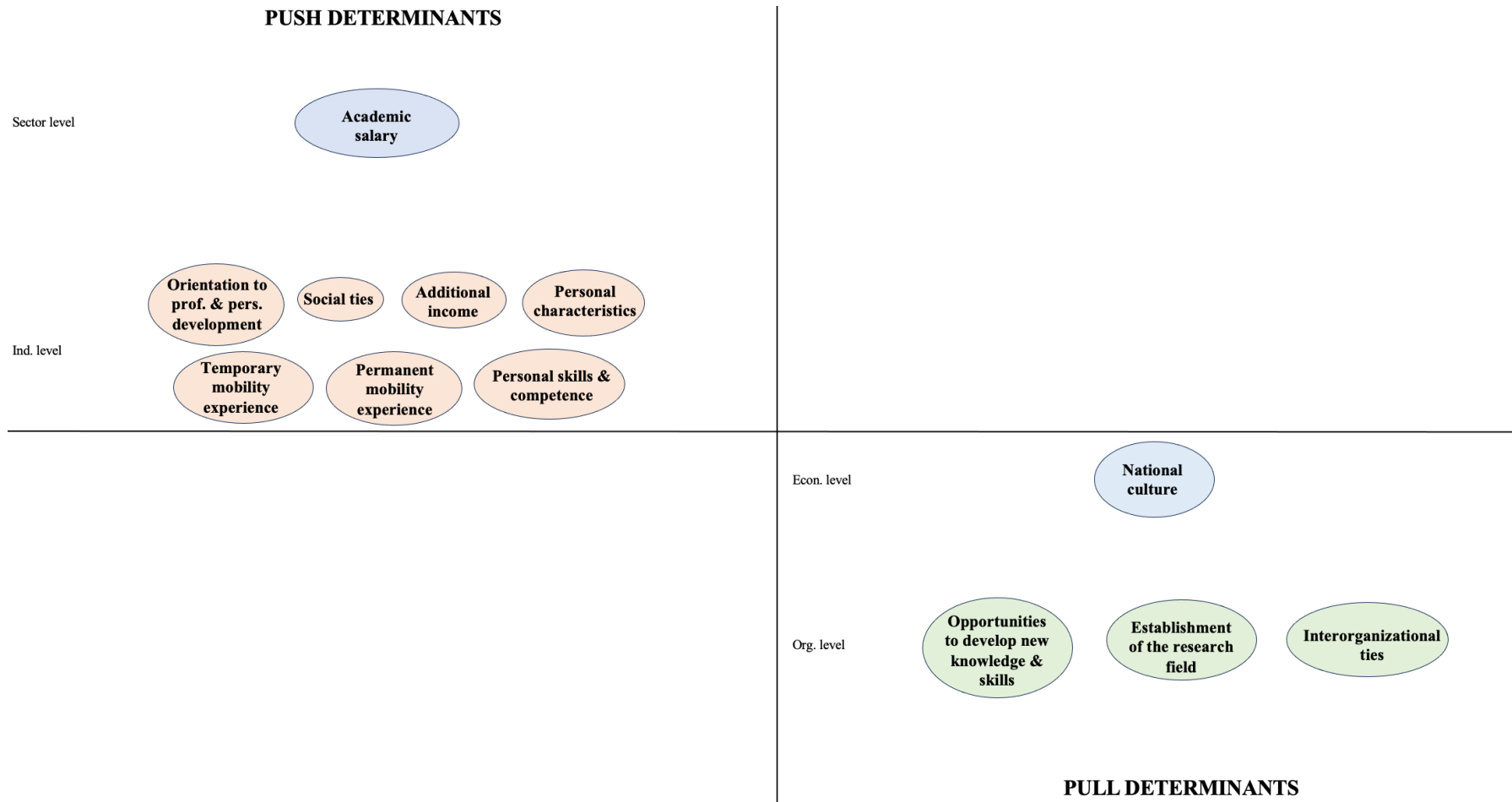
Out of 27 academics interviewed, 10 have experienced temporary inter-sector mobility or a temporary stay with an organization from another sector. As none of them mentioned anything that could be classified as an anchor or a barrier to such mobility, only push and pull determinants for the respondents' temporary inter-sector mobility could be identified. An overview of these determinants can be found in Figure 15. The information on the number of occurrences of each determinant for this type of mobility can be found in Appendix 15.

Due to the aforementioned lower level of experience with temporary inter-sector mobility, respondents mentioned a lower number of determinants related to this type of mobility. When naming things that could have been categorized as *push determinants*, no economic, nor organizational determinants were mentioned. They mainly mentioned things at the individual level, with “orientation to professional and personal development” and “social ties” slightly ahead of the other determinants at the same level in terms of the number of mentions (Appendix 15). In other words, the respondents' willingness to keep up to date with everything that is going on in the field has driven them to move into a related industry so that they can eventually pass this knowledge on to their students. Also, the ties they had with different companies – e.g., as a former employee or through different projects – has also pushed them to this temporary mobility between two sectors.

One respondent's experience of *temporary intra-sector mobility* prompted her future temporary inter-sector mobility to some extent, as she was able to establish contacts with a company in a related industry while temporarily visiting one HEI to which she later moved temporarily. Further, one respondent's experience of *permanent mobility* was also a push determinant of her next temporary inter-sector mobility – i.e., working temporarily at her source HEI, while working full-time in another sector. For one of the respondents, *academic salary* was the most important determinant that “pushed” him to accept temporary positions in companies from other sectors. He stated that salaries in the HE sector are not competitive, so side projects motivate him to earn some extra money (i.e., *additional income*), which is another related push determinant located at the individual level.

When taking a closer look at the *pull determinants* for the temporary inter-sector mobility of respondents, respondents were mostly attracted by things that destination organizations offered them. As with the pull determinants of temporary intra-sector mobility described above, respondents were most attracted to the *opportunities to develop new knowledge and skills* offered by the destination organization from another sector when they temporarily moved there. They were also attracted by companies operating in the field in which they

Figure 15: Push and pull determinants of temporary inter-sector mobility of academics



Source: own work

were researching (*establishment of research field*) and the *interorganizational ties* that this destination organization had with other companies in the same field. All these opportunities and cooperations provided by the destination organization from a different sector enhanced their research skills and knowledge, which they consequently passed on to their students. On an economic level, *national culture* was a reason for choosing the right destination, and again, as with the pull determinants of temporary intra-sector mobility, it was mainly about the language spoken there.

4.3.3 Permanent intra- and inter sector mobility of academics

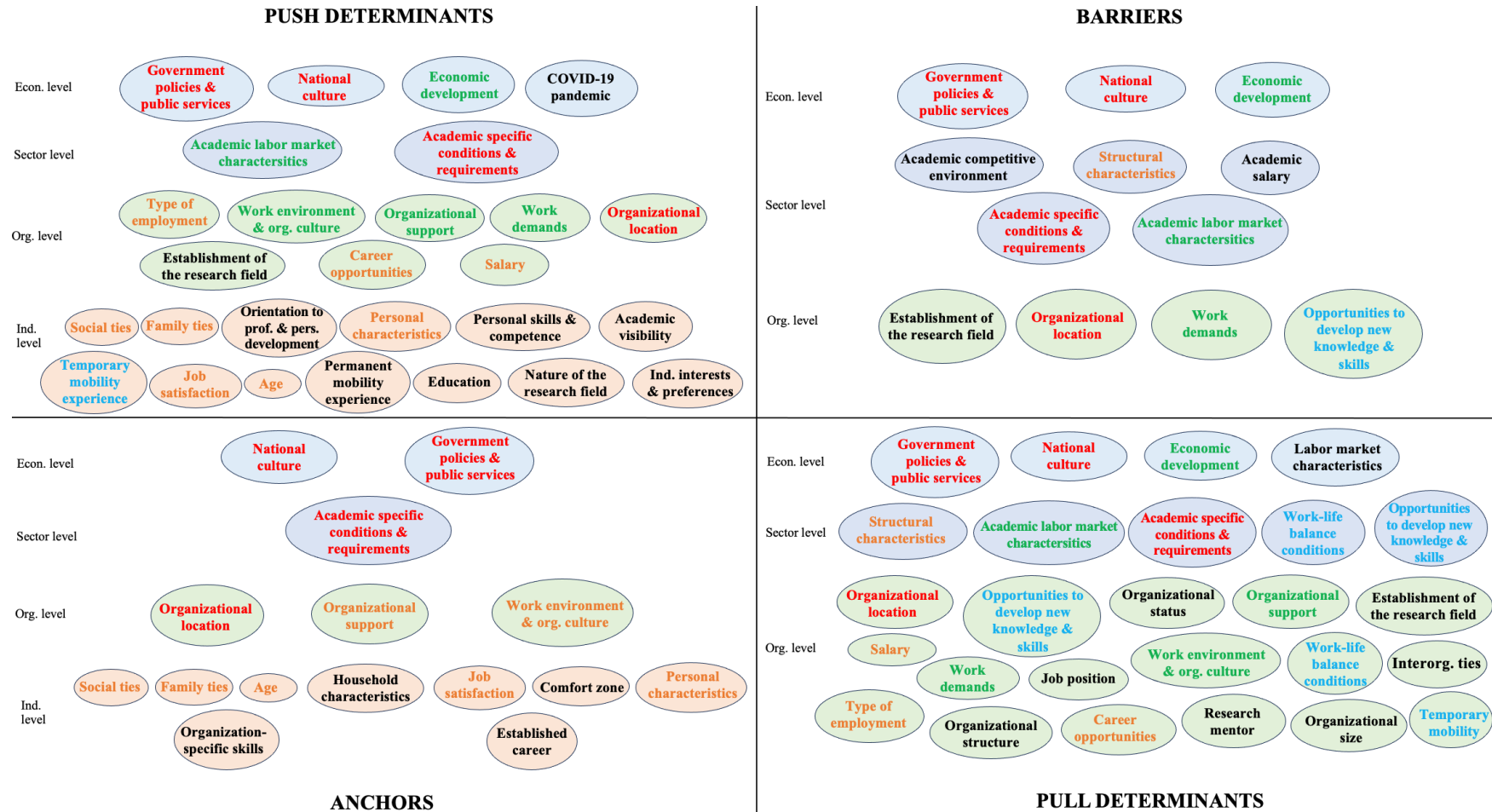
Having examined the temporary types of mobility in detail, I did the same with the permanent mobilities within the HE sector and inter-sector mobilities. To this end, when analyzing permanent mobility experiences of my respondents, I again paid particular attention to identifying different groups of determinants (push, pull, anchors and barriers) at all four levels of analysis (individual, organizational, sector and economic). In addition, the analysis of the data revealed that respondents considered some determinants more important than others in their permanent mobility decisions, indicating a certain hierarchy. Therefore, I have also proposed a hierarchy of mobility determinants for both types of permanent mobility. The details are presented in the following subsections.

4.3.3.1 *Data-based typology of determinants of permanent intra-sector mobility of academics: push and pull determinants, anchors and barriers*

Of 27 academics interviewed, 16 have experienced permanent intra-sector mobility, or a permanent move between two HEIs. All push and pull determinants, anchors and barriers that were relevant to these experiences of permanent intra-sector mobility can be seen in Figure 16. The information on the number of occurrences of each determinant for this type of mobility can be found in Appendix 16.

Among the *push determinants* for the permanent intra-sector mobility of respondents, the individual determinants are the most numerous and most frequently mentioned (Appendix 16). Among these individual push determinants, *social ties* play the main role. Here, however, it is important to distinguish between respondents' internal social ties, i.e., the ties they had within their source organization, and external social ties, i.e., the ties they had with others outside their source organization. For example, poor relationships that respondents had with colleagues in their source organization pushed them out of that organization permanently. Weak ties with friends and acquaintances in the city in which they lived were also a decisive determinant for some respondents to move away permanently, with such mobility also including a change of residence. However, strong social ties that respondents had developed with people from other HEIs pushed many of them to move permanently from their source HEI to this particular HEI. These ties were usually made through various academic conferences and similar events where respondents met people from other

Figure 16: Push and pull determinants, anchors and barriers of permanent intra-sector mobility of academics



Notes: The determinants colored orange were identified in two groups. The determinants colored green were identified in three groups. The determinants colored red were identified in all four groups. The determinants colored blue were identified in one or more groups at different levels of analysis.

Source: own work

universities who informed them of new employment opportunities. These ties were also not necessarily direct connections of the mobile person, but rather the connections of their colleagues or acquaintances through whom they received information on which they made their decision to make a permanent move.

Social ties were followed by *family ties*, which is the second most common push determinant for the respondents' permanent intra-sector mobility (Appendix 16). In other words, many of them simply followed their partner/spouse who also changed jobs, so that they themselves had to change jobs permanently. Or they simply chose the destination HEI because of its proximity to their family members or because of the job opportunities that such a location also offers their partner. Some of the respondents were more ambitious and career-oriented (*orientation to professional and personal development*), which led them to move to a HEI that was more stimulating than their source HEI, or simply to move to a different academic environment to gain more diverse experiences. On the other hand, some of the respondents were not particularly keen to progress their careers at a particular point in time, which also pushed them to leave their source HEI, which placed great emphasis on academic achievement.

Some of the respondents emphasized their *personal characteristics* that pushed them to permanently move to another HEI. They reported being courageous, especially when this mobility involved moving to another country, being curious and open to new experiences, being extroverted, adaptable and communicative, and being good with social situations, which enabled some respondents to socialize with other people in the academic field and build social ties that were later crucial in choosing their destination HEI.

Temporary intra-sector mobility experiences also acted as a push mobility determinant at the individual level, as two respondents came to the conclusion that they wanted to move to another HEI permanently based on their experiences with temporary stays at other universities, although they did not yet have a concrete idea of their destination HEI. On the other hand, previous *experiences with permanent intra-sector mobility* were push determinant of the new permanent mobility of two respondents. In other words, the respondents moved to the HEI where they had previously worked, so that previous experience of permanent mobility influenced new permanent mobility within the HE sector.

Among the organizational push determinants, the type of employment was one of the most frequently mentioned (Appendix 16), as respondents who had a fixed-term contract with their source HEI simply had to move elsewhere when such a contract expired. The *work environment and organizational culture* at the source HEI were also the most common reasons for the respondents' permanent move to another HEI. A non-collegial, overly toxic and politicized work environment that did not offer them opportunities for growth and development was the reason they left their source HEIs. Also an organizational culture in which it was acceptable for people who did not contribute in any way to the results of the project or paper to be involved in the work as co-authors, or a poor organizational culture

due to the poor leadership style of some individuals. These situations were also closely related to *organizational support*, another important organizational push determinant, which had a mixed relationship with permanent intra-sector mobility of academics. For many of the respondents, the lack of organizational support in their source HEI was a reason for their departure (negative relationship). They stated that they did not have enough autonomy and freedom to work on the projects they wanted, that they did not have enough flexibility in designing their work schedule, that they did not have the support of a supervisor or that they did not receive concrete financial support for academic conferences and business trips. However, for some respondents, support from their source HEIs in the form of a sabbatical or leave of absence, which allowed them to retire but keep their job on their return, was a crucial determinant in giving them the freedom and security to find out and eventually move away permanently.

The sector and economic determinants that pushed respondents to move permanently to another HEI were mostly also associated with a move to another HE sector, which means moving to another country and therefore involved international mobility. For seven respondents, the *characteristics of the academic labor market* in their source countries were decisive for their permanent move. Employment opportunities for academics were quite limited in these countries, so these respondents had no alternative employment opportunities once their contract with their source HEI had expired. Two respondents stated that the *specific conditions and requirements of the HE sector*, which in some ways require academics to develop different ideas and work with different people on different projects, which is not always possible due to temporary mobility, were the trigger for the desire to move permanently and experience these differences. It can therefore be said that the characteristics of the academic sector itself push people to move both temporarily and permanently between different HEIs.

On the economic level, *government policies and public services* were also key factors for many respondents in moving to a HEI in another country. General dissatisfaction with the political situation in their source country – e.g., policies restricting individual freedom, reduced quality of education for their children, etc. – was also one of the most common economic push determinants for respondents' permanent intra-sector mobility. The *national culture* of the source country was also a decisive factor for three of the respondents to move to a HEI in another country. One of them stated that the country in which she lived was culturally very closed and it was not easy for foreigners to adapt there. In larger cities, you also had to speak the native language, so these circumstances influenced her decision to move away permanently.

Many of the push determinants at the same and different levels of analysis were in a way interrelated, so they generally require examining them in relation to each other. For example, in some respondents' permanent mobility decisions, their orientation to professional and personal development was associated with their ambitious and goal-oriented personal characteristics which pushed them away from their source HEI which did not place much

emphasis on professional achievement. The same orientation to a professional and personal development at an individual level was therefore also related to the work demands in their source HEIs. One of the respondents did not prioritize her professional development at a particular point in time and therefore decided to move from a HEI that placed great emphasis on research and high publication requirements.

Personal *satisfaction with the current job* was related to many different things, such as a lack of *support from the organization*, a poor *work environment and organizational culture*, or increased *work demands* at the source HEI. For example, too many teaching hours and less time for research became tiring and stressful for several respondents, which led them to be dissatisfied and leave their source HEI. For one respondent, the work environment and organizational culture, especially the non-collegial atmosphere in her source HEI, limited her ability to collaborate in that organization, which was also related to the nature of her research field as one of the determinants at the individual level – i.e., a respondent's research field was too specific and she had no colleagues to collaborate with, which pushed her to leave her source HEI.

The *location of the source HEI* was also related to many other determinants. For example, for some respondents, distance from their partner or family members (*family ties*) influenced their permanent intra-sector mobility. In addition, two respondents stated that they changed their source HEI because they had children and lived and worked in a large city that was not the best place to raise them.

Sometimes some *government policies and public services* at the economic level were directly related to the mobility determinants at the organizational level. For example, respondents with academic experience in the UK stated that due to Brexit, UK universities opened up to Eastern markets and attracted a greater number of students, which also led to increased *work demands* that caused them to stop working there. In addition, the *COVID-19 pandemic* combined with rigid and strict COVID-19-related *government policies* as another determinant at the economic level also had some impact on the sector and organizational determinants. For example, some *academic labor markets* were particularly affected by the pandemic as they lost a significant number of international students and their tuition fees, so their universities faced several rounds of financial restructuring that ended in the dismissal of many academic staff. This also negatively reflected the *work environment and organizational culture* in these HEIs and resulted in a significant number of remaining academic staff permanently leaving.

A closer look at the *pull determinants* of the permanent intra-sector mobility of respondents (Figure 16 and Appendix 16) reveals that they are primarily determinants at the organizational level, which is reflected in the highest number of these determinants as well as in their overall occurrence. Among them, the *location of the destination HEI* dominated. This determinant was in turn linked to some of the individual push determinants already mentioned, such as proximity to partner and family members (*family ties*). Many respondents

also mentioned all the *opportunities to develop new knowledge and skills* that the new destination HEI offered, which was also related to the *status of that destination HEI*. Some of them referred more to the accreditations of the organization in this context, while for some respondents it was important that the destination HEI is better ranked than their source HEI or that it had a good reputation. One respondent also said that his choice of destination HEI was not directly influenced by its status, but because of its status he felt that moving there was a good and wise option.

The *support they received from the destination HEI* before they actually moved there also contributed to respondents' mobility decisions. For some respondents, for example, this support was related to lower *work demands*. For others, it was about providing accommodation and assistance with paperwork and administration or financial support when moving from another country. The same support sometimes meant good funding and resources for all academic activities. Or the offer of a modular or hybrid work placement so that respondents do not have to relocate, which is particularly handy if the destination HEI is in a different city or country. One respondent explained that the organizational support for him was to provide a job for his wife, who is also an academic, which played a decisive role in choosing this HEI. However, in terms of work demands, it was assumed that lower work demands at the destination HEI would attract respondents to move there. While this was the case for most, some respondents stated that they found the high demands of research and publishing at the destination HEI exciting and exhilarating, which was the reason for their permanent mobility there.

The better *salary* offered to some respondents by the destination HEI was also decisive factor in their decision to choose this HEI. *Career opportunities* as a determining factor in respondents' mobility decisions did not mean a higher position in the academic rankings, but the general opportunity to build an academic career there and climb the organizational ladder, which provided job security for respondents.

At sector level, the *structural characteristics* of a particular HE sector to which they moved were the most common pull determinant for the academics interviewed. Some were attracted to a HE sector that was more meritocratic and non-hierarchical, meaning that it required diligence but not to the extreme. Some made their mobility decisions dependent on whether the HE sector was public or private. For some, the private HE sector was more attractive as it offered fewer complications with paperwork or general bureaucracy. However, for some respondents, the public HE sector was a better option as it offered security and stability in terms of promotion and progression opportunities.

One respondent mentioned *work-life balance conditions* as a factor that influenced his mobility decisions, but he attributed this determinant to the sector rather than the organizational level, as it determined his choice when deciding between two HE sectors from two different countries. The same applies to *opportunities to develop new knowledge and skills*, which one respondent attributed to the sector rather than a particular organizational

level. He noted that the HE sectors in some countries simply provide many more resources to conduct serious research.

On an economic level, moving to a country that is better organized and has better *public services* was a decisive factor for some of the respondents. One of them stated that he was guided by the rule of law, democracy, freedom of the press and the pension system when deciding between HEIs from different countries. Many of the respondents also mentioned the tax breaks that some countries gave to newcomers in the first few years, which had a positive impact on their paychecks and their decision to move there. The general *characteristics of the labor market* in the destination countries were also attractive to some respondents. One respondent said that he was attracted by the strength of trade unions in a destination country, while another respondent said that she chose a particular country because the labor market there offered many jobs in different sectors. She felt that if something went wrong with her academic job, she would have some security to easily find a job in another sector.

As with push determinants, many mutual relationships can be identified between pull determinants, both at the same and at different levels of analysis. As aforementioned, the *status of destination HEI* was usually connected to the opportunities to *develop new knowledge and skills* that the destination HEI offered. In addition, all these opportunities were related to the intended *research mentor* as well as the *size of the organization*, as respondents had more opportunities to cooperate with and learn from different people in a larger organization or department than in a smaller one. *Salary* in the destination HEI was related to the *job position* as moving to a higher position (e.g., from assistant professor to associate professor) also meant a higher salary.

When examining what keeps the respondents at their source HEI (*anchors*), the individual determinants predominate (Figure 16, Appendix 16). The *social ties* that respondents share with colleagues at their source HEI are often a decisive determinant in their decision not to move to another HEI. When respondents considered permanent intra-sector mobility to another country, *family ties*, as well as *social ties* shared with friends, kept them where they are and discouraged them from moving. Two of the respondents cited *age* as an anchor that kept them where they were. The older they get, the less likely they are to be permanently mobile within the HE sector. Also, owning a home in a particular location keeps the person from moving away, as does being the sole earner/provider in the family, which limits the person's mobility options and makes them stay where they are (*household income share*).

Many of these individual-level anchors are related to the *location of the source HEI* (organizational-level anchor) as well as the *national culture* (economic-level anchor), as respondents were often tied to a specific location. For those who felt patriotic towards their home country or hometown, this was also the reason why they stayed where they are. In terms of sector-level anchors, one respondent mentioned *academic specific conditions* that provide academics with multiple opportunities to be temporarily mobile at other HEIs. Such

an opportunity to work temporarily at other HEIs satisfies the respondent's curiosity and ambition, while at the same time she values her job security at the source HEI, and this is what keeps her where she is.

Looking more closely at the *barriers* to permanent intra-sector mobility of academics, most were at the level of the sector, with the *competitive academic environment* dominating alongside other barriers (Figure 16, Appendix 16). Some HE sectors are highly competitive and have equally high requirements and conditions for entry (e.g., the US HE sector), which is a major barrier for academics from less competitive HE sectors and for those who do not yet have an established academic profile. In terms of *structural characteristics*, which are also somewhat of a barrier, some HE sectors are more hierarchical than others, or simply have tedious bureaucratic and administrative systems that make people reluctant to move there. As *salaries of academics* vary across HE sectors, some sectors may be less attractive to move to.

At an economic level, *government policies* in terms of administration and bureaucracy have often made it difficult to move between countries and have proved to be a barrier to permanent mobility. The general political situation in some countries, which entails an insecure and uncertain life and thus affects the quality of life, was also a kind of barrier to moving. In terms of *national culture*, being a minority and coming from a different cultural heritage was also a kind of barrier for some respondents who wanted to enter foreign academic labor markets. The same applies to *economic development*, as moving from a less developed to a more developed and expensive country is a kind of barrier, especially if the mobile person cannot afford normal life in the new destination.

Looking at the determinants that appeared as *both push and pull determinants* (Figure 16, Appendix 16), it was primarily some “complementary” organizational determinants that pushed respondents away from their source HEI, while the same determinants underpinned their choice of destination HEI and thus persuaded them to move there. For example, if high *work demands* at their source HEI led them leave, they were attracted by the lower work demands at their destination HEI. The same is true for the *type of employment, work environment and organizational culture, organizational support, organizational location, career opportunities* and *salary*. Thus, if they were disappointed with the conditions of these determinants at their source HEI, respondents compensated with better conditions at the destination HEI.

There were also many determinants at the individual level that acted as *both push and anchor determinants*, such as *social ties, family ties, personal characteristics, job satisfaction* and *age*. Thus, these factors were sometimes determinants of respondents' mobility to another HEI (e.g., poor relationships with people in the source HEI), while in some cases they were responsible for keeping them in their source HEI (e.g., good relationships with colleagues in the source HEI) and prevented permanent intra-sector mobility.

Temporary mobility, opportunities to develop new knowledge and skills, and work-life balance conditions appeared at different levels of analysis (individual, organizational and sector) and in different roles (push, pull and barrier). In some cases, for example, the respondents' previous experience with temporary mobility as an individual determinant was decisive for them to move permanently to another HEI. At the same time, they were attracted to a destination HEI that offered them the desired temporary mobility, so the same determinant was at the organizational level.

In addition, there were other determinants that always occurred at the same level but in more than two different roles, usually in combination with push, pull and mobility barriers, such as *work demands, characteristics of the academic labor market and economic development*. Or, in combination with push, pull and anchors, such as *work environment and organizational culture* and *organizational support*. There were also determinants that occurred in all four roles and always at the same level of analysis, such as *organizational location*, which pushed respondents to move away, pulled them towards a specific destination HEI, sometimes prevented them from moving (e.g., if it would be too far away from their family members), or kept them in a source HEI (e.g., because they were close to their family members). The same applies to determinants such as *specific academic conditions and requirements, government policies and public services, and national culture*.

Finally, the results of this qualitative study suggest that there is a kind of hierarchy between the mobility determinants. This means that when respondents mentioned the main reasons for their permanent intra-sector mobility decisions, they very often categorized their answers from the most important to the least important but still significant mobility determinant. So, when analyzing respondents' answers, I paid particular attention to what respondents indicated as the most and least important reason that made them leave their source organization (push determinant) and choose their destination organization (pull determinant), that prevented or hindered their move to desired destination (barrier), or kept them in their source position (anchor). This allowed me to place each determinant in a specific position within its group.

For example, if the respondent indicated that job dissatisfaction at their source HEI was the main reason for their move to another HEI, I would place "job satisfaction" as an individual-level push determinant at position 1. The same procedure was repeated for each respondent's answer. Analyzing the data as a whole, I could have counted the average position for each determinant, simply calculated as the sum of all positions (i.e., all positions each respondent placed that determinant in when naming the most important reasons for permanent intra-sector mobility) divided by the number of times it occurred (i.e., how many times this determinant was named as a reason for respondents' permanent intra-sector mobility). Finally, I was able to create a sort of hierarchical order from the most important to the least important mobility determinants at all four levels within each group: push, pull, anchors and barriers.

The results of the hierarchy of push and pull determinants, anchors and barriers for permanent intra-sector mobility of academics can be seen in Figure 17. Since within the push and pull categories some determinants occurred only 1 or 2 times, these determinants were not shown in the Figure 17. The same principle could have not been applied with barriers and anchors, as most of these determinants occurred only 2 times, so only barriers and anchors that occurred only once were not shown.

Among the *push determinants* that appeared more than twice in the respondents' answers, the *establishment of the research field* as a determinant at the organizational level and the *national culture* as a determinant at the economic level share the first place. This means that respondents repeatedly mentioned the lack of fit between what they are researching and what is being researched at their source HEI, as well as the national culture of a country in which they work, as the most important determinants that pushed them from their source HEI to a HEI in another country. These push determinants are followed by the almost equally important *type of employment* and the *work demands* at their source HEI. Again, this means that respondents had to leave their source HEI when their fixed-term contract there expired or when they were overwhelmed by the teaching hours and/or research and publication demands placed on them by their source HEI.

Although they are the most numerous, individual push determinants seem to be somewhat less important for academics when they decide to leave their source HEI. Among these determinants, however, the *experience of temporary mobility* plays a leading role. This means that the respondents' experience of a temporary mobility at another HEI was one of the most decisive reasons at the individual level that pushed them to work permanently for another destination HEI. Although they were mentioned most frequently as push determinants, the *social ties* that respondents share with others inside and outside their source HEI, as well as *ties with their partner/family*, were slightly less important when all these push determinants were considered hierarchically.

Among the *pull determinants*, i.e., the determinants on the basis of which the respondents decided which destination HEI they would move to permanently, the determinants at organizational level were the most important. Respondents were primarily attracted to the *establishment of the research field* prevalent at the destination HEI, the *work demands* there and the *job position* and *type of employment* they would be offered. To some extent, this mirrors the key push determinants described earlier – i.e., *the establishment of research field*, *work demands*, and *type of employment* at the source HEI were the main drivers for respondents to leave, so they were guided by the better conditions of the same determinants when choosing their destination HEI. The following important aspects of the destination HEI that respondents pay attention to are its *location*, *status*, *support*, *opportunities to develop new knowledge and skills* and the *salary* it offers.

In addition to the main pull determinants that prevail at the organizational level, *structural characteristics* at the sector level were also found to be quite a priority when permanent

Figure 17: Hierarchy between push and pull determinants, anchors and barriers of permanent intra-sector mobility of academics

Push determinant	Position in hierarchy	No. of occur.	Anchor	Position in hierarchy	No. of occur.	Pull determinant	Position in hierarchy	No. of occur.
Establishment of the research field	1	3	National culture	1	2	Establishment of the research field	1.8	13
National culture	1	3	Organizational location	1.5	4	Work demands	2.12	8
Type of employment	1.2	10	Family ties	1.6	7	Job position	2.14	7
Work demands	1.8	9	Social ties	1.7	7	Type of employment	2.25	4
Government policies & public services	2.12	8	Household characteristics	2	2	Structural characteristics	2.3	6
Organizational location	2.14	7	Job satisfaction	2.5	2	Organizational location	2.8	21
Temporary mobility experience	2.2	6	Age	2.5	2	Organizational status	3	16
Organizational support	2.8	9				Organizational support	3.35	14
Orientation to prof. & pers. development	2.9	9				Opportunities to develop new knowledge & skills	3.37	16
Work environment & org. culture	3	10				Salary	3.4	10
Personal skills & competence	3.1	7				National culture	3.5	6
Job satisfaction	3.3	3				Work-life balance conditions	3.6	5
Academic labor market characteristics	3.4	7				Interorganizational ties	4	4
Social ties	3.46	28				Work environment & org. culture	4.2	6
Family ties	3.5	18				Academic labor market characteristics	4.7	3
Academic visibility	3.6	7				Economic development	5.2	4
Personal characteristics	4.9	7				Government policies & public services	5.6	7
						Labor market characteristics	7.3	3

Barrier	Position in hierarchy	No. of occur.
Academic salary	1	2
Government policies & public services	1.2	6
Academic competitive environment	1.4	8
National culture	1.8	5
Structural characteristics	2	3
Academic specifics conditions & requirements	2	2
Establishment of the research field	2.5	2

Notes: Determinants in the same color are from the same level of analysis: light blue are economic determinants; dark blue are sector determinants; green are organizational determinants; peach are individual determinants.

Source: own work

intra-sector mobility also considered moving to the HE sector from another country. As already explained, the choice between the public and private HE sector or between differently structured sectors in terms of meritocracy and hierarchy is very important for the academics interviewed. In addition to the *national culture*, all other relevant economic pull determinants such as *economic development*, *government policies and public services* as well as the *labor market of the destination country* were rated as less important for the choice of the desired HEI.

Although individual determinants predominate when it comes to the question of what keeps respondents at their source HEI and prevents them from switching between HEIs (*anchor*), *national culture* and *organizational location* come first. This can be explained by the fact that both determinants are closely linked to individual anchors such as *family ties*, *social ties* and *household-related characteristics*. This means that having family and friends and a home in a particular place or country keep the person there and prevent them from moving away. *Satisfaction with the current job* and certain *age* are other important factors that keep respondents at their source HEI.

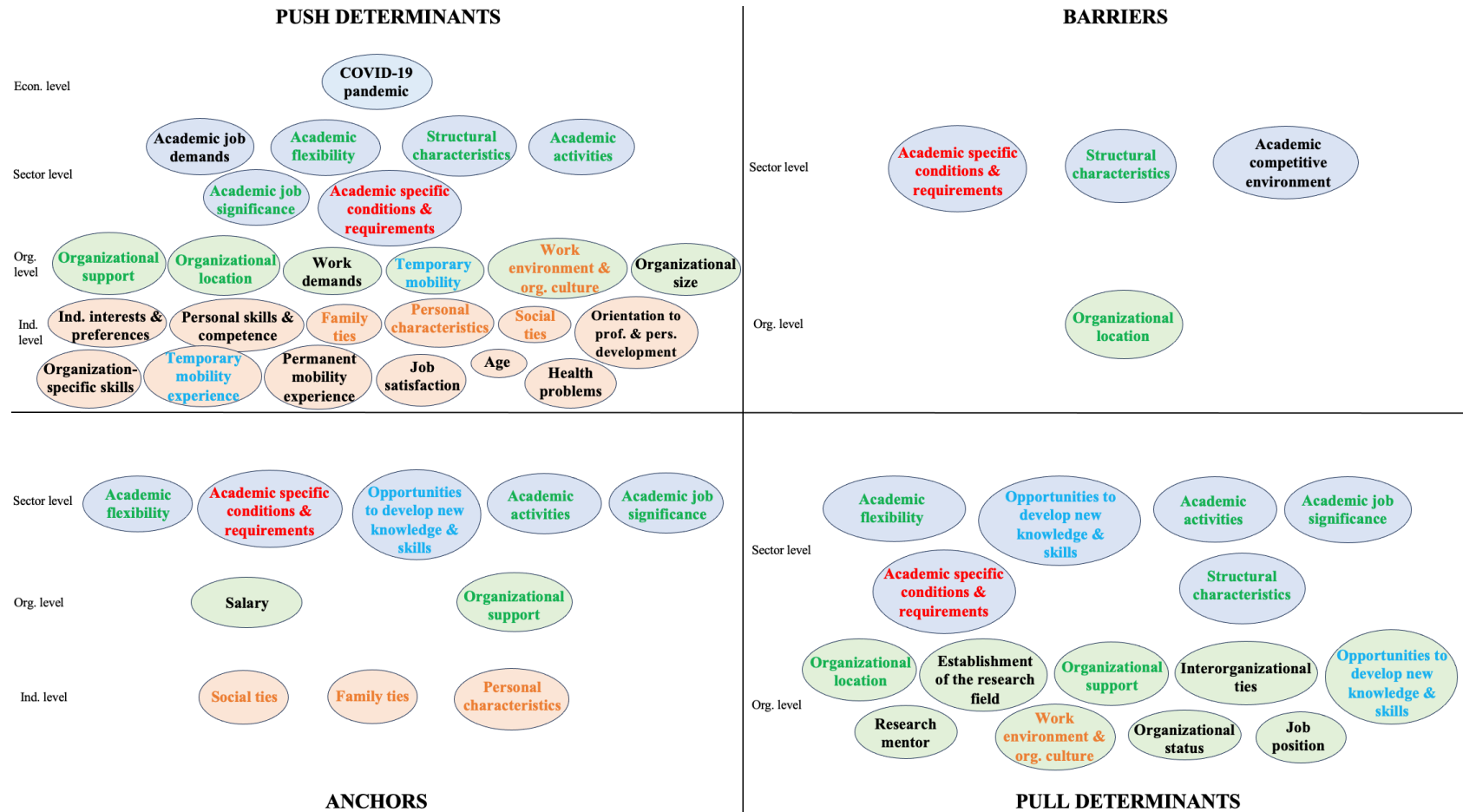
Among the main *barriers* for respondents seeking permanent intra-sector mobility, factors at sector and economic level predominated, meaning that respondents primarily thought about what restricted their mobility to a HEI in another country. In first place, was the *salary* offered by the HE sector in some countries, which prevented them from moving to a HEI in that country. This was followed in second place by some uncertain *government policies and the political situation* in certain destination countries, while the third most important barrier that prevented 8 academics interviewed from mobility was the *competitive nature of the academic environment*. In other words, too much competition in the academic labor market or simply an insufficient academic profile prevented respondents from moving to the desired HEI.

4.3.3.2 Data-based typology of determinants of permanent inter-sector mobility of academics: push and pull determinants, anchors and barriers

Of 27 academics interviewed, 19 have experienced permanent inter-sector mobility or a permanent move between organizations from different sectors. Of these 19 respondents, 16 have moved from a sector in which they previously worked to academia, while 3 have moved from academia to another sector. All push and pull determinants, anchors and barriers that were relevant to these experiences of permanent inter-sector mobility can be seen in Figure 18. The information on the number of occurrences of each determinant for this type of mobility can be found in Appendix 17.

As already mentioned, this inter-sector mobility type includes both academics who moved from another sector to academia (incoming mobility) and those who moved from academia to another sector (outgoing mobility). In sharing their experiences, respondents also mentioned some things that keep them in academia and prevent their mobility to another

Figure 18: Push and pull determinants, achors and barriers of permanent inter-sector mobility of academics



Notes: The determinants colored orange were identified in two groups. The determinants colored green were identified in three groups. The determinants colored red were identified in all four groups. The determinants colored blue were identified in one or more groups at different levels of analysis.

Source: own work

sector (i.e., preventing their outgoing mobility), as well as some obstacles they have experienced when moving from another sector to academia (i.e., barriers to incoming mobility). So, when collecting the data and interviewing the respondents, the focus was exclusively on the HE sector and not on the sectors from which they moved into HE or the sectors to which they moved after leaving the HE sector. The same was done when I coded the collected data and categorized the multilevel determinants into push, pull, anchor and barrier groups. More specifically, all determinants that led respondents to move from HE to another sector were considered push determinants of inter-sector mobility. On the other hand, all determinants that keep them in academia and prevent their mobility to another sector were considered anchors of inter-sector mobility. Again, push determinants and anchors were part of the respondents' source context and were observed at all four levels of analysis (i.e., individual, organizational, sector and economic) or they were generally observed for outgoing mobility of academics – i.e., mobility from academia to another sector. However, since the determinants at the individual level are only observed for the source context, as earlier mentioned, I also considered push determinants at the individual level that were decisive for the respondents' incoming mobility - i.e., mobility from another sector into academia.

As is known from the previous explanations, pull determinants and barriers are part of the destination context of the mobile person and are observed at all levels except the individual level. However, as already mentioned, the aim of the study was not to examine in detail which determinants from other sectors attracted or prevented the respondents from moving there from the HE sector, as this would take the focus away from the HE sector and place it on another sector. For this reason, I focused on incoming mobility or mobility from another sector to the HE sector when observing the pull determinants and barriers of inter-sector mobility. Therefore, all determinants that attracted respondents to move from a sector in which they had previously worked to academia were considered as pull determinants of inter-sector mobility. On the other hand, any determinants that prevented or hindered their mobility from another sector into academia and made the whole process significantly more difficult were considered barriers to inter-sector mobility. In addition, the pull determinants and barriers were again part of the respondents' destination context, but this time the destination context included the HE sector and the respective HEI and country where the respondents started their academic career. Accordingly, the pull determinants and barriers were observed at all levels of analysis except the individual level (i.e., organizational, sector and economic).

Among the individual *push determinants, individual interests and preferences* as well as *personal skills and competence* dominate (Appendix 17). These determinants applied in particular to the respondents who switched to academia from another sector in which they had previously worked. They said that they always knew they wanted to become academics because they wanted to leave their mark and change society. They also wanted to discuss big ideas, take part in intellectual debates and have a space where they could think and speak

freely. Of the skills and competence they possessed that were also critical to entering academia, respondents cited their abilities in research, writing, teamwork, storytelling, organizing, and multitasking. There were situations where the respondent had already taken up doctoral studies at a particular HEI and knew how things worked there and eventually decided to join the same organization to work there as well. The *organization-specific skills* thus enabled the respondent to make a smooth transition from his previous job in industry to his new job in academia.

When mentioning *personal characteristics*, those who came into academia from another sector cited motivation, ambition, determination, commitment, perseverance, adaptability, flexibility and a desire to learn and explore new things as what pushed them into academia. Interestingly, one respondent who left academia cited the same characteristics – being motivated, ambitious and goal-oriented – that pushed her to work in a different sector where career achievements were more visible and much quicker than in academia. Another respondent who left academia mentioned her introverted and shy personality, which caused her problems when speaking in front of a large group of students or at scientific conferences. She said she felt more comfortable in smaller groups or one-on-one conversations, which was often not possible in an academic setting.

All of these characteristics were often linked to the person's *orientation to professional and personal development*. One of the respondents who had left academia felt that she would benefit more professionally from working in a practice or related industry than in an academic environment. On the other hand, those who came into academia from other sectors were driven by the same determinant (i.e., an *orientation to professional and personal development*) as they indicated that they wanted to do something challenging rather than a routine job, especially if they had previous experience in a leadership position in their previous jobs that made them always want to achieve something more. Or they simply wanted to be surrounded and work with the best possible experts in the field and found academia to be a place where they could achieve this goal.

Social and family ties were important push determinants for both respondents who moved into academia and those who left it. For example, some respondents had enrolled for a PhD at a HEI before they started working there, and the social ties they built with their PhD mentor and others at that HEI pushed them towards academia and permanent inter-sector mobility. On the other hand, those who worked in academia and had poor relationships with their supervisor and/or colleagues were sometimes pressured to leave the entire HE sector. The fact that a partner or family member was an academic or strongly supportive of education was also an incentive for some respondents to pursue an academic career. On the other hand, having children made working in academia much more complicated for two of the respondents and pushed them to find alternative work in another sector. When both partners in a relationship prioritize their careers, the relationship can suffer, forcing one of the partners to take a step back and slow down the pace, which was also a trigger for one of the respondents to give up her hectic academic job.

Temporary and permanent mobility experiences were also important for people who moved into academia. For example, one respondent had many temporary mobility experiences between sectors – i.e., she was a member of various committees and societies – which made her attractive to HEIs looking to connect with practice. In addition, one of the respondents was formally employed in another sector but had gained temporary work experience in academia. This experience gave her an idea of what it is like to work in academia and how things generally work there, which ultimately influenced her decision to move permanently into academia and to this particular HEI. For some of the respondents, their previous permanent mobilities in different sectors but in a related field (e.g., HR management) was a key factor in them accepting the job in the same field but in the HE sector.

Looking at the other levels of push determinants for inter-sector mobility, which focused exclusively on what prompted respondents to move from academia to another sector, organizational and sector determinants were almost equally represented. At the organizational level, *organizational support* and *location* were the most important factors. One respondent stated that the lack of support from the governing body, particularly during her doctoral studies, and the lack of affirmation from some senior colleagues was one of the reasons for her leaving academia. Another respondent stated that the lack of support from some colleagues in the academic department, who evaluated her work negatively, affected her feelings about the work overall and remaining in academia. However, one respondent stated that the support from her source HEI, which gave her the opportunity to continue working for them for a small percentage of her time after leaving academia, influenced her decision to move permanently to another sector. This means that organizational support as a push determinant again shows a mixed relationship (both positive and negative), this time with the inter-sector mobility of academics. In other words, both strong and weak support in the the source HEI pushed some of the respondents to leave the HE sector completely.

Of the sector-level determinants, *academic job demands*, defined as too intensive teaching hours and publication requirements, were the main reasons for leaving academia, as the whole environment was too demanding and stressful. *Academic flexibility*, or rather the lack of it, was also mentioned by two respondents. One of them said that this inflexibility was certainly due to the fact that she could not find anyone to cover for her when she had to stay at home when her children were sick. She also explained that managing her own working hours was not the best strategy as it made her feel like she was constantly working, which also had a negative impact on her work-life balance. Another respondent said that she felt that the academic environment sometimes limited her ability to innovate, which also put her off.

Two of the respondents referred to the *structural characteristics* of the HE sector that pushed them away from it. This was mainly reflected in the fact that HEIs tend to be large organizations that are bureaucratically structured, with many rigid procedures and strict rules that can restrict people in certain ways. One of the respondents also commented on the *specifics of academic activities*, i.e., the teaching and research activities, which she felt did

not suit her. So it was not about the demands of the job per se, but its specific characteristics, as she explained that in teaching you are constantly exposed to the public/students in some form, whereas in research you have to constantly dig out and examine different papers, which is quite exhausting.

One respondent referred to *the significance of the academic job*, or rather the lack of it, as she often felt that what she does in her academic work does not contribute to practice or have a meaningful impact on society, which made her think about leaving the academic workplace. For one respondent, the *academic conditions and requirements for career advancement* or being promoted too slowly was something that drove her into another sector where such things happen much faster.

As with the description of temporary mobilities and permanent intra-sector mobility, some push determinants for leaving academia were also related. For example, respondents' *personal satisfaction* with their academic job was related to the *specific activities and demands of academic job*, the *conditions and requirements for career advancement*, and *academic job (in)flexibility*. Sometimes personal satisfaction was also related to the lack of *organizational support* and the poor *work environment and organizational culture* of the source HEI. All of these determinants were also related in some way to the only push determinant found at the economic level – the *COVID-19 pandemic*. During the lockdown, every single aspect of academic job became more difficult and complicated for many of the respondents, as they were under great pressure to keep up with the demands of their academic work on the one hand and their family life on the other. In addition, the lack of *organizational support*, which was a decisive factor for some respondents to leave the academic career, was also related to the *temporary mobility options* at the organizational level. More specifically, if a HEI supported its mobile academics and offered them an opportunity to work there for a certain percentage, even if the person leaves academia completely, such a temporary mobility option prompted them to make a permanent move and leave the HE sector while having the opportunity to stay in contact with the academic environment.

Among the *pull determinants* that prompted respondents to move from another sector to academia, respondents cited many different organizational determinants related to the exact HEI to which they were moving. They were mainly attracted by the *location* of a HEI. Or they were interested in a particular *research field* or topic, sometimes related to their previous work experience in another sector, and when this was offered to them by the HEI, they automatically felt attracted to work there and change their previous sector. One respondent also stated that he was not primarily interested in academic job, but liked a research project he was part of, which eventually led him to accept the job in the HE sector. The *support* they received from their supervisor or head of department at the HEI they were considering moving to was also a key factor in respondents' permanent inter-sector mobility.

Although the total number of mentioned pull determinants at sector level is lower, they were most frequently cited as the reason why respondents chose the HE sector (Appendix 17).

Among them, *academic flexibility* was mentioned in most cases as something that attracted respondents to the HE sector. They described it as freedom and autonomy to think critically and question things. One respondent also compared working in the HE sector to being an entrepreneur without entrepreneurial risk, giving her the opportunity to be independent as entrepreneurs normally do, and without the full risk they normally have to take. Flexibility in organizing their own work schedule, which allows them to have more time for their private life, also played a role for respondents in choosing the HE sector. The specific *academic activities* or the nature of teaching and research in the HE sector were also an incentive for respondents to move there, as they were keen to pass on their knowledge to students and further their own education, which was linked to all the *opportunities to develop new knowledge and skills* that the academic environment offers.

If we look at the push and pull determinants of the permanent inter-sector mobility of respondents together, we can see the connections between them. This is particularly true for the individual determinants that pushed respondents to move into academia and the sector determinants that pulled them to that specific sector or the organizational determinants that pulled them to a particular HEI. For example, the *individual interests and preferences* that the majority of respondents cited as important determinants at an individual level were related to the specific *academic activities*. The desire to discuss big ideas, research or teach and be less concerned with typical administrative tasks was something that could be done specifically in the HE sector. The *orientation to professional and personal development* that led them to choose academia was related to the fruitful *opportunities to develop new knowledge and skills* that the HE sector offers. When a respondent mentioned these opportunities in relation to their chosen HEI, this determinant was sometimes placed at an organizational rather than sector level. Furthermore, in some cases these opportunities were related to the *research mentor*, as some respondents indicated that they wanted to move into academia because of a particular person they were supervised by, learned from and worked with. For some people having kids and strong *family ties*, moving into academia was also a sensible decision, as it gives them the *flexibility* to arrange their own working hours, which may have a positive impact on their work-life balance.

Of all the *anchors* that kept respondents in academia and to some extent prevented their permanent mobility to another sector, sector determinants dominated. Most respondents cited *academic flexibility* as a reason for remaining in academia. As mentioned earlier, this is the same determinant that pulled most respondents from another sector into academia and, accordingly, keeps them there. Some respondents saw it as flexibility that allowed them to complete their PhD studies and work at the same time, which would not have been possible or easy in another sector. Some mentioned the flexibility in arranging their work schedule or choosing their own projects and the freedom to be creative in their research and teaching. Some mentioned that they stayed in the HE sector despite the demands of the academic sector due to the specific *activities of this job* or the teaching and research areas. Regarding the *specific conditions for career advancement* in this sector, one respondent stated that she

appreciates them as they encourage her in a way to always move up a position in the hierarchy. Another respondent referred to the same specific conditions by talking about the temporary intra- and inter-sector mobilities that the HE sector encourages and enables, which offers her great freedom to explore how things work in other places while enjoying the stability and security of her original academic position that keeps her where she is. Of all the individual determinants, *social ties* were cited most frequently, as the connections respondents share with their colleagues at their HEIs keep them in academia, as was also the case when looking at anchors for permanent intra-sector mobility.

Of the *barriers* encountered when entering the HE sector, only a few were mentioned, most of them at the sector level. For one respondent, the *academic conditions and requirements for employment* were a barrier, as she had to have a certain grade point average to be employed in the HE sector. As she did not meet this criterion at a certain point, she had to write a new thesis in order to achieve better grades and fulfill the condition. For another respondent, it was the *structural characteristics* of the HE sector that prevented her from entering academia. She stated that the structure of the HE sector is generally too hierarchical and you cannot usually speak directly to someone in charge, but have to go to the next person in the chain of command. This rather uptight and less flat structure, where you constantly have to prove yourself to be heard or seen, was a kind of barrier for her. Finally, one respondent commented that the skills and knowledge he had gained from his rich work experience in the field and in other sectors before entering academia were actually quite intimidating for the few academics that were working at a particular HEI. Therefore, such a highly *competitive academic atmosphere* acted as a kind of barrier and made his mobility into academia much more difficult.

It is important to note that there were some determinants of inter-sector mobility of academics that appeared in different groups. For example, many sector-level determinants appeared simultaneously as push, pull and anchors for respondents' permanent inter-sector mobility. This means that the same HE sector characteristic could have pushed someone from that sector to another sector, but also caused a respondent to move from another sector to the HE sector and eventually kept them there, while preventing further movement between sectors. For example, one respondent was pushed out of the HE sector because she did not find it particularly *flexible*, so these "flexible working hours" usually meant that she worked all day. This inflexibility was also reflected in her inability to find a replacement when needed. Other respondents saw the flexibility of the HE sector in the freedoms it offers that do not exist in other sectors. This was the reason why they moved into academia from another sector (pull determinant) and what also keeps them in academia (anchor). The same applies to certain *academic activities*. For one respondent, the teaching and research nature of academic activity was the decisive factor in leaving academia (push determinant), while for many others this was precisely the reason why they moved into and stayed in academia (pull determinant and anchor). For one of the respondents, the fact that she was unable to pursue meaningful work in academia where she could make a tangible contribution to

practice and wider society (*significance of academic job*) was the key reason for leaving (push determinant). For other respondents, however, the social perception of an academic job as prestigious and respected was a sign of its significance, and was the reason why they moved from another sector to academia (pull determinant). In addition, making a significant contribution to the field in which they research and bridging the gap between theory and practice is what increases the significance of their academic job and keeps some respondents in the HE sector (anchor).

On the other hand, *structural characteristics* as a further sector determinant simultaneously acted as a push, pull and barrier to the permanent inter-sector mobility of academics. For example, an overly bureaucratic structure of the HE sector is something that pushes academics out of this sector or prevents them from moving into it (push determinant and barrier). However, some structural features that characterize the HE sector were what attracted some academics to enter it (pull determinant). Some of them explained that the HE sector can be public or privatized, but it is not owned by one person like many companies in other sectors where you have to meet certain expectations.

Academic conditions and requirements for employment and career advancement were the only determinant that appeared in all four groups (push, pull, anchor, and barrier) at sector level. A promotion system that was too slow was usually what push academics out of the sector, while specific conditions in the form of a certain grade point average that a person had to have in order to be employed there acted as a barrier to someone wanting to enter the sector. In addition, all the opportunities for temporary mobility that the HE sector offers and sometimes requires in order to progress to higher academic positions was a key factor in encouraging people to move into and eventually stay in academia (pull determinant and anchor).

As with the determinants of permanent intra-sector mobility, it was also possible to create a kind of hierarchy between the determinants of respondents' permanent inter-sector mobility, which can be seen in Figure 19. Since the determinants of inter-sector mobility occurred less frequently within the push and pull groups than in the same groups for intra-sector mobility, only push and pull determinants that occurred only once were not shown in the figure. The same principle could not be applied to anchors and barriers, as most of them occurred only once or twice. Therefore, all anchors and barriers to permanent inter-sector mobility mentioned by respondents during the interviews were shown in figure.

Among the push determinants for the permanent inter-sector mobility of academics, *individual interests and preferences* as well as *experience with permanent mobility* occupy the first two places. These determinants at the individual level are the most important push determinants for the mobility of respondents from another sector into the academia. They are followed by another individual determinant – *family ties*. However, this determinant was not only important for those who moved into academia, but also for those who moved from there to another sector. Thus, family commitments were the most important reason for

Figure 19: Hierarchy between push and pull determinants, achors and barriers of permanent inter-sector mobility of academics

Push determinant	Position in hierarchy	No. of occur.
Individual interests & preferences	1.4	11
Permanent mobility experience	1.5	2
Family ties	2	9
Academic job demands	2.3	4
Personal skills & competence	3	11
Organizational location	3.5	2
Academic flexibility	3.5	2
Orientation to professional & personal development	3.6	5
Personal characteristics	4.1	8
Work demands	4.5	2
Temporary mobility experience	5	2
Structural characteristics	5	2
Organization-specific skills	5	3
Social ties	5.3	7
Organizational support	6	3

Anchor	Position in hierarchy	No. of occur.
Organizational support	1	1
Academic specifics conditions & requirements	1	2
Academic activities	1.5	2
Opportunities to develop new knowledge & skills	1.5	2
Academic job significance	2	1
Academic flexibility	2.3	4
Social ties	2.7	3
Salary	3	1
Personal characteristics	5	1
Family ties	7	1

Barrier	Position in hierarchy	No. of occur.
Organizational location	1	1
Structural characteristics	1	1
Academic specific conditions & requirements	1	1
Academic competitive environment	2	1

Pull determinant	Position in hierarchy	No. of occur.
Academic activities	1.6	7
Academic flexibility	1.7	11
Opportunities to develop new knowledge & skills	2.3	7
Establishment of the research field	2.5	4
Academic job significance	2.5	2
Academic specific conditions & requirements	2.5	2
Organizational status	2.7	3
Organizational location	3.6	5
Organizational support	3.7	3
Interorganizational ties	5	2

Notes: Determinants in the same color are from the same level of analysis: light blue are economic determinants; dark blue are sector determinants; green are organizational determinants; peach are individual determinants.

Source: own work

interviewees to leave academia, as they could no longer stand to oscillate between the demands of family and academic life. This is also confirmed by the next important determinant on the list – the *demands of the academic job*. Looking at the pull determinants that appeared more than once in the respondents' answers, the most important ones are those at the sector level, led by the *academic activities*, *academic flexibility* and *opportunities to develop new knowledge and skills*, which are more at the sector level than at the organizational level. This means that the motivation of academics to move from another sector to academia lies primarily in the specificity of academic job (i.e., the teaching and research aspects), followed by the flexibility and freedom that this sector offers, as well as the fruitful opportunities to expand their knowledge and develop their skills. Among the determinants at the organizational level, the *establishment of the research field* ranks first. This means that the respondents primarily wanted to move to a HEI that offered them the opportunity to work on the topic/project in the field in which they were primarily interested. This was particularly true for respondents who had already gained concrete experience in a specific field in the relevant sector and were interested in expanding their practical knowledge with more theoretical knowledge.

In addition to *organizational support* as a determinant at the organizational level, respondents are retained in the academic sector (anchors) primarily due to determinants at sector level. In first place are the *specific conditions and requirements* of the academic sector and basically all the opportunities for temporary mobility that this sector offers. This is followed by the specific *academic activities*, fruitful *academic opportunities*, the *significance of academic job* and its *flexibility*. In other words, the opportunity to move within the HE sector and to another sector temporarily, to move up the academic career ladder, to connect with practitioners, to teach students and research different topics that interest them the most, as well as to have a prestigious career and to constantly learn new things and interact and collaborate with different experts in the field keeps respondents in the HE sector. Among the barriers to entering the academic world, several factors are of equal importance: the *location of the HEI*, *structural characteristics* and *academic specific conditions and requirements for employment*.

4.4 Discussion and conclusion

The main contribution of the qualitative study conducted in this chapter is that it has adapted the theory-based typology of multilevel determinants of mobility (i.e., economic, organizational and individual), developed in the Chapter 3 through a review of the literature in the field of employee mobility, to the HE sector as a representative of a knowledge-intensive sector. This resulted in a new data-based typology of the multilevel mobility determinants of academics, which provided a deeper understanding of what influences the movements of academics between different organizations within the HE sector as well as from another sector to academia and vice versa. As four different types of mobility were

introduced, this data-based typology was developed considering each of them: temporary intra- and inter-sector mobility, and permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility.

All of these types of mobility were identified as particularly significant for the HE sector, which was a major reason for the conduct of research in this sector. More specifically, mobility of academics within the HE sector (intra-sector mobility) is seen as one of the most important strategies for any HEI to build networks with other HEIs and increase its productivity in order to remain competitive and sustainable. It is also seen as a great opportunity for academics to acquire new knowledge, specific know-how and practical skills that they need in their daily academic job. The mobility of academics between the HE sector and other sectors and industries (inter-sector mobility) is seen as the origin of knowledge transfer between academic and non-academic sectors and is also a basis for building strong links between academia and practice, which is one of the strategic objectives of academia and the basis for the dissemination of scientific knowledge. In addition, existing studies show that more than 30% of academics are involved in some form of temporary mobility (De Moortel et al., 2022) and that more and more people are moving permanently from the private sector to academia and vice versa (Higher Education Statistics Agency, 2023; Velez Ospina & Rodriguez, 2023). Therefore, when examining the permanent inter-sector mobility of academics in this study, both determinants influencing incoming mobility or movements from other sectors to academia and determinants of outgoing mobility or movements from academia to other sectors were observed.

By conducting 27 semi-structured in-depth interviews with academics in the field of economics and business who have already experienced at least one of the four types of interorganizational mobility, this study provided empirical evidence that interorganizational mobility is indeed a multilevel phenomenon. Furthermore, due to the specific characteristics of the HE sector studied, the sector level, which in previous studies was usually considered a narrower part of the economic level, was introduced as a separate level, in addition to the individual, organizational and economic levels. This further enriched the data-based typology of mobility determinants of academics and further emphasized the specific characteristics of the HE sector under study.

However, the important finding from this study was also that these multilevel determinants can additionally be categorized into four different groups that represent the source and destination context of mobile employees. That is, all determinants at all four levels (i.e., individual, organizational, sector, and economic) that in any way caused respondents to leave their source context (i.e., source organization, sector, or country) were categorized as push determinants, while all determinants at all levels except the individual level that attracted respondents from their new destination context (i.e., destination organization, sector, or country) were categorized as pull determinants. Furthermore, determinants from the source context at all four levels that made academics stay where they are and prevented their mobility were categorized as anchors, while determinants from the destination context at all levels except the individual level that restricted or hindered their mobility even though they

had the desire to move were categorized as barriers. The naming of these groups of determinants was borrowed from the migration literature, so the results of this study provide a link between the migration and interorganizational mobility literature. Furthermore, the importance of the source and destination contexts highlights the differences between the constructs of interorganizational mobility and employee turnover, as employee turnover is only concerned with the source context without considering what has a positive or negative influence on the employee's departure from the destination context.

The migration literature shows that push and pull determinants sometimes act as opposite directions of the same continuum, which was also demonstrated in this study. Thus, if the lack (or excess) of one determinant caused respondents to leave an organization, the excess (or lack) of the same determinant attracted them from another organization. This was the case for many organizational determinants of permanent intra-sector mobility, such as *work demands, type of employment, work environment and organizational culture, organizational support, career opportunities, salary, organizational location, and establishment of the research field*. Therefore, if academics were not satisfied with the conditions of these determinants at their source HEI, they looked for better conditions at the new destination HEI.

However, in terms of *organizational support* and *work demands* of all the determinants mentioned, this study showed opposite results to those found in the existing literature. The literature found that only a low level of *organizational support* has an impact on employees' mobility from the source organization (Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Arthur et al., 2005; Gambardella et al., 2009; Rahman, 2012; Wynen et al., 2013; Culié et al., 2014; James, 2014; Ceccagno, 2015; Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016; Ali et al., 2018). However, this study has shown that both low and high levels of organizational support can push academics to move from their source HEI to another HEI. In the case of temporary mobility, this is explained by the fact that the support academics receive from their source HEI is unavoidable in order to work temporarily at another HEI. In the case of permanent mobility, this is explained by the fact that the source HEI supports the academics and gives them options of unpaid sabbaticals with the purpose to create strategic partnership with destination organizations, which for some respondents was a "push" to explore things and move away permanently.

The literature has found that high *work demands* have a positive effect on employees moving from their source organization (Caplan et al., 1975; Kirmeyer & Dougherty, 1988; Moore, 2000; Boyd et al., 2011; Hoonakker et al., 2013). The same was also proven with this study, as high work demands acted as push determinants for the permanent intra-sector mobility of academics interviewed. Accordingly, it was also logical to assume that the academics interviewed would be attracted to lower work demands at the destination HEI. However, both low and high work demands at the destination HEI proved to be pull determinants for their mobility. In other words, some of the respondents found the high research and publication requirements at the destination HEI exciting and thrilling, which "pulled" them to move there.

In the migration literature, however, push and pull determinants sometimes operate in completely separate continua, as was also evidenced by the results of this study. In other words, the determinants that drove academics to leave their source organization, sector or country were sometimes unrelated to the determinants that attracted them to move to a destination organization, sector or country. For example, none of the respondents indicated that the *opportunities to develop new knowledge and skills* in their source HEI, the *interorganizational ties*, the *status, size and structure* of their source HEI, the *work-life balance conditions* or the *research mentor* in their source HEI were the reason for their temporary or permanent mobility to another HEI. The *status of their source HE sector* (defined as a measure of the best European or global schools/faculties that a country's HE sector hosts) or its *structural characteristics* (e.g., whether it is a public or private sector) were also not mentioned as reasons for a temporary or permanent move to HE sector of another country. However, all of these determinants were cited as important in their choice of HEI and HE sector of a country to which they wanted to move temporarily or permanently after leaving their source HEI and HE sector.

In addition to the aforementioned determinants that appeared as both push and pull determinants, the results of the study also showed some determinants that appeared as both push determinants and anchors, which is also consistent with the migration literature. This usually meant that high or low values of a determinant pushed respondents out of their source context, while the opposite values of the same determinant kept them there (anchors). The same logic was also found for determinants that acted simultaneously as pull determinants and barriers – i.e., while high or low values of a determinant from the destination context “pulled” respondents to move there, the opposite values of the same determinant hindered or prevented their mobility to the same destination.

However, the results of this study also showed some exceptions to these rules. For example, several individual determinants appeared only as push determinants of academics' intra- and inter-sector mobility. These were *orientation to professional and personal development*, *personal skills and competence*, *previous permanent mobility experience*, *educational background*, *individual interests and preferences*, *nature of research field* and *academic visibility*. In other words, all these individual determinants only drove people out of their source organizations, and did not keep them there and prevented their mobility. The same was true for the *COVID-19 pandemic* as this was the only economic determinant that was found to be only push determinant of academics' mobility. However, there were also some individual determinants that only acted as anchors. *Household characteristics* were among these determinants, as respondents who owned a house in a particular location or earned a larger share of their household income were “anchored” by these things and did not move away. *Organization-specific skills* were also one of the anchors, as were *comfort zone* and *established career*, implying that these determinants keep academics in their current position and prevent their mobility to another organization.

Interestingly, two determinants appeared simultaneously as push determinants and barriers. One of them was *academic salary*. For one of the respondents, the insufficient academic salaries in his country pushed him to accept temporary positions in organizations from related sectors. Another respondent mentioned that the lower salary offered by some HE sectors, as salary levels differ between HE sectors in different countries, prevented her mobility to that HE sector. Another determinant that acted as both a push determinant and a barrier is the *competitive academic environment*. The HE sector in a country where one of the respondents lives offers mainly fixed-term contracts and part-time work, which makes the whole environment very competitive as many people are constantly “fighting” for the same jobs, which pushes them to always have an alternative, which they achieve through temporary work at different HEIs. For respondents who do not have an established academic profile and high academic visibility, the highly competitive academic environment is also a barrier, as they are unable to meet the higher standards of some desired HE sectors.

The existing migration literature does not emphasize that some determinants can occur simultaneously in more than two groups, but this was proven by the results of this study. Therefore, a determinant of academics’ mobility that acts as a push determinant and an anchor sometimes also acts as a pull determinant. The difference lies only in the quantity or value of such a determinant. For example, a poor *work environment* and a low *organizational culture* will push academics to leave their source organization, while the opposite – namely a good work environment and a high organizational culture – will keep them in their source organization (anchor). When choosing the destination organization, academics are also attracted by a good environment and a high organizational culture (pull determinant). Similarly, some determinants act simultaneously as push, pull and barriers, again with differences in values or specific characteristics. For example, the *academic labor market* that has limited academic employment opportunities pushes respondents to leave it. Consequently, they opt for the HE sector of another country, that offers them a job that they did not have in their source academic labor market (pull determinant). However, there was also a situation where the respondent wanted to move to the HE sector of a particular country but could not do so due to the limited academic labor market in that country, so the same determinant acted also as a barrier.

In addition, some determinants occur simultaneously in all four groups (i.e., as push and pull determinants, anchors and barriers). Again, the differences are about the values or characteristics of the same determinant in the different groups. One of these determinants is, for example, the *specific academic conditions and requirements*. The specific requirements for career advancement drive academics to develop ideas and work with different people on different projects, which pushes them to move around. The specific conditions of this sector, that allow academics to temporarily move to other organizations while maintaining job security in their source organization, are what keeps them working in the HE sector (anchors). Further, when choosing a destination HEI, they usually opt for a HE sector that offers more flexible career opportunities and where it is more secure to get a permanent job

(pull determinant). On the other hand, some specific requirements that some HE sectors impose on employees in order to employ them are a barrier to moving there.

Another valuable contribution of this study is that it has uncovered mobility determinants that operate simultaneously at different levels. For example, *opportunities to develop new knowledge and skills* as a pull determinant were sometimes located at the organizational level because they were relevant to a particular HEI, while sometimes they were more relevant to the HE sector as a whole and were therefore located at the sector level. The same applies to *work-life balance conditions*, as this pull determinant was also sometimes related to a specific HEI (organizational level) and sometimes to a specific HE sector of a country (sector level). *Job position* was located as a push determinant at the individual level, while the same determinant was located as a pull determinant at the organizational level.

The most interesting of these determinants, however, is *temporary mobility*. If respondents' previous experience with this type of mobility pushed them to their new temporary or permanent mobility, this determinant was placed at the individual level. If they chose a destination organization that offered them the opportunity to temporarily move to another organization, this determinant was classified as a pull determinant at the organizational level. If they chose the HE sector as a whole because it encourages and promotes temporary movements between organizations and offers academics the opportunity to gain experience of how things work elsewhere while maintaining their secure and stable position in the source organization, this determinant was assigned to the academic-specific conditions and requirements that lie at the sector level.

The findings of this study also contribute to the literature on higher education, as they provide concrete insights into the characteristics and features of the HE sector as a whole, as well as its institutions, that attract people to move there from other sectors. At the level of the sector, these characteristics are *academic flexibility*, the *specifics of teaching and research activities*, the *fertile opportunities for knowledge and skills development*, the *significance of the academic job* and the opportunities it offers in terms of *temporary mobility* to other HEIs and organizations from related sectors and industries. These determinants are also what keep people in academia and prevent their mobility to other sectors (anchors). On the other hand, the lack of these conditions push people to leave academia and move to another sector. On the organizational level, HEIs attract people to move to them and enter the HE sector by offering *diverse topics in as many research fields* as possible, by the *significance of their rankings and visibility*, by the *connections they have with other organizations within and outside the HE sector*, and by the *attractiveness of their location*. On the other hand, an overly bureaucratic and pyramidal structure, as well as strict and rigid rules and procedures (*structural characteristics*), which also apply to the requirements that a person must meet to be employed in the HE sector (*academic specific conditions and requirements*), prevent mobilities from other sectors into academia.

Finally, the results of this study also provided empirical evidence that, in addition to the described relationships between different determinants and types of interorganizational mobility, relationships between determinants at the same and at different levels of analysis also exist. They also revealed a certain hierarchy between these determinants, meaning that some determinants, although significant, are less important than others in influencing certain types of mobility. For example, the most important push determinants for respondents who wanted to move to another HEI were those related to *research field*, *type of employment* and *work demands* at their source HEI. In addition, there were some economic-level determinants, such as *national culture*, *government policies and public services*, which led respondents to switch mainly between HEIs from different countries. As expected, determinants at the organizational level, such as the *establishment of the research field*, *work demands*, *job position* and *type of employment*, were the main pull determinants of respondents' permanent intra-sector mobility. When deciding to leave the HE sector permanently, respondents were primarily guided by their *family ties* and the *demands of academic job*. When deciding to move from another sector to academia, they were guided almost equally by specific sector determinants and their *personal interests and preferences*.

5 INTERPLAY OF MULTILEVEL DETERMINANTS AND TYPES OF INTERORGANIZATIONAL MOBILITY IN HIGHER EDUCATION

The qualitative study from the previous chapter served to adapt the theory-based typology of mobility determinants from Chapter 3 to the HE sector, taking into account two types of temporary and two types of permanent interorganizational mobility. This chapter serves to build on these findings by delving deeper into the field of permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility types. After the introductory subchapter 5.1, subchapter 5.2. and its subsections (5.2.1 etc.) present the theoretical background on which hypotheses for two conceptual models are developed: the model of permanent intra-sector mobility of academics and the model of permanent inter-sector mobility of academics. The focus was only placed on the types of permanent mobility, as these are generally perceived as undesirable and almost every source organization would like to prevent them and the associated loss of its employees. In both models, the intended permanent mobility of academics to another HEI and the intended permanent mobility to another sector were used as dependent variables instead of the actual mobility experiences in the past. The following subchapter 5.3 and its subsections (5.3.1 etc.) explain the methodology of the quantitative study conducted in this chapter. It includes details about the sample and data collection, the design of the questionnaire (measures used and pilot test) and the methods of data analysis – structural equation modeling (SEM) with the associated confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and various validity and reliability tests. The next subchapter 5.4 presents the results of the aforementioned data analysis methods in this quantitative study, divided into measurement and structural models of both permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility. The final subchapter 5.5 discusses the results of this study in the context of the findings from the existing literature and the qualitative study from the previous chapter.

5.1 Introduction

The results of the systematic literature review from Chapter 3 have shown that the determinants of interorganizational employee mobility should be examined at different levels of analysis (economic, organizational and individual), so that a multilevel classification of these determinants has been proposed. They also showed that there are four different types of interorganizational mobility – i.e., permanent and temporary, within a sector and between sectors. Further findings from the qualitative exploratory study in Chapter 4 underlined the importance of all these types of mobility in the HE sector, which led to the theory-based typology of determinants created in Chapter 3 being adapted to the interorganizational mobility of academics. This resulted in a new data-based typology of determinants of all four types of interorganizational mobility of academics, highlighting that in addition to the individual, organizational and broader economic levels, the sector level should also be introduced as a separate level of analysis due to many specificities of the HE

sector. Furthermore, the qualitative exploratory study (Chapter 4) revealed that the multilevel determinants of mobility should additionally be divided into four groups. The logic for this was borrowed from the migration literature. Two newly introduced groups of determinants therefore represented determinants from the source context of mobile academics (push determinants and anchors), while the other two groups of determinants represented determinants from the destination context of mobile academics (pull determinants and barriers), which further illustrates the complexity of the phenomenon under investigation. Another valuable finding of this qualitative study was the fact that a certain type of temporary mobility (intra- and inter-sector) can also determine future permanent mobility within the HE sector as well as from the HE sector to another sector and vice versa, and that the same permanent movements (intra- and inter-sector) can influence future permanent mobility (intra- and inter-sector).

Accordingly, this chapter serves to build on the findings of the previous chapters, i.e., it additionally verifies the data-based typology of determinants of academics' mobility from Chapter 4 by conducting a quantitative study in the HE sector. As permanent interorganizational mobility is more in the focus of researchers, as these types of mobility have stronger and longer-term effects on both the source and destination organizations (Wezel et al., 2006; Donnelly, 2009; Corredoira & Rosenkopf 2010; Ahn & Ok, 2019; J. J. Lee, 2020; Tzabbar & Cirillo, 2020), and sometimes on entire sectors (Saxeian, 1996; Boschma et al., 2014; Wynen et al., 2013; Wendel, 2020), this chapter also delves deeper into the field of permanent moves and focuses exclusively on these two types of interorganizational mobility of academics (i.e., permanent intra- and permanent inter-sector mobility). In addition, this chapter also serves to clarify the complex relationship between temporary and permanent types of mobility, thus it addresses the following research question (RQ2): *What is the role of temporary and permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility and other multilevel mobility determinants in explaining future permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility in higher education?*

Answering the posed question by conducting a quantitative study is important because such a study involves a larger number of participants and therefore provides a deeper and more concrete understanding of the relationships between the multilevel determinants and the types of permanent mobility in the HE sector. Furthermore, the answer to the posed question provides empirical evidence of whether academics' previous temporary and permanent mobility experiences within and between sectors play an important role in explaining their future permanent movements. In other words, it provides additional empirical evidence for temporary and permanent mobility as two individual determinants of academics' future permanent mobility. However, the data-based typology of mobility determinants from Chapter 4 revealed that temporary mobility can also be seen as a sector-level determinant due to the specific conditions of the HE sector that promote and encourage temporary mobility of academics to other HEIs as well as organizations from related sectors and industries. Thus, by answering the posed question, this study also provides empirical

evidence as to whether the HE sector itself, by encouraging the temporary mobility of its academics to other organizations, plays an important role in their future permanent movements and, if so, whether it prevents or facilitates these permanent moves.

To conduct a quantitative study, I used an online questionnaire to investigate the intentions of academics to move permanently to another HEI or to an organization in a different sector. The two dependent variables on which this quantitative study focuses are therefore academics' permanent intra-sector mobility intention and their permanent inter-sector mobility intention. In other words, the dependent variables in this study are not the previous mobility experiences of academics, but their intention to move within the HE sector (intra-sector) and outside the sector (inter-sector) in the future. This is usually done when studying mobility or similar movements (e.g., migration), as intention itself usually precedes and is the best predictor of actual movements and also allows for a quantitative study to be conducted with a larger number of participants (Mobley et al., 1979; Griffeth et al., 2000; Van Breukelen et al., 2004; Wynen et al., 2013). It is also important to emphasize here that I also asked the academics about their previous experiences with temporary and permanent mobility, but these experiences were only used as independent variables for their intended future permanent moves.

As mentioned above, the results of the qualitative study (Chapter 4) revealed four different groups of mobility determinants (i.e., push and pull determinants, anchors and barriers) at four levels of analysis (i.e., individual, organizational, sector and economic). However, the quantitative study developed in this chapter focuses exclusively on 2 groups of determinants from the source context of mobile academics – push determinants and anchors – and on three levels of analysis – individual, organizational and sector. In other words, in examining academics' main reasons for potential permanent mobility to another HEI or sector, I focused only on their personal aspects and aspects of their current HEIs and HE sector (source context) that were considered in the qualitative study (Chapter 4) as determinants of academics being “pushed” out of or remaining “anchored” in their source context. The main reason for this approach and limiting the study to push determinants and anchors is that academics' intentions regarding future mobility are used as dependent variables instead of using their actual past mobility experiences. Therefore, for independent variables I had to ask academics about the actual environment in which they currently work (source organization and sector), as well as about the specific aspects of their personal lives (individual level). To also investigate pull determinants and barriers, I would have needed to ask the academics about their imagined future organization or sector, and hypothetical questioning of both the independent and dependent variables would not be in line with the rigorous scientific methodological approach (Hassan et al., 2016; Pinna, 2020; Nguyen et al., 2022; Viglia et al., 2024).

The reason for omitting the push determinants and anchors at the economic level in this study is that most of the previous mobility literature deals with international mobilities or movements between organizations from different countries (Tremblay, 2005; Teichler,

2015; Bilecen & Van Mol, 2017; Chen, 2017; Siekierski et al., 2018; Shen et al., 2022) and focuses heavily on the economic perspective of these countries as well as on many migration aspects. I wanted to move away from this and avoid conflating mobility and migration, because the typology of determinants of migration movements differs from the established typology of determinants of interorganizational movements (European Commission, 2000; Migali & Scipioni, 2019; Milasi, 2020; Aslany et al., 2021). Even if their determinants overlap, it is difficult to determine whether they first led to the person migrating to another country and therefore also changing employer, or vice versa.

5.2 Theory and hypotheses development

As previously mentioned, interorganizational employee mobility differs from employee turnover. However, as there is a similar common ground, many of the terms and rules applied to the field of employee mobility have been adopted from the literature on employee turnover. March and Simon were among the so-called pioneers who formulated the first theory of employee turnover in 1958 (Lee et al., 2017). This theory was based on the notion that two fundamental constructs were key to an employee's decision to stay or leave an organization: the desirability of movement and the ease of movement. As interpreted by researchers in the decades following these pioneers, desirability of movement was essentially about individual satisfaction with the job, while ease of movement was about perceived or actual alternative employment opportunities related to the general situation in the labor market and other related macroeconomic indicators. This shows that even in the early days of employee turnover theories, the idea of examining employees' actions at different levels existed.

In the 1970s, a generation of scholars led by William H. Mobley and his associates expanded on the work of March and Simon, but added other factors to the overall model of employee turnover. They looked at it from a more psychological perspective, adding intermediate links to the relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover. They basically added into the model the mobile employee's evaluation of the existing job, as well as the evaluation of expected utility of an alternative job and costs of quitting the existing job (Mobley, 1977; Mobley et al., 1979). This addition of factors continued also with Price's sociological perspective from 1977, who was more concerned with why employees move than how they do so. He included some organizational variables, such as pay and organizational structure, that affect personal job satisfaction. In collaboration with his colleagues, he also added some individual factors, such as personal kinship responsibility and personal commitment to the job and the organization.

This was, so to speak, the beginning of the inclusion of more and more variables in employee turnover models, some of which related to the personal aspects of the employee, while others had to do with the organization he/she was leaving. This principle was further supported by Albert Bandura's Social Cognitive theory, which was developed in 1986 from his earlier

theory of social learning. Social cognitive theory is based on the idea that people acquire knowledge, beliefs, attitudes and ways of thinking through a learning process that is inherently cognitive but cannot be separated from the context in which it takes place (e.g., family, school, etc. – de la Fuente et al., 2023). When this theory was incorporated into organizational and management studies, its premise of explaining human behavior shaped by a dynamic and reciprocal interaction between people's personal factors, their past behaviors/experiences, and their environments was the notion that human behavior should be studied from a multigroup or multilevel perspective. This was also consistent with the emerging awareness in the 1980s and 1990s that organizations are inherently multilevel systems and that employees are embedded in these organizations, so that many organizational research topics should incorporate a multilevel perspective (Klein et al., 1994; Klein & Kozlowski, 2000).

Accordingly, the study of the phenomena of employee turnover and employee mobility using the multilevel approach has become somewhat standard to this day, especially when researchers attempt to identify the key determinants of an employee's move from the source organization. This was also evidenced by my literature reviews in Chapter 2 (bibliometric analysis) and Chapter 3 (systematic literature review). These determinants have been divided into individual, organizational, and economic levels, groups, or categories, however they have been named by individual researchers (Mobley et al., 1979; Muchinsky & Morrow, 1980; Selden & Moynihan, 2000; Moynihan & Landuyt, 2008). However, despite the widely accepted multilevel approach and the common definitions of these levels, almost every existing model of employee turnover or interorganizational mobility contains different determinants based on the previous research and existing literature that the authors of these models have examined. In other words, there is no consensus on what should be included or omitted from the final model of employee turnover or employee mobility.

Lamber et al. (2001), for example, tested their model of the employee turnover process on 1,095 employees from various sectors and industries in the USA. The independent variables in their model were divided into demographic factors (age, gender, education and tenure), work environment factors (role conflict, task variety, financial rewards, relations with co-workers and autonomy), job satisfaction and alternative employment opportunities. The dependent variable was turnover intention, which was considered a direct predictor of actual voluntary turnover.

Kim (2005) tested her model of turnover intention on 195 U.S. employees from the IT sector. She paid more attention to the organizational determinants of employees' turnover intentions, which she divided into three groups: Job characteristics, human resource management (HRM) practices, and work environment (as in Lambert et al.'s (2001) model). Independent variables representing job characteristics in Kim's model (2005) were work exhaustion, role clarity, and role conflict. Independent variables representing HRM practices were advancement opportunities, training and development, and pay and rewards satisfaction, while independent variables representing work environment were participatory

management and resources. Demographic factors such as gender, age, education and years of work were used as control variables, as were perceived job alternatives.

In the model of employee turnover tested on 34,668 employees of various U.S. federal agencies, Moynihan and Landuyt (2008) followed the same grouping of organizational variables as in the model described by Kim (2005), but added more variables in each group. Thus, their independent variables representing job characteristics were job satisfaction, workload, and supervisor. Independent variables representing HRM practices were salary, perception of fair pay, benefits, merit promotion, family-friendly work practices, diverse workforce practices, and employee development. The independent variables representing the work environment were commitment/loyalty, empowerment and voice. At the individual level, they used variables that measured age, gender, race, education, household size, whether respondents were the primary wage earner in household, years in the U.S. state, and agency experience.

The same logic of grouping organizational variables was followed by Wynen et al.'s (2013) interorganizational mobility model, which was tested on U.S. federal government employees. As job characteristics, they used workload and personal accomplishment as independent variables. For HRM policies, they used pay, promotion, work-life balance conditions and training as independent variables. For work environment, they used co-worker relations and supervisor support as independent variables. The individual-level variables in their model were gender, age, minority status and length of service.

In her model of the mobility intentions of employees in regional industry, Wendel (2020) also used the same groups of organizational variables. As job characteristics, she used autonomy, workload and job satisfaction as independent variables. For HRM policies, she used pay, career opportunities and training as independent variables. For work environment, she used supervisory practices and voice as independent variables. At the individual level, she used socio-demographic data (gender, age, education and length of service in organization, industry and region), organization-specific skills and industry-specific skills as independent variables.

As mentioned above, the main difference between the variables representing different determinants of employee mobility and their number in the models is therefore the prior research on which these models are based. Sometimes researchers also use different names for the same variables. For example, promotion, merit promotion, career opportunities and advancement opportunities are different labels that all refer to the same variable. As described above, at the individual level, mainly socio-demographic, family and employment-related characteristics are used as variables. They are usually treated as control variables. Control variables are variables that influence the dependent variable but are not of particular interest to the model (Gliner et al., 2017). Thus, when we control a variable, we want to equalize its effects across subjects and groups so that we can effectively ignore it and only examine the relationship between independent and dependent variables.

At the organizational level, the variables are usually divided between job characteristics, HRM practices and work environment. The job characteristics refer to the job itself. They refer to various dimensions and aspects that make up a job in an organization (Hackman & Oldham, 1974; DeSantis & Durst, 1996). HRM practices generally refer to the specific monetary and non-monetary rewards used to incentivize employees, while the work environment refers to the general work atmosphere as well as the other organizational characteristics that may help or hinder employees in performing their assigned tasks (DeSantis & Durst, 1996). All these variables are usually latent variables, which means that they cannot be measured directly. Therefore, they are measured using manifest variables, also known as indicators or items (Hair et al., 2021). Job satisfaction, for example, is a latent variable that cannot be measured directly. To measure it, researchers therefore usually use several items that form a measurement scale for a particular latent variable (in this case, job satisfaction). An example of such an item is: “I am glad that I have joined my organization”. By answering this item on a Likert-type scale, respondents provide the researcher with measurable information about their job satisfaction.

Based on the results of my literature reviews and the qualitative study described in the previous chapters 2, 3 and 4, as well as the theoretical insights and models described above, in the following subsections I present the two conceptual models of permanent interorganizational mobility of academics that were tested in this quantitative study. In addition, the focus is on how these conceptual models were jointly developed from the results of the qualitative study (Chapter 4) and the congruent theoretical multilevel approach presented.

5.2.1 Conceptual model of academics’ permanent intra-sector mobility

In the model of permanent intra-sector mobility of academics, or the first model I tested in this quantitative study, the intention of academics to move to another HEI (i.e., the permanent intra-sector mobility intention) was the dependent variable. For the independent and control variables in the model, I used push determinants and anchors at the individual, organizational and sector levels, which were found to be important for academics’ permanent intra-sector mobility based on the results of the qualitative study from the previous chapter. The push determinants and anchors at the economic level from the qualitative study were related to international mobility of academics or moving between HEIs from different countries, which included change of residence or migration. As this study is only concerned with mobility and not migration, the economic push determinants and anchors were not included in the model. Although the results of the qualitative study (Chapter 4) indicated potential relationships between various multilevel determinants of mobility, the purpose of this model was to examine direct relationships between the determinants as independent variables and interorganizational mobility as the dependent variable, therefore, second-order relationships or indirect pathways were not considered in this model. A preview of all the variables included in this model and their brief description can be found in Table 17, while

a more detailed explanation of each of these variables and the associated proposed hypotheses follow in the next paragraphs. It is also explained why some important push determinants and anchors from the qualitative study (Chapter 4) were not included as variables in this model.

Table 17: Variables included in the model of academics' permanent intra-sector mobility

	Variables	Short description
Dependent variable	Permanent intra-sector mobility intention	Intention to move to another HEI
Independent variables at the individual level	Internal social ties	Connections to colleagues in the source HEI
	External social ties	Connection with people outside the source HEI
	Family ties	Connection to family members
	Job satisfaction	General satisfaction with the job in source HEI
Independent variables at the organizational level	Work demands	Job characteristics in source HEI
	Work environment & organizational culture	Work environment of source HEI
	Organizational location	
	Salary Career opportunities	HRM practices in source HEI
Independent variable at the sector level	Academic specific conditions & requirements	Opportunities for temporary mobility within and outside the HE sector
Control variables at the individual level	Gender	Socio-demographics
	Age	
	Household income share	Household characteristics
	Length of service in source HEI Length of service in the HE sector	Employment characteristics
Control variable at the organizational level	Type of employment	Fixed-term or open-ended contract

Source: own work

As explained earlier, the dependent variable in this model was the respondents' intention to move to another HEI at some point in the future, rather than their actual mobility experience in the past. Measuring intention rather than actual behavior is usually done when studying

mobility, turnover or similar phenomena involving respondents' movements (Mobley et al., 1979; Griffeth et al., 2000; Van Breukelen et al., 2004; Wynen et al., 2013). This also emerged from the existing models presented in the previous section (Lambert et al., 2001; Kim, 2005; Moynihan & Landuyt, 2008; Wynen et al., 2013; Wendel, 2020).

The results of the qualitative study (Chapter 4) have shown that social ties, family ties and job satisfaction are important for the permanent mobility of academics between HEIs, so these individual determinants were included as independent variables in this model. Social ties were the mobility determinant most frequently cited in the literature as crucial for the interorganizational mobility of employees in different sectors and industries (Baumann, 2002; Haunschild, 2003; Broschak, 2004; Knight & Yueh, 2004; Smith-Doerr, 2005; Casper, 2007, 2013a, 2013b; Perkmann & Walsh, 2007; Randel & Ranft, 2007; Waters & Smith, 2008; Donnelly, 2009; Ituma & Simpson, 2009; Whittington et al., 2009; Dokko & Rosenkopf, 2010; Rider, 2012; Collet & Hedström, 2013; Culié et al., 2014; Balland et al., 2015; Campbell et al., 2017; Di Lorenzo & Almeida, 2017; Broschak et al., 2020; Carnahan et al., 2020; Seo & Somaya, 2021), and was also the most frequently cited determinant of academics' mobility, as evidenced by the results of the qualitative study from previous chapter. However, the results of the qualitative study also showed that there are differences between the social ties academics share with colleagues at their source HEI and the ties they share with others outside their source HEI. For this reason, social ties were divided into two independent variables, namely internal social ties (i.e., social ties within the source HEI), also known as bonding social capital (Waters & Smith, 2008) and external social ties (i.e., social ties outside the source HEI), also known as bridging social capital (Waters & Smith, 2008).

Internal social ties proved to be contradictory with regard to the permanent intra-sector mobility of academics. On the one hand, ties to people at the source HEI with whom the academic did not get on led to mobility to another HEI (positive relationship). On the other hand, strong ties to colleagues at the source HEI also worked in the opposite direction and prevented academics from leaving the source HEI (negative relationship). However, the latter was usually the case, i.e., in most cases these ties acted as an anchor rather than a push determinant, so that academics stayed at their source HEI and did not leave, which is also consistent with the findings of some other studies in the financial sector (Waters & Smith, 2008; Campbell et al., 2017). In contrast, external social ties or ties that academics share with others outside their source HEI almost always acted as a push determinant, which is also consistent with the findings of studies from other sectors and industries such as finance and theater (Haunschild, 2003; Knight & Yueh, 2004; Randel & Ranft, 2007; Waters & Smith, 2008; Collet & Hedström, 2013). Through social ties that academics establish through various academic and non-academic channels, they obtain information about alternative positions at other HEIs or decide to transfer to a particular destination organization based on their direct relationships with people there. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 1a: The internal social ties of academics are negatively related to their intended permanent mobility from their source HEI to another HEI.

Hypothesis 2a: The external social ties of academics are positively related to their intended permanent mobility from their source HEI to another HEI.

Family-related factors such as marital status and number of children have been shown to be important determinants of interorganizational mobility of employees (Kidd, 1991; Mano-Negrin & Kirschenbaum, 2000; Eby, 2001; Valcour & Tolbert, 2003; Knight & Yueh, 2004; Huang et al., 2006; Valcour & Ladge, 2008; Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016; Ali et al., 2018). Many academics from the qualitative study also cited these factors as decisive for their decisions to move. However, they mentioned them more in terms of ties to their family members, meaning that these ties go beyond traditional marital status and number of children, which are usually used as control variables in studies. For this reason, family ties were included in this model as another independent variable at the individual level.

The results of the qualitative study showed a kind of mixed relationship between this variable and the permanent intra-sector mobility of academics, as some academics left the source HEI to be closer to their family members, while others stayed at their HEI for the same reason. However, findings from studies in other sectors and industries suggest that people who are married and have children (i.e., those with stronger family ties) are more constrained by these factors and are more likely to seek more stable employment rather than change employers (Mano-Negrin & Kirschenbaum, 2000; Valcour & Tolbert, 2003; Ali et al., 2018). Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed for such an argument:

Hypothesis 3a: The family ties of academics are negatively related to their intended permanent mobility from their source HEI to another HEI.

There is almost universal evidence of a negative relationship between job satisfaction and employee's interorganizational mobility, i.e., the more satisfied employees are with the job in their source organization, the less likely they are to move from that organization (Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Culié et al., 2014; James, 2014; Ali et al., 2018; S. Lee, 2018). This negative relationship was also supported by the results of the qualitative study in the HE sector (Chapter 4), therefore the following hypothesis is put forward:

Hypothesis 4a: The general satisfaction of academics with their job at their source HEI is negatively related to their intended permanent mobility from their source HEI to another HEI.

As with the previously described models in the field of employee turnover and mobility, I have also included several individual control variables in this model. In addition to gender, which is included as a control variable in almost every study and whose importance for interorganizational mobility has also been demonstrated in some earlier studies (Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Valcour & Tolbert, 2003; Huang et al., 2006; Valcour & Ladge, 2008; Ituma

& Simpson, 2009; Wynen et al., 2013; Sgobbi & Suleman, 2015; Ali et al., 2018; Amarante et al., 2019), the choice of including other individual control variables was based on their relevance to the permanent intra-sector mobility of academics based on the qualitative study conducted. Thus, age and household characteristics (i.e., whether the respondent is the main earner in the family) were included as they were found to be negatively related to the permanent intra-sector mobility of academics – the older they were and the more income they brought into their household, the less mobile academics were.

Length of service is also a commonly used control variable that has been shown to have a significant but inconsistent relationship with the interorganizational mobility of employees. Some studies have shown that the longer employees have been with their source organization, the less likely they are to move to another organization (Sgobbi & Suleman, 2015; Amarante et al., 2019). However, there are also studies that have found the opposite direction of this relationship (Kidd, 1991; Farber, 1994; Haper, 1995; Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Mano-Negrin & Kirschenbaum, 2000; Knight & Yueh, 2004; Buchinsky et al., 2010; Wynen et al., 2013; Ali et al., 2018; Dobrev & Merluzzi, 2018; Balachandran & Wezel, 2020). Length of service is also related to organization-specific skills (the longer the service, the higher the individual's organization-specific skills), and since these skills were also found to be important for the permanent intra-sector mobility of academics, it was important to include length of service as an individual control variable in the model. Furthermore, existing studies often distinguish between length of service in an organization and length of service in an industry or sector, with the latter also indicating how established an individual's career is – the more experience someone has in a particular sector, the more established his/her career is and the less likely he/she is to move within the sector (Ivancic, 2000; Sammarra et al., 2013; Wynen et al., 2013). As it turned out that the “established career” is also important for the permanent mobility of academics within the sector, the length of service in the HE sector was also included in the model as a control variable. Although education is one of the frequently used control variables, I have omitted it from the model as academics are generally a fairly homogeneous group in terms of their level of education.

It is important to note that several other individual factors were also identified in the qualitative study as important for the permanent intra-sector mobility of academics: individual interests and preferences, orientation towards professional and personal development, comfort zone, and personal characteristics and skills. However, I did not include them as independent variables in the model. The reason for this is that each of these variables is quite broad and covers many different aspects. On the one hand, they are complicated to measure as their scales would consist of many subscales and numerous items. On the other hand, these variables go beyond the scope of this quantitative study and as such should be investigated in a future study (e.g., how personal characteristics influence the interorganizational mobility of academics).

Further, I included all organizational push determinants and anchors identified in the qualitative study as important for the permanent intra-sector mobility of academics as

independent variables in the model. They could also be grouped together, as is common in the other models in this field described above. Thus, in my model, work demands represent job characteristics, work environment and organizational culture, and organizational location represent work or organizational environment, and salary and career opportunities represent HRM practices.

The results of many existing studies indicate that higher work demands have a positive effect on employee mobility to another organization (Kim, 2005; Wynen et al., 2013; Omar et al., 2020; Hariyanto et al., 2022; Jayasri & Annisa, 2023; Yikilmaz et al., 2023). This was also evidenced by my qualitative study in the HE sector, where these demands were mainly related to the number of teaching hours and research requirements, and when they increase in the source HEI, academics tend to leave it. Therefore, another hypothesis is put forward:

Hypothesis 5a: The work demands at the academics' source HEI are positively related to their intended permanent mobility from source HEI to another HEI.

The work environment and organizational culture as another independent variable in the model also included perceived organizational support, which also proved to be very important for academics' mobility decisions. As found in the existing studies and also supported by the results of my qualitative study, a poor working environment and a weak organizational culture in the source HEI cause employees to move to another organization (Akca, 2017; Sull et al., 2022; Yikilmaz et al., 2023). In terms of organizational location, existing studies show that mobility tends to occur in larger cities and metropolitan areas rather than in some rural areas (Sgobbi & Suleman, 2015; Czaller et al., 2021). The results of the qualitative study show that many other factors also make the location of an organization more attractive, such as time spent commuting, proximity to facilities that individuals use on a daily basis, etc. All these factors make the location of source HEI more attractive and consequently have a negative effect on the mobility of academics. Accordingly, the following hypotheses are formulated for the two variables:

Hypothesis 6a: The work environment and organizational culture in the academics' source HEI are negatively related to their intended permanent mobility from source HEI to another HEI.

Hypothesis 7a: The attractiveness of the location of the academics' source HEI is negatively related to their intended permanent mobility from source HEI to another HEI.

In addition, the results of existing studies as well as the results of my qualitative study show that if the salary is high enough and they are offered career opportunities, employees tend to stay in their source organization (Harper, 1995; Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Huang et al., 2006; Gruetter & Lalive, 2009; Wynen et al., 2013; Campbell et al., 2017; Kacperczyk & Balachandran, 2018; S. Lee, 2018; Kost et al., 2020), therefore the following hypotheses are put forward:

Hypothesis 8a: The salary at the academics' source HEI is negatively related to their intended permanent mobility from source HEI to another HEI.

Hypothesis 9a: The career opportunities offered by the academics' source HEI are negatively related to their intended permanent mobility from source HEI to another HEI.

At the organizational level of analysis, a further control variable was added – the type of employment, as many of the academics interviewed cited this as one of the determining factors for their mobility to another HEI. This is also confirmed by research in other sectors and industries, according to which employees with fixed-term contracts and part-time employment are more likely to move than those with permanent contracts and full-time employment (Greenhalgh & Mavrotas, 1996; Campbell et al., 2017; Balachandran & Wezel, 2020; Seo & Somaya, 2021). Of all the organizational determinants found to be significant in the qualitative study, only the establishment of the research field was not included in the model, as it is too specific variable, relating mainly to the match between the respondent's research field and what is being researched at the organizational level in the source HEI, resulting in a rather complicated capture and measurement.

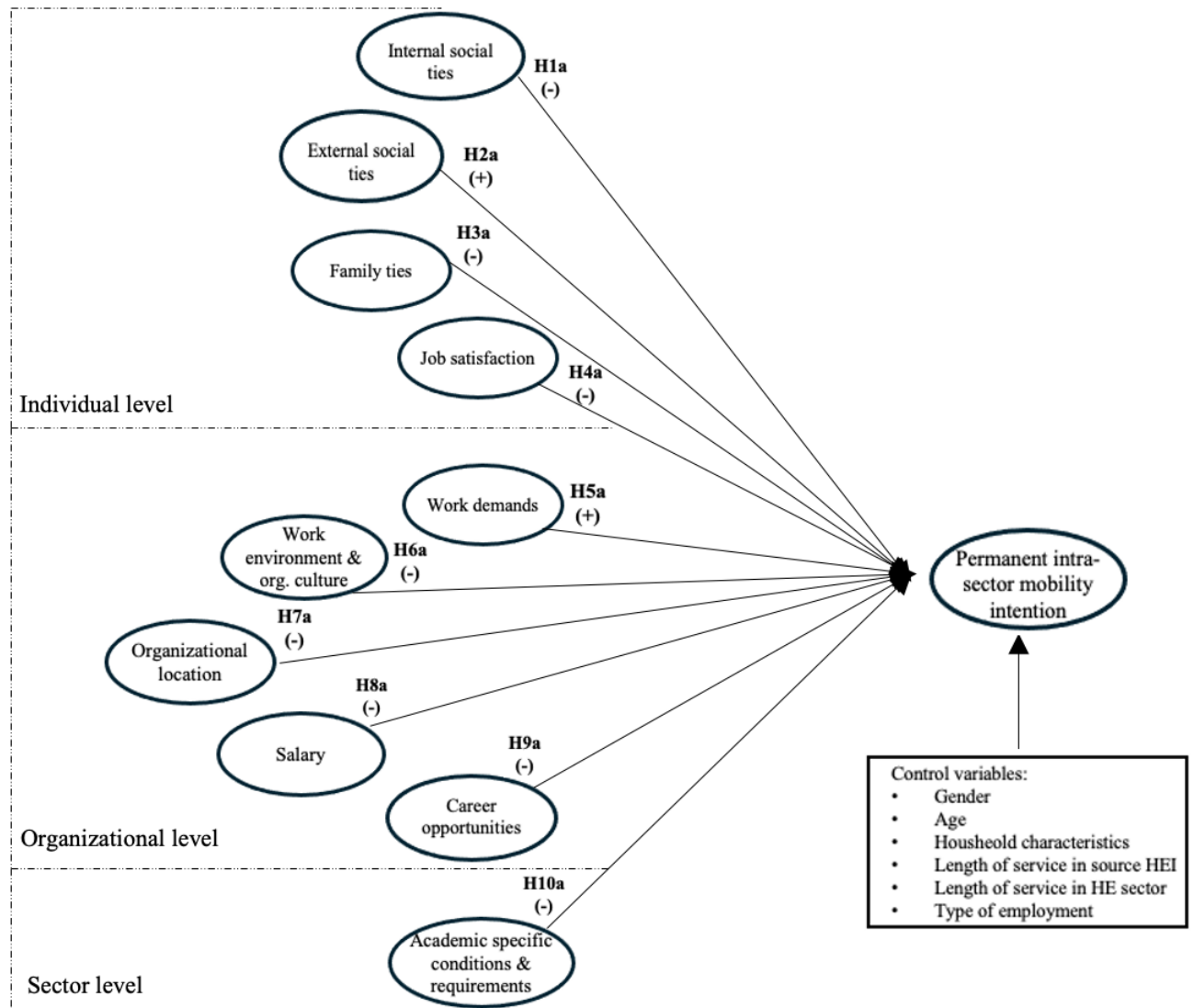
Although earlier turnover and mobility models paid less or almost no attention to sector determinants, these should also be taken into account. Of the sector determinants described in the previous chapter, only two were cited as significant for the permanent intra-sector mobility of academics. One of these is the characteristics of the academic labor market, which are firmly linked to the general labor market of a country or to the economic level, which is why this variable was not included in the final model. Another important sector determinant was the specific conditions and requirements of the HE sector. When mentioning this, interviewees mostly referred to the specifics of the HE sector that allow or even force them to move temporarily (e.g., in some HE sectors temporary mobility is one of the mandatory conditions for promotion to a higher academic position). As one of the aims of this study is to find out whether temporary mobility, in this case at sector level, also determines the type of permanent mobility, this variable was also included in the model.

The results of the qualitative study showed a contradictory relationship between academic specific conditions and the permanent intra-sector mobility of academics. For example, some of the respondents stated that the HE sector encourages academics to develop ideas and collaborate with different people through temporary mobility, which was a trigger for their permanent move to another HEI, as these long-term collaborations can sometimes not be fully experienced through temporary mobility. In turn, some of the respondents see these multiple opportunities for temporary mobility within the sector as a chance to move around and gain experience in different HEIs while having a secure job at their source HEI, which in these cases serves as somewhat of an anchor. Based on these considerations, a final hypothesis is proposed for this model:

Hypothesis 10a: The specific conditions and requirements of the HE sector that allow academics to temporarily move to other HEIs and other sectors and industries are negatively related to their intended permanent mobility from source HEI to another HEI.

The conceptual model of academics' permanent intra-sector mobility and the proposed hypotheses are illustrated in Figure 20.

Figure 20: Conceptual model of academics' permanent intra-sector mobility and summary of the proposed hypotheses



Source: own work

5.2.2 Conceptual model of academics' permanent inter-sector mobility

In the model of permanent inter-sector mobility of academics, the second model I tested in this quantitative study, the intention of academics to move from academia to another sector (i.e., the permanent inter-sector mobility intention) was the dependent variable. For the

independent variables in the model, I only used sector-level push determinants and anchors that were found to be important for academics' permanent inter-sector mobility based on the results of the qualitative study from the previous chapter. The reason for limiting this model to sector-level independent variables was to isolate to some extent the relationship between the characteristics of the HE sector and the intention of its employees to leave or stay in it (Daganzo et al., 2012; Yates et al., 2012; S. W. Lee, 2022). In addition, the results of the qualitative study from the previous chapter showed that the most numerous push determinants and anchors for academics' permanent inter-sector mobility or moving from academia to another sector are at the sector level, which was another reason to include them as independent variables. As for the control variables, some individual determinants were included. A preview of all the variables included in this model and their brief description can be found in Table 18, while a more detailed explanation of each of these variables and their associated proposed hypotheses follows in the next paragraphs. It is also explained why some important sector-level push determinants and anchors from the qualitative study (Chapter 4) were not included as variables in this model.

Table 18: Variables included in the model of academics' permanent inter-sector mobility

	Variables	Short description
Dependent variable	Permanent inter-sector mobility intention	Intention to move from academia to another sector
Independent variables at the sector level	Academic job demands	Academic job characteristics
	Academic activities	
	Academic job significance	
	Academic flexibility	Academic environment
	Academic opportunities	HE sector practices
	Academic specific conditions & requirements	
Control variables at the individual level	Gender	Socio-demographics
	Age	
	Relationship status	Family characteristics
	Number of supported children	
	Job position	Employment characteristics
	Length of service in the HE sector	

Source: own work

As explained earlier, the dependent variable in this model was respondents' intention to move from academia to another sector at some point in the future, rather than their actual

experience of inter-sector mobility in the past. Therefore, only the potential outgoing mobility or the potential mobility of academics from the HE sector to other sectors was examined. The reason for this is the sample, which is explained in the next subchapter – I collected the data from academics already working in the HE sector and could therefore only examine their intention to leave the HE sector. In order to also investigate the intention of incoming mobility (mobility of employees from other sectors into academia), I would also have had to approach employees from other sectors outside academia to investigate their potential intention to move into academia at some point in the future, which is beyond the scope of this quantitative study.

The results of the qualitative study (Chapter 4) showed that the most important sector push determinants and anchors of permanent inter-sector mobility of academics were the demands of academic job, academic activities, the significance of academic job, academic flexibility, academic opportunities to develop new knowledge and skills, and specific academic conditions and requirements. Therefore, these determinants were included as independent variables in this model.

The review of the existing models of employee turnover and mobility in the previous subsection showed that the independent variables at the organizational level were mostly grouped between job characteristics, work environment and HRM practices. As described, I followed the same principle when grouping the independent variables at the organizational level in my earlier model of intra-sector mobility. However, the same logic of grouping variables could have been applied to the independent variables at the sector level in this model. For example, one group is the academic job characteristics, which correspond to the organizational job characteristics described earlier. It refers to the nature and various aspects of a job (Hackman & Oldham, 1974; DeSantis & Durst, 1996), except that in this case it is not the job in a specific organization, but the general job in the HE sector. Therefore, academic job demands, academic activities and the significance of academic job are categorized in this group. Another group is the academic environment as an equivalent to the work environment. Academic flexibility is placed in this group as this variable describes the general academic environment that allows the freedom and autonomy to think critically and choose different research ideas, topics and projects, as well as the flexibility to organize one's own working time. The last group are the practices in the HE sector that correspond to the HRM practices mentioned earlier. In this case, however, these practices relate to the HE sector as a whole rather than to the HR management of a particular HEI. This group includes opportunities for academics to develop new knowledge and skills, as well as specific academic conditions and requirements that allow academics to move temporarily between different organizations but return safely to their source HEI.

The demands of academic job are quite unique and are mostly divided between teaching, publishing and administrative tasks (Boyd et al., 2011), reflecting general work in the HE sector rather than work in a particular HEI. The study by Boyd et al. (2011) has shown that high levels of teaching commitments, pressure to attract external funding and high levels of

role conflict between the triple demands of teaching, research and administration are sources of occupational stress for academics and are associated with high levels of job dissatisfaction and anxiety. This was also demonstrated in the study by Naidoo-Chetty and du Plessis (2021) at a public university in South Africa. The academics interviewed in the qualitative study in the previous chapter also indicated that an overly intense academic environment and the associated teaching, publishing and administrative demands, which they perceive as too demanding and stressful, cause them to leave academia and move to another sector. Therefore, I propose the first hypothesis for this model:

Hypothesis 1b: The demands of academic job are positively related to the intended permanent mobility of academics from the HE sector to another sector.

Derounian (2018) conducted a study on what drives people to become academics and one of the aspects was teaching and nurturing young people and researching topics that interest them. These two main aspects of academic job – teaching and research – constitute the general academic activities (Duckworth, 1986). The results of the qualitative study from the previous chapter also showed that these academic activities are what keeps them in academia as they are quite unique and there is hardly any other sector or industry that offers them. Therefore, the following hypothesis is put forward:

Hypothesis 2b: Academic activities are negatively related to the intended permanent mobility of academics from the HE sector to another sector.

The significance of a job is demonstrated by doing something that contributes to society and practice in general, as well as something that is of great importance to policy makers (Hackman & Oldham, 1974), which also applies to academic job. The results of the qualitative study (Chapter 4) have shown that the significance of academic job, which is also perceived as a prestigious profession, keeps academics in the HE sector. Accordingly, the following hypothesis is put forward:

Hypothesis 3b: The significance of the academic job is negatively related to the intended permanent mobility of academics from the HE sector to another sector.

The flexibility of academic job essentially refers to the many freedoms that this type of job offers, such as the freedom to schedule one's own working hours, the freedom to choose how to perform certain tasks, as well as the flexibility of work processes, professional authority and autonomy, etc. (Drexler, 2022). The aforementioned study by Derounian (2018) has shown that academics are attracted to the HE sector because they have flexibility in their working time and the freedom to conduct their research as they wish. This flexibility improves the work-life balance of academics as well as their overall satisfaction with the academic profession (Matei & Iwinska, 2018; Bartlett et al., 2021; Ghimire et al., 2023; Pritchard, 2024). The results of the qualitative study (Chapter 4) show that this flexibility keeps academics in the HE sector and prevents their mobility to another sector. Therefore, I propose the following:

Hypothesis 4b: The flexibility of the academic job is negatively related to the intended permanent mobility of academics from the HE sector to another sector.

Academic opportunities are about the fruitfulness of the academic environment that provides academics with the opportunity to learn, train, research and collaborate, all of which lead to the enhancement of individual knowledge, skills and competence needed to build their careers (Penman & Ellis, 2009; Bingwa & Ngibe, 2021; Mampuru et al., 2024). The results of the qualitative study (Chapter 4) have shown that these opportunities keep academics within academia and prevent their mobility to another sector. Accordingly, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 5b: Academic opportunities are negatively related to the intended permanent mobility of academics from the HE sector to another sector.

After all, it is the opportunities to temporarily move between different organizations while still having a secure job at one's source HEI that make up the special conditions and requirements of the HE sector (Althoff, 2020; Preidienė, 2023). The results of the qualitative study (Chapter 4) have shown that these specifics keep academics in the HE sector and prevent their mobility to another sector. In other words, these mobilities, which in some countries are also required in the HE sector in order to advance to a higher academic position, allow academics to gain experience not only in other HEIs but also in other sectors and industries while having a secure academic job, which encourages them to stay where they are. Therefore, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 6b: The specific conditions and requirements of the HE sector that allow academics to temporarily move to other HEIs and other sectors and industries are negatively related to the intended permanent mobility of academics from the HE sector to another sector.

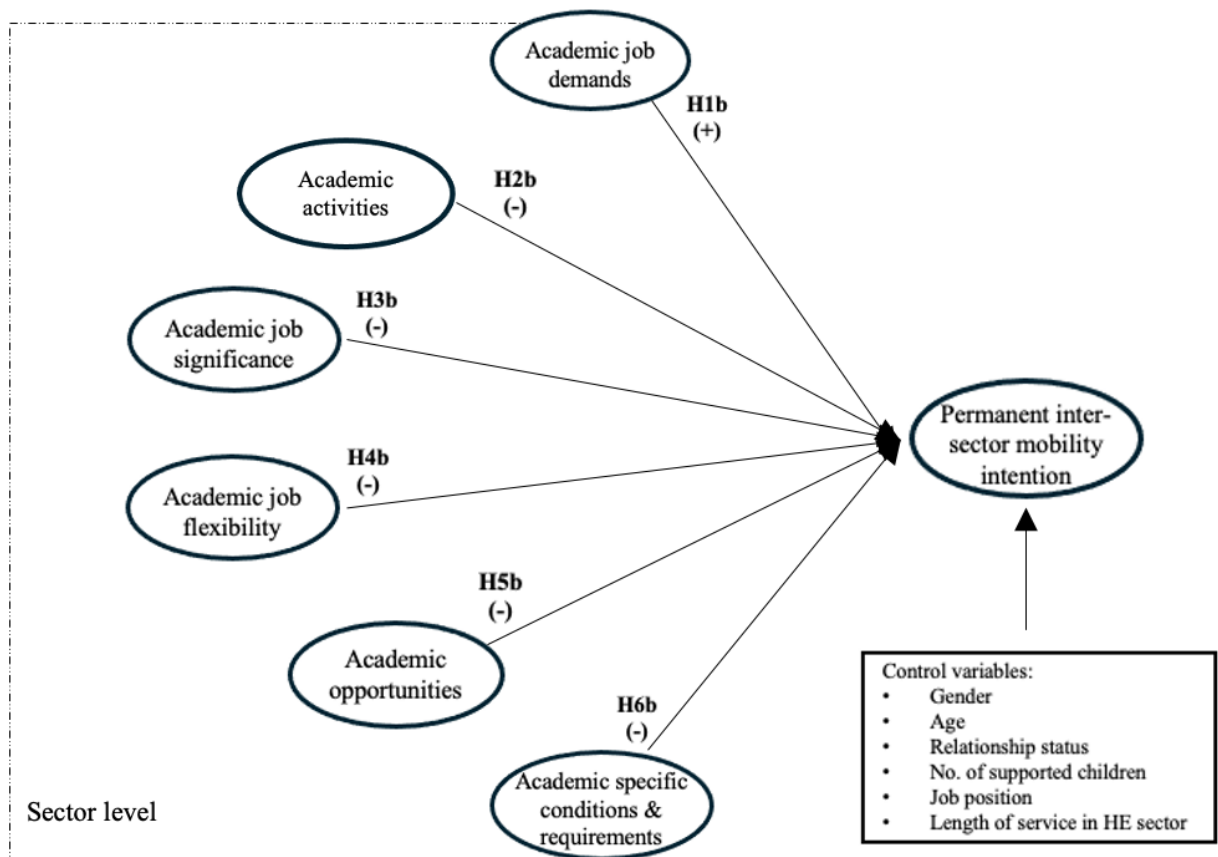
The only sector determinant that was found to be important for the inter-sector mobility of academics in the qualitative study (Chapter 4), but was not included as an independent variable in this model, was structural characteristics. These characteristics usually refer to a specific HE sector in a country (e.g., the US HE sector). Since the focus of this quantitative study was on general academic characteristics and not on a specific HE sector, this variable was removed from the inter-sector model.

Of the aforementioned control variables used in this model, gender and age are standard socio-demographics. I also controlled for participants' relationship status and number of children supported, as these family characteristics have been shown in a qualitative study (Chapter 4) to have an impact on academics' decisions to stay in or leave academia. For example, being in a relationship or married with young children tends to make academic job more stressful, and push people out of academia. On the other hand, those who do not have these family ties are sometimes more mobile, even when it comes to moving to another sector. I also used two employment characteristics as control variables. As in the previous

model, one was length of service in the HE sector and the other was the job position or position someone holds in the academic hierarchy (e.g., teaching/research assistant or assistant professor, etc.). These two variables were found to be important for the movement of employees between two sectors (Wynen et al., 2013), which was also confirmed by the results of the qualitative study from the previous chapter.

The conceptual model of academics' permanent inter-sector mobility and the proposed hypotheses are illustrated in Figure 21.

Figure 21: Conceptual model of academics' permanent inter-sector mobility and summary of the proposed hypotheses



Source: own work

5.3 Methodology of a quantitative study

To shed light on the findings of the qualitative study from the previous chapter for a larger number of academics and to uncover complex relationships between multilevel determinants and types of interorganizational mobility in the HE sector (RQ2), I conducted a quantitative study. In general, quantitative research emphasizes quantification in the collection and analysis of data and is deductive (Bryman, 2012). This means that it starts from theoretical foundations on which hypotheses are built. Through a larger number of collected and

analyzed data, these hypotheses are confirmed or rejected and the initial theory is revised (Bryman, 2012). In contrast to the qualitative study, whose methodological purpose is exploratory, quantitative studies are usually more explanatory and aim to establish and explain causal relationships between variables (Saunders et al., 2023). They may involve different methods of data collection (e.g., questionnaires, experiments, case studies, etc. – Bryman, 2012) and analysis (e.g., exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, etc. – Bryman, 2012).

To collect the quantitative data for my study, I used the online questionnaire. More specifically, I used a self-completion questionnaire which was distributed online to the respondents. Unlike a researcher-completion questionnaire, respondents can answer and record their responses directly without the active involvement of the researcher (Saunders et al., 2023). Respondents were asked some factual and demographic questions (e.g., gender, age, family and employment characteristics), whether they had experienced any type of interorganizational mobility in the past, and their attitudes and opinions on all independent and dependent variables that I wanted to test in both models of intra- and inter-sector mobility.

The main advantage of the online questionnaire as a quantitative data collection method is the low cost of its creation (Dewaele, 2018). I used the web-based platform 1KA, developed by the Center for Social Informatics at the Faculty of Social Sciences from the University of Ljubljana. Its online services provide comprehensive support for the development, design and technical creation of online questionnaires, their implementation and the final compilation and analysis of data and paradata (1KA, 2024). It also allows multiple researchers to work on the online questionnaire simultaneously and leave comments to share ideas and improve the existing version. In addition, the questionnaire can be tested before its final distribution to the target group. Another advantage of online questionnaires is anonymity, as there is no face-to-face interaction between the researcher and the respondent, as well as the potential pressure on the respondent, which increases the level of honesty in responses and reduces socially desirable bias (Dewaele, 2018). The advantage of this data collection method also lies in the potential access to a much larger and more diverse population around the world, which increases the ecological validity of the data or the richness of attitudes that are more in line with the real world (Dewaele, 2018). However, the biggest limitation of online questionnaires is the inevitable self-selection bias (Dewaele, 2018), which occurs because participants voluntarily choose to participate in a study rather than being randomly selected. Due to their voluntary participation, they are more likely to have some specific characteristics that distinguish them from the rest of the population, which may result in a biased sample that does not accurately reflect the population as a whole (Damyanov, 2023).

In the remaining subsections of this subchapter, I first present the sample and the process of data collection and then explain the design of the questionnaire – i.e., the pilot study conducted and the measurement scales used to measure the dependent and independent

variables, as well as the explanation of the control variables used. Finally, I explain the methods of data analysis for both models.

5.3.1 Sample and data collection

In order to collect the data needed to evaluate the hypotheses and answer the research questions, the online questionnaire was distributed to academics involved in teaching and/or research at a HEI. As with the qualitative study, I focused primarily on academics from the fields of economics and business.

I began the data collection by emailing all the academics I knew personally who fitted into the sample described, which corresponds to the convenience sampling method. The e-mail sent contained an invitation to participate in a research and the link to the online questionnaire. The invitation included a brief description of the main topic and purpose of the research as well as the subsequent data processing, whereby I emphasized the anonymity and confidentiality of the respondents. I also asked them to forward the questionnaire to some of their colleagues as well, which was in line with the snowball sampling. Having exhausted the pool of academic contacts I knew, I turned to new publicly available contacts I found on the official websites of various HEIs. As I wanted to have a sample reflecting the mobility intentions of academics in different European HE sectors, I randomly selected some business faculties or schools from most European countries.

Data collection began at the end of June 2024 and lasted until the end of September of the same year. A total of 936 responses to the online questionnaire were recorded on the web-based 1KA platform. Of these, 636 were completed and partially completed questionnaires. After the partially completed questionnaires were removed, 625 valid responses remained, forming the final sample of this quantitative study. The descriptive statistics of the sample can be seen in Table 19.

The respondents were between 24 and 78 years old, with an average age of 45.06 years. The male and female population was almost equally represented in the sample – i.e., male respondents made up about 46% of the sample, while female respondents made up about 53%. The remainder did not wish to disclose their gender. The majority (85.12%) have a doctorate and thus form a fairly homogeneous group when considering the level of education. The majority of respondents are married or living with a partner (68.18%). However, almost 45% of respondents (280) do not have children under their care. In other words, they may have adult children who they no longer support financially. About 45% of respondents said that they are the main wage earner in their household, while about 35% of them answered that they contribute as much as their family members. Respondents were almost evenly distributed across academic job positions, with assistant professors or comparable position slightly ahead (27.84%) and post-docs least represented (5.92%). Almost a third of all respondents (31.52%) had 10-19 years of professional experience in the HE sector. However, most respondents (261) had not worked at their current HEI for more

Table 19: Descriptive statistics of the respondents in quantitative study

	Academics (n=625)	
Age	Mean (range)	Std. Deviation
<i>Age in years</i>	45.06 (24-78)	10.78
Gender	Frequency (n)	Percentage
<i>Male</i>	290	46.40
<i>Female</i>	331	52.96
<i>Prefer not to disclose</i>	4	0.64
Education	Frequency (n)	Percentage
<i>PhD or equivalent</i>	532	85.12
<i>Master degree or equivalent</i>	91	14.56
<i>Bachelor degree or equivalent</i>	2	0.32
Relationship status	Frequency (n)	Percentage
<i>Married or cohabiting</i>	426	68.16
<i>In a relationship</i>	89	14.24
<i>Not in a relationship</i>	110	17.60
No. of supported children	Frequency (n)	Percentage
<i>0</i>	280	44.80
<i>1</i>	137	21.92
<i>2</i>	164	26.24
<i>3</i>	36	5.76
<i>More than 3</i>	8	1.28
Primary earner in household	Frequency (n)	Percentage
<i>Yes</i>	282	45.12
<i>No</i>	124	19.84
<i>Equal to other family members</i>	219	35.04
Job position	Frequency (n)	Percentage
<i>Teaching and/or research assistant</i>	106	16.96
<i>Post-doctoral researcher</i>	37	5.92
<i>Assistant professor</i>	174	27.84
<i>Associate professor</i>	165	26.40
<i>Full professor</i>	143	22.88
Length of service in HE sector	Frequency (n)	Percentage
<i>Less than 1 year</i>	14	2.24
<i>1-9 years</i>	185	29.60
<i>10-19 years</i>	197	31.52
<i>20-29 years</i>	160	25.60
<i>30 years and more</i>	69	11.04
Length of service in current HEI	Frequency (n)	Percentage
<i>Less than 1 year</i>	33	5.28
<i>1-9 years</i>	261	41.76
<i>10-19 years</i>	166	26.56
<i>20-29 years</i>	124	19.84
<i>30 years and more</i>	41	6.56
Permanent mobility experience	Frequency (n)	Percentage
<i>No</i>	363	58.08
<i>Yes</i>	262	41.92
<i>Only intra-sector</i>	113	43.13
<i>Only inter-sector</i>	71	27.10
<i>Both intra- and inter-sector</i>	78	29.77
Temporary mobility experience	Frequency (n)	Percentage
<i>No</i>	218	34.88
<i>Yes</i>	407	65.12
<i>Only intra-sector</i>	308	75.67
<i>Only inter-sector</i>	26	6.39
<i>Both intra- and inter-sector</i>	73	17.94

Source: own work

than 10 years. About 40% of the respondents (262) already had experience of permanent mobility. Most of them have only experienced mobility between HEIs or within the HE sector (113), while almost equal numbers have only experienced inter-sector mobility (i.e., moving between sectors - 71) and both types of permanent mobility (78). However, the majority of respondents have had experience of temporary mobility in the past (65.12%). The majority of them temporarily moved only between two HEIs (i.e., intra-sector mobility – 75.67%), while about 18% of them temporarily moved both within the HE sector and to an organization from another sector. Only 26 respondents experienced only temporary mobility to another sector.

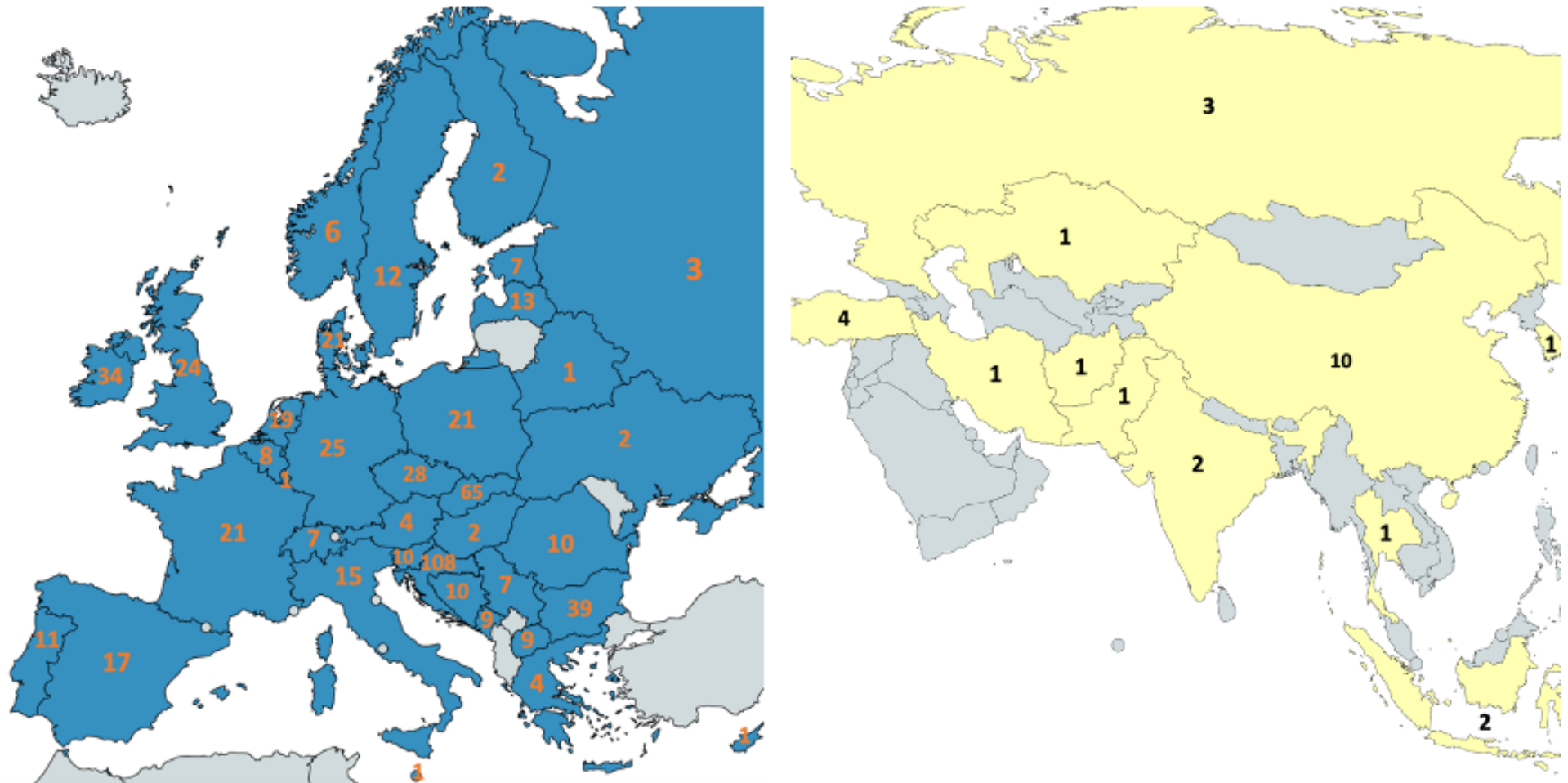
The respondents were also asked about their country of citizenship. 7 of them did not want to answer this question, while the remaining 618 respondents are citizens of 55 different countries around the world. Almost 93% of these respondents come from 35 European countries, with Croatia, Slovakia and Bulgaria leading the other European countries in terms of the number of citizens who took part in the survey. With the exception of Andorra, Albania, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Kosovo, Monaco, San Marino and the Vatican, all European countries are represented with at least one respondent in the sample. This is followed by 11 Asian countries – Afghanistan, China, India, Indonesia, Iran, Kazakhstan, Pakistan, Russia, South Korea, Thailand and Turkey – with a total of 27 respondents. All these countries and the number of their citizens who took part in the study are shown in Figure 22.

The North and South American continents are represented in the sample by 12 respondents who are citizens of 4 different countries – Canada, USA, Argentina and Chile. Three respondents represent African countries – Ghana, Morocco and Tunisia – while 2 respondents represent Australia and New Zealand. All of these countries and the number of their citizens who participated in a survey can be seen in Figure 23. In addition, it is important to emphasize that 78.5% of these respondents still live in the country of which they are citizens, so the countries presented also represent respondents' current place of residence.

5.3.2 Questionnaire design

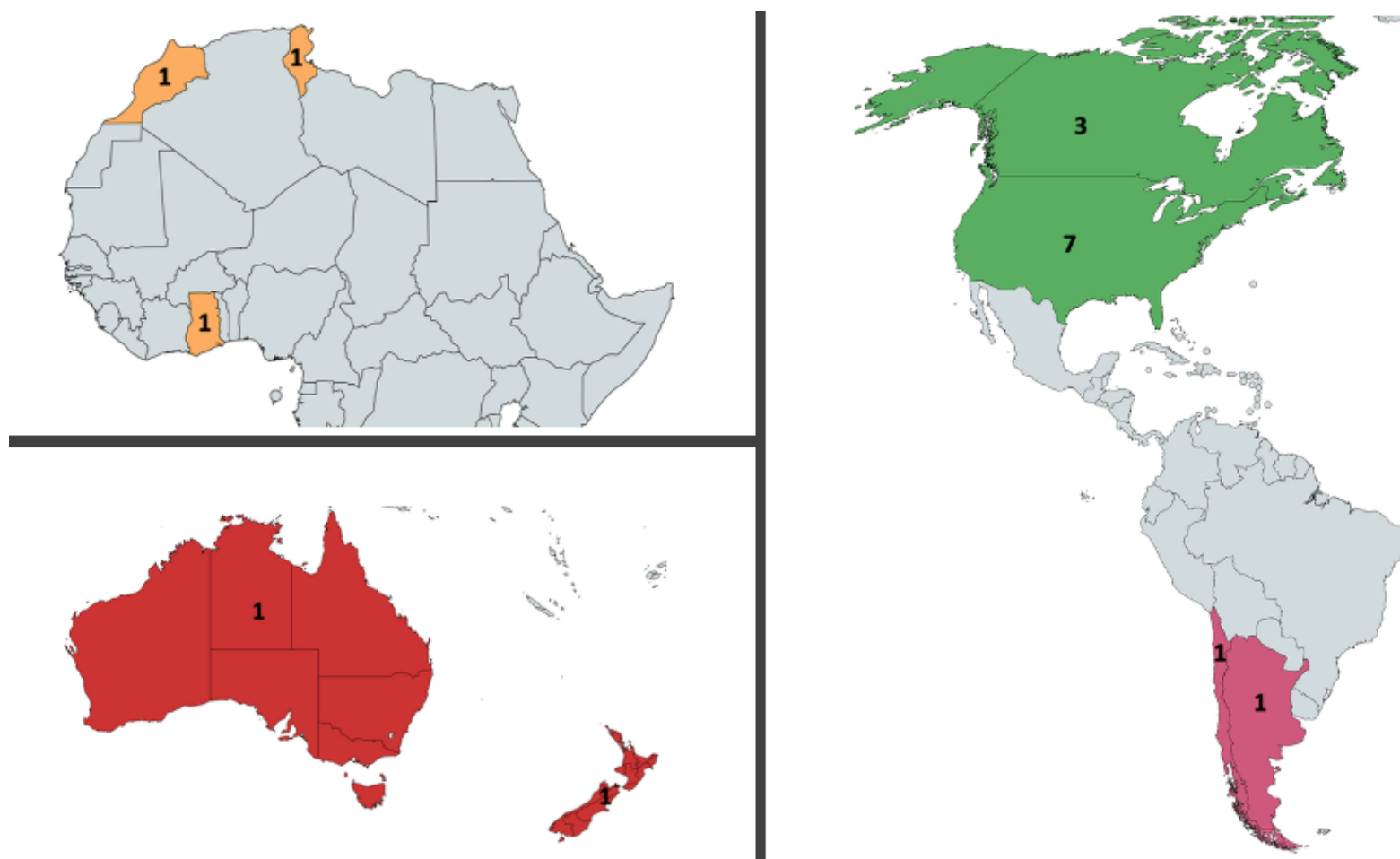
The first part of the questionnaire consisted of general questions about the respondents' socio-demographic data, family and employment characteristics and previous mobility experiences. Since the independent and dependent variables of the models of permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility presented above were latent variables – i.e., variables that cannot be measured directly but are measured using various manifest variables or items (Hair et al., 2021) – the main part of the questionnaire consisted of items to measure these variables. These measurement items were adopted from already established and validated scales used in some previous studies. A 7-point Likert scale for agreement was used for all these items. Such a scale requires participants to respond to a series of statements/items by indicating their agreement on a scale of 1 to 7 (Croasmun & Ostrom, 2011), where 1 means

Figure 22: European and Aisan countries of citizenship of the respondents



Source: own work

Figure 23: African, Australian and North and South American countries of citizenship of the respondents



Source: own work

they strongly disagree with the statement/item, while 7 means they strongly agree, and 4 is more neutral (neither agree nor disagree). In the following subsections, I briefly describe the details of the pilot test that I conducted before collecting the final data set. I then explain each of the measurement scales used in each of the proposed mobility models.

5.3.2.1 Pilot testing

As is common in quantitative research, where various measurement scales are used to measure desired latent variables that cannot be directly observed, the validity and reliability of these measurement scales must be considered (Cheung et al., 2024). This is particularly true and important because, although the original scales already used and validated in previous research are adopted, they are nevertheless slightly adapted to better fit the type of latent variables to be measured. This was also the case in this study, as some of the items used in the questionnaire were the same as in the original scales, while others were adapted to better measure the intended variables of the two models of academics' mobility. Therefore, before distributing the final version of the online questionnaire to my target audience, I asked a group of four experts in the field to comment on the structure of the questionnaire and the suitability of the questions. The aim was to further refine the questionnaire so that respondents would have no problems understanding and consequently answering the questions. This helped me to gain content validity (Saunders et al., 2023) – i.e., how well my questionnaire covers all the relevant constructs (i.e. variables) that I intend to measure.

I then carried out a pilot test. I used Prolific, a web-based platform originally developed by researchers that enables the collection of high quality human data from different groups of participants. It also makes it possible to select a targeted sample, thus I tested my questionnaire on 50 participants who work as teachers and/or researchers in the education sector, forming a group similar to my final population. In addition to the original measurement items in the questionnaire, I asked participants to comment on whether they understood all the questions and whether they made sense, which was also necessary to obtain what is known as face validity (Saunders et al., 2023). With this pilot test, I also wanted to assess the reliability of the measurement scales used before the final data collection. Although, as previously mentioned, the authors who used the scales reported their Cronbach's alpha coefficients as a common method for testing internal reliability (Bryman, 2012; Gliner et al., 2017), I still wanted to check them myself and evaluate them for the scales for which I could not obtain information from the literature. I also wanted to check whether some scales consisting of a large number of items can be reduced (i.e., whether some items can be removed) without affecting their internal reliability – i.e., the Cronbach's alpha coefficients. This reduction of items is beneficial because it means that some items that do not describe or measure the intended latent variable well are omitted, and it also means that the number of questions is reduced or the questionnaire is shortened. The advantage of shorter questionnaires is that they are less burdensome for the respondent and

enable higher response rates, complete completion and better data quality (Diehr et al., 2005; Snyder et al., 2007).

The coefficients of Cronbach's alpha vary between 0 and 1, with values closer to 1 indicating greater internal consistency of the items within the scale (Saidi & Siew, 2019). As a rule of thumb, coefficients above 0.90 typically indicate excellent internal consistency, above 0.80 is good and above 0.70 is acceptable, although many researchers also consider lower values to be satisfactory (Bryman, 2012; Cheung et al., 2024), with some placing the lower limit at 0.60 (Bryman, 2012). After retrieving the data from my pilot test, I checked the Cronbach's alpha for all measurement scales used. The coefficients for almost all scales were above 0.70. However, as mentioned earlier, I wanted to adjust some of these scales with a high number of items by reducing some of the items. The basis for the elimination of items in some scales were the results of the qualitative study from the previous chapter as well as the factor loadings of these items. The factor loading is the correlation between the item and the latent variable it measures (Tavakol & Wetzel, 2020). They range from -1 to 1, with values closer to -1 or 1 indicating a higher association between the item and the latent variable, while loadings closer to 0 indicate a low association (Hair et al., 2009). Cutoff values depend on the sample size, but as a rule of thumb, values below 0.30 usually indicate a poor correlation with the latent variable they are intended to measure (Tavakol & Wetzel, 2020). Therefore, if the wording of an item in the scales I used did not match the content of the targeted latent variable and its factor loading was lower, this item was considered redundant and therefore removed from the scale. After removing the items, the Cronbach's alphas of the scales were rechecked to ensure that their internal reliability did not decrease.

There were also some measurement scales whose Cronbach's alphas were slightly lower – between 0.6 and 0.7. These were scales measuring family ties, external social ties, academic activities, academic opportunities and academic specific conditions. In this case, I again attempted to eliminate the items from the original scales that had the lowest factor loadings and rechecked these scales. They showed a slight improvement in their internal consistency, although some Cronbach's alpha coefficients were still below 0.70. Nevertheless, I retained these scales in the final version of the questionnaire as no better validated scales measuring the intended latent variable could be found in the existing literature.

The original versions of the scales used and their comparison with my adapted versions can be found in Appendix 18.

5.3.2.2 Construction of the variables in the model of permanent intra-sector mobility

Academics' permanent intra-sector mobility intention was a dependent variable in the model of permanent intra-sector mobility and was measured using the original scale developed by Mowday et al. (1982), which was later also used in the study by McGinley et al. (2019). The authors reported on the reliability of the scale, which was measured with a Cronbach's alpha of over 0.70, which many authors consider as good or satisfactory level (Bryman, 2012).

The original scale consists of 3 items that were developed to measure employees' intention to leave their source organization. One of the original items was "*I think a lot about leaving the company*". I adapted the wording of the items so that they could capture both leaving the source organization and moving to the destination organization, such as: "*I think about leaving my current organization and moving to another higher education institution*".

Internal social ties, or social ties that academics share with others within the source HEI was individual independent variable. I measured it using the scale by Al Rubiash et al. (2011). The original scale consists of 5 items measuring interpersonal relationships and has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.71. Since two items in the original scale were associated with activities rather than interpersonal relationships (e.g., "*In the organization, activities are coordinated and integrated*") and their factor loadings were lower, I removed them so that the final scale consisted of 3 items and its internal reliability did not decrease. An example of a retained item is: "*I have good interpersonal communication and cooperation*".

External social ties, or ties that academics share with people outside their source HEI, were measured using the scale developed by Wolff and Moser (2006). Their original scale consisted of three different subscales, each with 7-8 items measuring the structure, maintenance and use of external networks. Since there were many items in this scale that did not exactly match the main content of my targeted latent variable (i.e., external social ties), and since the scale showed a bit lower internal reliability in my pilot test (0.60), I omitted some of these items with lower factor loadings based on the responses I received from the academics interviewed in the qualitative study (Chapter 4). An example of an omitted item is: "*I meet with professional acquaintances from other organizations outside of actual working hours*". The final scale I used consisted of 5 items, with one item being: "*I establish unofficial contacts with people outside my organization to maintain personal contacts there*".

Family ties were another independent variable in this model. I measured it using a scale developed by Bertrand and Schoar (2006) and later used in several studies by Alesina and Giuliano (2010, 2011, 2015). The original scale contained 5 items reflecting the strength of family ties. I found no report of the internal reliability of this scale in the studies in which it was developed and used, and when I reviewed it in my pilot test, it showed a lower Cronbach's alpha – 0.50. Therefore, I reduced several items with lower factor loadings, resulting in the remaining 2 items whose Cronbach's alpha reached an acceptable 0.60. The example for the omitted item from the original scale is: "*Regardless of what the qualities and faults of one's parents are, one must always love and respect them*". The example of the remaining item in this scale was: "*Family is the most important thing in my life*".

Job satisfaction as another individual independent variable was measured using the scale previously adapted by Raffiee and Coff (2016) from the Korean Labor and Income Panel Study (Korea Labor Institute, 1998). The original scale consists of 5 items measuring satisfaction with job content and the workplace as well as with job as a whole. In the adapted

scale, I removed one item that had the lowest factor loading and whose content was too broad and detached from the variable “job satisfaction”. This item read: *“I want to continue this job if other things remain the same”*. 4 other original items were retained, one of which is: *“I am satisfied with the job I am currently doing”*.

Work demands were independent variable at the organizational level, which was measured using the original scale developed by Boyd et al. (2011). The Cronbach’s alpha of the scale was above 0.90 and consisted of three items reflecting academic workload, such as: *“I do not have enough time to perform quality research”*.

Work environment and organizational culture was another independent variable at the organizational level that was measured using the original scale developed by Bendaraviciene et al. (2014), who examined the attractiveness of organizations in HE sector. The Cronbach’s alpha of the scale was 0.93 and consisted of 11 items. I removed one of the items that had a lower factor loading and that, according to the responses of the academics interviewed in the qualitative study (Chapter 4), had the least to do with what they considered to be a good or bad work atmosphere for them: *“Environment is community-friendly”*. Therefore, the final scale consisted of 10 items, one of which was: *“Good atmosphere prevails in University”*.

Salary was another independent variable at the organizational level, which was also measured using the same authors’ scale (Bendaraviciene et al., 2014). Its Cronbach’s alpha was 0.92 and it contained 5 items, such as: *“I am getting paid enough for my job”*.

The attractiveness of the organizational location was measured using Puri’s (2018) scale, with Cronbach’s alpha of 0.72 and 3 items. For example, one of the items reads: *“The location of the organization has a greater value if it is close to home”*. I adapted the original items slightly and added an additional item to better capture the value of the organization’s location in terms of time spent commuting and proximity to facilities used daily, which proved to be critical to academics’ mobility decisions in the qualitative study.

Career opportunities were measured using a scale developed by Balfour and Wechsler (1996), which was also used by Kim (2005). It originally consisted of 2 items measuring promotion opportunities: *“This organization provides me with a fair opportunity for advancement or promotion”*. I added an additional item that also measures the speed of promotion, as this was found to be important for the mobility decisions of academics in the qualitative study: *“Promotion speed in my current organization is fast”*.

Academic specific conditions and requirements was the only independent variable in this model at the sector level. Since this variable dealt exclusively with the temporary mobility options offered by the HE sector, I developed 4 items scale that best described the construct I wanted to measure. One of these items was: *“Working in the higher education sector offers me many opportunities to temporarily move to another higher education institution and experience what it would be like to work there”*.

As for the control variables in this model, *gender* was measured on a scale of 1 to 3, with 1 for men, 2 for women and 3 for those who did not want to disclose their gender. *Age* was measured by asking respondents the year they were born. Whether the respondent was the *primary wage earner in their household* was measured on a scale of 1 to 3, where 1 stood for those who were the main wage earners, 2 for those who were not, and 3 for those who contributed as much as their family members. *Length of service at the source HEI and in the HE sector* were measured on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 stood for less than 1 year, 2 for 1-9 years, 3 for 10-19 years, 4 for 20-29 years, and 5 for 30 years and more. Finally, the *type of employment* was measured on a scale of 1 to 4, where 1 stood for a fixed-term contract of up to 1 year, 2 for a fixed-term contract of 1 to 6 years, 3 for a fixed-term contract of more than 6 years and 4 for open ended or tenured contract.

5.3.2.3 Construction of the variables in the model of permanent inter-sector mobility

Academics' permanent inter-sector mobility intention was a dependent variable in the model of permanent inter-sector mobility and was measured using the original scale developed by Mowday et al. (1982), which was later also used in the study by McGinley et al. (2019). The authors reported a Cronbach's alpha of over 0.70 for the scale, which consists of 3 items developed to measure employees' intention to leave their source sector. One of the original items read: "*As soon as it is possible, I will leave the hotel industry*". I have adapted the wording of the items so that they can capture both leaving the HE sector and moving to another sector, such as: "*As soon as it is possible, I will leave the academia and move to another sector*".

Academic job demands was independent variable at the sector level, that was measured using the original scale developed by Kahn et al. (1964), which was later adapted in studies by Caplan et al. (1975), Kirmeyer and Dougherty (1988), and Moore (2000). It's Cronbach's alpha was 0.80 and it consisted of 4 items measuring workload and emphasizing feelings of pressure and stress: "*I feel that the number of requests, problems or complaints I deal with is more than expected*". I adapted the wording of the items slightly, but kept their original number.

Academic activities was another independent variable at the sector level measured by the 8-item scale developed by Bendaraviciene et al. (2014), which focuses more on how satisfied the individual is with the type of academic job, which is exactly the variable shown in the qualitative study (Chapter 4) to determine the mobility decisions of academics. Although the authors reported a Cronbach's alpha of 0.89 in their study, the results of my pilot test showed a lower coefficient – 0.65. I removed 3 items that had lower factor loadings and were more related to career opportunities and work environment or organizational level variables (e.g., "*I have career opportunities in my University*") than to academic activities. This resulted in a 5-item scale with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.76. One of the retained items is "*My job is intellectually challenging*".

The significance of academic job was also an independent variable at the sector level, measured using the original scale developed by Hackman and Oldham in 1974. It's Cronbach's alpha was around 0.70 and consists of three items relating to how important the job is to society, for example: "*This job is one where a lot of other people can be affected by how well the work gets done*".

Academic flexibility was another independent variable in this model at the sector level. It was measured using the scale developed in the study by Al-Rubaish et al. (2011), whose Cronbach's alpha was 0.76. The original scale have 5 items measuring "work itself" but mainly refers to flexibility, freedom and autonomy, which are also among the main characteristics of academic job, and was therefore appropriate for use. For example, one of the original items reads: "*I have freedom of decision how to accomplish my assigned work*".

Academic opportunities to develop new knowledge and skills was another independent variable at the sector level. It was measured using Moynihan and Landuyt's (2008) scale consisting of 2 items with Cronbach's alpha of 0.76: "*Training is made available to us for personal growth and development*" and "*We have access to information about job opportunities, conferences, workshops and training*". The wording was slightly adapted, but the original idea was retained.

Academic specific conditions and requirements was the last independent variable at sector level used in this model. It was measured using the same scale as in the intra-sector mobility model described above.

As for the control variables in this model, gender, age and length of service in the HE sector were measured as described in the previous intra-sector mobility model. Marital status was measured on a scale of 1 to 3, with 1 indicating married or cohabiting, 2 indicating in a relationship and 3 indicating not in a relationship. The number of children supported was measured on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 was having no children under their care, 2 was having 1 children under their care, 3 was having 2 children under their care, 4 was having 3 children under their care and 5 was having more than 3 children under their care. Finally, job position was measured on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 stands for teaching and/or research assistant or equivalent, 2 for post-doctoral researcher or equivalent, 3 for assistant professor or equivalent, 4 for associate professor or equivalent, and 5 for full professor or equivalent.

5.3.3 Methods of data analysis

To analyze the collected data, I performed structural equation modeling (SEM) in JASP, an open-source software based on the statistical programming language R (version 0.19.1, 2024). SEM is one of the most commonly used methods of data analysis in the social sciences, which can simply be understood as a combination of factor analysis and multiple regression modeling (Davvetas et al., 2020). It can also be understood as a combination of a measurement model and a structural model or structural equations (Wang et al., 2017).

The measurement model or factor analysis part of SEM focuses on assessing whether the latent variables in a model are measured appropriately or how the measurement items used to measure the latent variables fit the actual data collected (Saidi & Siew, 2019; Davvetas et al., 2020). For this purpose, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is usually conducted, as this analysis deals specifically with measurement models, i.e., the relationships between measurement items and latent variables (Harrington, 2009; Brown & Moore, 2012). In addition, CFA can be used to assess different types of validity of a measurement model: construct validity, convergent validity, and discriminant validity (Awang, 2014).

Construct validity refers to the extent to which a set of measurement items actually represents the latent variables they are intended to measure (Hair et al., 2009; Saunders et al., 2023). In CFA, this construct validity is assessed by the fit of the measurement model, which is evaluated on the basis of various commonly used fit indices, usually categorized as absolute fit indices, incremental fit indices, and chi-square test (Hair et al., 2009).

Absolute fit indices determine how far the model is from perfect fit (Xia & Yang, 2019; Kenny, 2024). Since they assume that the best fitting model has a fit value of zero, the higher the fit value, the worse the model fit (Kenny, 2024). The absolute fit indices are the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) and the Standardized Root Mean-Square Residual (SRMR) (Hair et al., 2009; Saidi & Siew, 2019; Xia & Yang, 2019). For RMSEA, values below 0.08 indicate an acceptable model fit, while values below 0.06 indicate good model fit (Wang et al., 2017). For SRMR, values below 0.10 are considered acceptable, while values below 0.08 indicate good model fit (Wang et al., 2017).

Incremental or relative fit indices compare the fit of a hypothesized model with that of a baseline or worst-fit model (Taasoobshirazi & Wang, 2016; Xia & Yang, 2019). In other words, these fit indices are analogous to R^2 (Kenny, 2024). R^2 is the number that indicates how well the independent variable(s), or in this case the manifest variable, explains the variation in the dependent variable, or in this case the latent variable (Fernando, 2024). The larger the values, the better the fit of the model (Taasoobshirazi & Wang, 2016; Kenny, 2024). The incremental fit indices are the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) (Hair et al., 2009; Saidi & Siew, 2019; Xia & Yang, 2019). For CFI and TLI, values above 0.90 indicate acceptable fit, while values above 0.95 indicate good fit (Wang et al., 2017).

The chi-square test (χ^2) is unique among the other fit indices in that it is a test of statistical significance (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Schumacher & Lomax, 2010). It basically tests the null hypothesis that the predicted model and the observed data are the same. Since we want our predicted model to match the actual data as closely as possible, this null hypothesis should not be rejected or, in other words, a non-significant result ($p\text{-value} > 0.05$) for this test should indicate a good model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Schumacher & Lomax, 2010). However, this goodness-of-fit index is very sensitive to sample size. The larger the sample size, the greater the chances of obtaining a statistically significant chi-square (Hu & Bentler, 1999;

Schumacher & Lomax, 2010). And since most researchers agree that SEM and CFA should only be conducted with large samples (which usually means hundreds of participants), the significance of the chi-square test is all but guaranteed, even at higher significance thresholds (e.g., p -value < 0.01 or 0.001). Since the chi-square test will be significant in any case, it does not provide useful information (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Schumacher & Lomax, 2010). For this reason, some researchers suggest the use of the relative chi-square test, which is calculated as the ratio between the chi-square value and the degrees of freedom (χ^2/df), which should be between 1 and 5 (Saidi & Siew, 2019).

Table 20 summarizes the described fit indices that are used to assess the construct validity of the measurement model in the CFA.

Table 20: Fit indices for assessing the construct validity of measurement model in CFA

Type of fit index	Fit index	Value	Interpretation
Absolute fit indices	RMSEA	< 0.06	Good fit
		$0.06 - 0.08$	Acceptable fit
	SRMR	< 0.08	Good fit
		$0.08 - 0.10$	Acceptable fit
Incremental fit indices	CFI	> 0.95	Good fit
		$0.90 - 0.95$	Acceptable fit
	TLI	> 0.95	Good fit
		$0.90 - 0.95$	Acceptable fit
Chi-square test	Relative chi-square (χ^2/df)	$1 < \chi^2/df < 5$	Acceptable fit

Source: Wang et al. (2017); Saidi & Siew (2019), own work

Convergent validity is a subtype of construct validity that refers to how closely a measurement item is related to other measurement items that measure the same (or similar) latent variables (Nikolopoulou, 2023). In other words, convergent validity measures whether different items measuring the same latent variable have a high proportion of shared variance (Saidi & Siew, 2019). This is measured by the standardized factor loadings of these items which represent a correlation between the item and the latent variable it measures (Tavakol & Wetzel, 2020), and also assumes that each item is specified to load on only one latent variable (Brown & Moore, 2012). Thus, the higher the factor loadings of the measurement items, the higher their convergence on a common latent variable (Hair et al., 2009) and the higher the convergent validity of the measurement. The suggested threshold for standardized factor loadings is 0.50 (Cheung et al., 2024), which means that factor loadings below this value should be omitted as they negatively affect the convergent validity of a specific measure and the overall measurement model (Saidi & Siew (2019).

Another way to assess the convergent validity of the measurement model is to calculate the average variance extracted (AVE) for the measure of each latent variable (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). AVE explains the percentage of variation in the measure of a latent variable, which is calculated by the sum of the squares of the standardized factor loadings divided by the

number of items measuring that latent variable (Maat et al., 2017). To achieve convergent validity, AVE should be equal to or greater than 0.50 (Hair et al., 2009; Awang, 2014). In other words, it is assumed that convergent validity is given if a latent variable explains no less than half of the variance in the associated items (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 21 summarizes the described values of the standardized factor loadings and AVE used to assess the convergent validity of the measurement model in the CFA.

Table 21: Standardized factor loadings and AVE for assessing the convergent validity of measurement model in CFA

Type of measure	Value	Interpretation
Standardized factor loading (of measurement item)	> 0.50	Acceptable
Average variance extracted (AVE)	≥ 0.50	Acceptable

Source: Hair et al. (2009); Awang (2014); Cheung et al. (2024); own work

Discriminant validity is another subtype of construct validity that determines whether a latent variable is sufficiently different from other latent variables (Saidi & Siew, 2019). This is the case if there are no redundant items in the measurement model, i.e., there are no identical items that measure different latent variables at the same time (Saidi & Siew, 2019). One indicator of discriminant validity is the correlation between latent variables, which should not exceed 0.85. If it exceeds 0.85, this indicates that the two latent variables are redundant or have serious multicollinearity issues (Saidi & Siew, 2019). Another indicator of discriminant validity is the comparison of the square root of the AVE of a measure of the latent variable with the correlations of this latent variable with other latent variables (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The logic here is that a latent variable should explain the variance of its own item better than the variance of the other latent variables, which means that the square root of the AVE of the measure of each latent variable should be greater than its correlations with other latent variables (Saidi & Siew, 2019).

Table 22 summarizes the described values of the correlation coefficients and square roots of the AVE that are used to assess the discriminant validity of the measurement model in the CFA.

Table 22: Correlation coefficients and square roots of AVE for assessing the discriminant validity of measurement model in CFA

Type of measure	Value	Interpretation
Correlation coefficient (between different latent variables)	< 0.85	Acceptable

To be continued

Table 22: Correlation coefficients and square roots of AVE for assessing the discriminant validity of measurement model in CFA (cont.)

Type of measure	Value	Interpretation
Root square of average variance extracted (AVE)	> correlation coefficient with other latent variables	Acceptable

Source: Saidi & Siew (2019); own work

There are also cases in which measurement models fulfill the described criteria for acceptable construct, convergent and discriminant validity and yet may be contaminated by common method bias (Kock, 2015). Common method bias is a type of systematic error that occurs when the same method is used to measure multiple variables in a study. In other words, common method bias often occurs in studies where the data for the independent and dependent variables are collected from the same respondent using the same questionnaire in the same measurement context (Podsakoff et al., 2003). This may be caused by the wording of the questions in the questionnaire or by the tendency of respondents to give socially desirable answers. As a result, the relationships between the latent variables in the model as well as the reliability and validity of the measures can be distorted. For this reason, tests are also proposed to uncover common method bias in CFA. One such test is Harman's single factor test. This is a post-hoc statistical test (i.e., a test that is determined after a study has been completed and data collected) based on exploratory factor analysis (EFA) (Fuller et al., 2016). In this test, the number of factors is set to 1 for all items that make up the measurement scales in a model. If this fixed factor accounts for more than 50% of the variance, this means that there is a common method bias in the study in question (Fuller et al., 2016).

Finally, the structural model or multiple regression modeling as the second part of SEM focuses on the structural or causal pathways between latent variables (Harrington, 2009). In other words, it focuses on the structural model as an extension of the previously tested measurement model. Therefore, the goodness-of-fit indices are calculated again, but this time for the structural model rather than the measurement model. Once the fit of the structural model has been established, the relationships between the latent variables are analyzed. In other words, the structural model part of the SEM tests the hypotheses or estimates the hypothesized effects of the independent latent variables on the dependent latent variables, free from measurement error bias or error bias that occurs in questions of a questionnaire that are items measuring a latent variable (Wang et al., 2017; Davvetas et al., 2020). For this part, the information about the significance of each of the hypothesized relationships between latent variables and the standardized regression coefficients that inform about the strength of these hypothesized relationships are provided.

5.4 Results of a quantitative study

The following subsections present the results of the data analysis methods described. The first two subsections present the results of the “first part” of the SEM. In other words, the CFA for both measurement models (i.e., permanent intra-sector mobility and permanent inter-sector mobility) is presented with details on the goodness-of-fit indices, the assessment of construct validity, and the convergent and discriminant validity for both measurement models.

In the following two subsections, the results of the “second part” of the SEM are presented. In other words, the details of the two structural models (i.e., permanent intra-sector mobility and permanent inter-sector mobility) – i.e., the results of the hypothesized relationships between the latent variables in two models – are presented.

5.4.1 Measurement model of the permanent intra-sector mobility of academics

As mentioned above, the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to determine whether the measurement model or the model used to measure the latent variables in the conceptual model of intra-sector mobility of academics (Figure 20) fits the actual data collected.

According to the described fit indices, the measurement model of permanent intra-sector mobility of academics showed a good fit to the actual data ($\chi^2=2556.425$, $df=890$, $CFI=0.991$, $TLI=0.990$, $RMSEA=0.055$, $SRMR=0.051$), which confirms the assessed construct validity. The comparison of the fit indices of this measurement model with the proposed values is shown in Table 23.

Table 23: Fit indices of the measurement model of permanent intra-sector mobility of academics

Fit index	Proposed Value	Measurement model value	Interpretation
RMSEA	< 0.06	0.055	Good fit
	0.06 – 0.08		Acceptable fit
SRMR	< 0.08	0.051	Good fit
	0.08 – 0.10		Acceptable fit
CFI	> 0.95	0.991	Good fit
	0.90 – 0.95		Acceptable fit
TLI	> 0.95	0.990	Good fit
	0.90 – 0.95		Acceptable fit
Relative chi-square (χ^2/df)	$1 < \chi^2/df < 5$	2.87	Acceptable fit

Source: own work

Further results of the CFA for the proposed mobility model provide information on the standardized factor loadings for each item measuring each latent variable, as well as their z-values. Standardized factor loadings, as defined earlier, are correlations between items and latent variables they measure, assuming that each item loads on only one latent variable (Tavakol & Wetzel, 2020; Brown & Moore, 2012). In other words, two different items cannot load on the same latent variable. Z-values measure how much the value of a measurement differs from 0 (Goss-Sampson, 2020). The more it differs, the greater the z-value. They are calculated as the difference between the individual value of a measurement and the mean value of the same measurement divided by the standard deviation (Issayeva, 2024). Z-values are associated with p-values, on the basis of which the significance of a measurement is calculated (Table 24).

Table 24: z-value and p-value

z-value	p-value
< -1.96 or > 1.96	< 0.05
< -2.58 or > 2.58	< 0.01
< -3.29 or > 3.29	< 0.001

Source: Goss-Sampson (2020); own work

The results of the CFA for the permanent intra-sector mobility model as well as the mean values (M) and standard deviations (sd) of each measurement item can be found in Table 25.

Table 25: Confirmatory factor and reliability analysis for measurement model of permanent intra-sector mobility of academics

Measurement items of intra-sector mobility model	Standardized factor loadings	z-value	M (sd)
Latent variable 1: Internal social ties ($\alpha = 0.85$)			
SOCIN1: In my current organization, I have a strong sense of friendship and team spirit with my colleagues.	0.81	**	4.63 (1.68)
SOCIN2: In my current organization, my relations with colleagues are satisfactory.	0.87	61.65	5.33 (1.48)
SOCIN3: I have good interpersonal communication and cooperation in my current organization.	0.85	62.47	5.23 (1.39)
Latent variable 2: External social ties ($\alpha = 0.80$)			
SOCOUT1: I keep in touch with my former colleagues for professional interests.	0.77	**	4.74 (1.59)
SOCOUT2: If I get to know a person from another organization who could be important to me professionally, I talk to them about our areas of work.	0.71	31.52	5.40 (1.36)
SOCOUT3: I establish personal contacts with people from other organizations.	0.68	31.29	5.47 (1.42)
SOCOUT4: I use business trips and training events (e.g., conferences, workshops, seminars, etc.) to make new contacts.	0.74	32.56	5.29 (1.49)
SOCOUT5: I use my contacts outside my organization to get advice on professional issues.	0.68	31.81	5.00 (1.70)
Latent variable 3: Family ties ($\alpha = 0.60$)			
FAMTIE1: Family is the most important thing in my life.	0.67	**	6.01 (1.38)
FAMTIE2: It is the parents' duty to do their best for their children even at the expense of their own well-being.	0.67	12.50	5.03 (1.65)

To be continued

Table 25: Confirmatory factor and reliability analysis for measurement model of permanent intra-sector mobility of academics (cont.)

Measurement items of intra-sector mobility model	Standardized factor loadings	z-value	M (sd)
Latent variable 4: Job satisfaction ($\alpha = 0.80$)			
JOBSAT1: I am dissatisfied with the job in my current organization.	0.68	**	2.83 (1.83)
JOBSAT2: I am glad I have joined my current organization.	-0.79	-54.40	5.43 (1.60)
JOBSAT3: I feel the job in my current organization to be personally rewarding.	-0.77	-53.17	4.88 (1.63)
JOBSAT4: I enjoy the job in my current organization.	-0.86	-55.79	5.28 (1.54)
Latent variable 5: Work demands ($\alpha = 0.72$)			
WORKDEM1: I have enough time to perform good quality academic research.	0.70	**	3.92 (1.71)
WORKDEM2: The number of hours I have to teach in my current organization is feasible.	0.71	31.35	4.84 (1.70)
WORKDEM3: The amount of administration I am expected to do in my current organization is manageable, given my other responsibilities.	0.71	31.67	3.98 (1.75)
Latent variable 6: Work environment & organizational culture ($\alpha = 0.95$)			
WORKENV1: Work environment in my current organization is collegial.	0.79	**	4.63 (1.68)
WORKENV2: Openness and sincerity are encouraged in my current organization.	0.88	87.58	4.10 (1.76)
WORKENV3: Conflicts are resolved effectively in my current organization.	0.82	83.24	3.66 (1.73)
WORKENV4: Constructive criticism is appreciated in my current organization.	0.84	84.73	3.86 (1.72)
WORKENV5: Ethical standards are followed in my current organization.	0.80	80.36	4.75 (1.70)
WORKENV6: Good atmosphere prevails in my current organization.	0.88	84.08	4.40 (1.70)
WORKENV7: High quality performance culture is being created in my current organization.	0.82	81.91	4.20 (1.64)
WORKENV8: Creativeness and initiative are fostered in my current organization.	0.86	85.89	4.21 (1.61)
WORKENV9: Academic freedom is valued in my current organization.	0.74	73.40	4.95 (1.67)
WORKENV10: I feel like my current organization is very supportive of me.	0.88	86.54	4.19 (1.74)
Latent variable 7: Organizational location ($\alpha = 0.78$)			
ORGLOC1: The location of my current organization is good because I don't have to spend a lot of time commuting.	0.91	**	5.41 (1.96)
ORGLOC2: The location of my current organization is good because it is close to facilities that I use every day.	0.87	30.17	5.07 (1.96)
ORGLOC3: The location of my current organization is good because it is located in or near my home town.	0.75	32.69	4.80 (2.34)
ORGLOC4: The location of my current organization is good because it is located in metropolis or large city.	0.62	27.03	5.31 (1.82)
Latent variable 8: Career opportunities ($\alpha = 0.83$)			
CAROPP1: My current organization provides me with a fair opportunity for promotion.	0.88	**	4.53 (1.81)
CAROPP2: Promotion speed in my current organization is fast.	0.74	51.60	3.20 (1.68)
CAROPP3: The probability of being promoted in my current organization is high.	0.84	55.15	3.89 (1.74)
Latent variable 9: Salary ($\alpha = 0.85$)			
SAL1: Employee incentive system (for loyalty, achievement, etc.) is effective in my current organization.	0.84	**	3.51 (1.74)
SAL2: My current organization offers additional benefits to motivate its academic staff.	0.77	62.15	3.61 (1.84)
SAL3: I am paid enough for my job in my current organization.	0.55	46.26	3.96 (1.81)
SAL4: My current organization appreciates its best academics.	0.90	73.09	4.05 (1.74)
SAL5: My current organization rewards performance results of its academics.	0.81	68.57	4.09 (1.73)

To be continued

Table 25: Confirmatory factor and reliability analysis for measurement model of permanent intra-sector mobility of academics (cont.)

Measurement items of intra-sector mobility model	Standardized factor loadings	z-value	M (sd)
Latent variable 10: Academic specific conditions & requirements ($\alpha = 0.67$)			
ACCOND1: Temporary mobility to another higher education institution is one of the mandatory prerequisites for my academic advancement.	0.74	**	3.53 (1.60)
ACCOND2: Working in the higher education sector offers me many opportunities to temporarily move to another higher education institution and experience what it would be like to work there.	0.70	36.02	4.40 (1.69)
ACCOND3: Working in the higher education sector offers me many opportunities to temporarily move to an organization in a different sector or industry and experience what it would be like to work there.	0.53	30.15	3.44 (1.80)
Latent variable 11: Permanent intra-sector mobility intention ($\alpha = 0.90$)			
INTRAMOB1: I think about leaving my current organization and moving to another higher education institution.	0.94	**	3.06 (2.04)
INTRAMOB2: I am actively searching for an alternative higher education institution.	0.89	58.40	2.28 (1.81)
INTRAMOB3: As soon as it is possible, I will leave this organization and move to another higher education institution.	0.93	59.31	2.27 (1.76)

Notes: All factor loadings are statistically significant at $p < 0.001$.

** = items are constrained for identification purposes.

M = mean; sd = standard deviation.

Source: own work

They show that each measurement item loaded on the respective underlying concept of a latent variable it was intended to measure and that all factor loadings were statistically significant at a p -value < 0.001 . In addition, the values of all standardized factor loadings were above 0.50, which, as described in the previous subsection (5.3.3), is an indicator of the convergent validity of this measurement model (Cheung et al., 2024). In addition, the internal reliability of the measurement scales used was again calculated using the Cronbach's alpha method described earlier. The measurements of all latent variables showed an acceptable level of reliability ($\alpha \geq 0.60$, Table 25).

To further assess the convergent validity of this measurement model, I also calculated the AVE (as suggested in subsection 5.3.3). The AVE results presented in Table 26 confirm the assumed convergent validity as they were 0.50 and above for all measures of all latent variables (Hair et al., 2009; Awang, 2014). To assess the discriminant validity of this measurement model (as described in subsection 5.3.3), I also examined the correlation coefficients between the latent variables, which are presented in Table 26. All of these coefficients were below 0.85, confirming that the model does not contain redundant latent variables or multicollinearity issues (Saidi & Siew, 2019), which is evidence of the discriminant validity assessed. Another test of discriminant validity was also checked (as described in subsection 5.3.3) – whether the square root of the AVE of each measure of the latent variable is greater than the correlation coefficient between that latent and other latent variables. This was also demonstrated, as shown in Table 26, which is additional evidence of the assessed discriminant validity of this measurement model (Saidi & Siew, 2019).

Table 26: AVE, correlations, square root of AVE and mean values of the latent variable measures in the permanent intra-sector mobility model

Variable	IST	EST	FTIE	JSAT	WDM	WEN	ORL	CAR	SAL	AC	MOB
1. IST	0.844										
2. EST	<i>0.507</i>	0.716									
3. FTIE	<i>0.273</i>	<i>0.314</i>	0.707								
4. JSAT	<i>-0.667</i>	<i>-0.351</i>	<i>-0.196</i>	0.777							
5. WDM	<i>0.434</i>	<i>0.290</i>	<i>0.202</i>	<i>-0.516</i>	0.706						
6. WEN	<i>0.747</i>	<i>0.316</i>	<i>0.078</i>	<i>-0.706</i>	<i>0.464</i>	0.833					
7. ORL	<i>0.263</i>	<i>0.229</i>	<i>0.292</i>	<i>-0.270</i>	<i>0.172</i>	<i>0.219</i>	0.797				
8. CAR	<i>0.453</i>	<i>0.279</i>	<i>0.202</i>	<i>-0.461</i>	<i>0.336</i>	<i>0.542</i>	<i>0.181</i>	0.822			
9. SAL	<i>0.500</i>	<i>0.269</i>	<i>0.083</i>	<i>-0.621</i>	<i>0.481</i>	<i>0.732</i>	<i>0.182</i>	<i>0.791</i>	0.784		
10. AC	<i>0.481</i>	<i>0.385</i>	<i>0.221</i>	<i>-0.453</i>	<i>0.431</i>	<i>0.483</i>	<i>0.222</i>	<i>0.708</i>	<i>0.568</i>	0.714	
11. MOB	<i>-0.474</i>	<i>-0.091</i>	<i>-0.289</i>	<i>0.648</i>	<i>-0.235</i>	<i>-0.506</i>	<i>-0.305</i>	<i>-0.449</i>	<i>-0.476</i>	<i>-0.304</i>	0.922
AVE	0.71	0.51	0.50	0.60	0.50	0.69	0.64	0.68	0.61	0.51	0.85
Mean	5.06	5.18	5.22	4.61	4.25	4.29	5.15	3.88	3.84	3.79	2.54
Std. dev.	1.33	1.13	1.27	0.91	1.38	1.40	1.58	1.51	1.40	1.32	1.72

Notes: IST = internal social ties, EST = external social ties, FTIE = family ties, JSAT = job satisfaction, WDM = work demands, WEN = work environment & org. culture, ORL = organizational location, CAR = career opportunities, SAL = salary, AC = academic specific conditions & requirements, MOB = permanent intra-sector mobility intention, AVE = average variance extracted.

Correlations between all latent variables are shown in italics and are statistically significant at $p < 0.001$.

The bolded values on the diagonal are the square roots of the AVE for each measure of latent variable.

The mean values are based on a 7-point scale.

Source: own work

I also applied the Harman's single factor test, which is used to detect common method bias in CFA. As described in subsection 5.3.3, this test is based on an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with a fixed factor for all items that make up measurement scales. If a factor accounts for more than 50% of the variance, this means that there is a common method bias in the study in question. The test applied to the data in this measurement model showed that there is no factor accounting for more than 50% of the variance (max. = 14.09%), indicating that common method bias is not a problem in this model.

5.4.2 Measurement model of the permanent inter-sector mobility of academics

As with the previous model, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to determine whether the measurement model or the model used to measure the latent variables in the conceptual model of permanent inter-sector mobility of academics (Figure 21) fits the actual data collected.

According to the described fit indices, the measurement model of permanent inter-sector mobility of academics showed a good fit to the actual data ($\chi^2=1161.195$, $df=254$, $CFI=0.979$, $TLI=0.975$, $RMSEA=0.076$, $SRMR=0.062$), which confirms the assessed

construct validity. The comparison of the fit indices of this measurement model with the proposed values is shown in Table 27.

Table 27: Fit indices of the measurement model of permanent inter-sector mobility of academics

Fit index	Proposed Value	Measurement model value	Interpretation
RMSEA	< 0.06	0.076	Good fit
	0.06 – 0.08		Acceptable fit
SRMR	< 0.08	0.062	Good fit
	0.08 – 0.10		Acceptable fit
CFI	> 0.95	0.979	Good fit
	0.90 – 0.95		Acceptable fit
TLI	> 0.95	0.975	Good fit
	0.90 – 0.95		Acceptable fit
Relative chi-square (χ^2/df)	$1 < \chi^2/df < 5$	4.57	Acceptable fit

Source: own work

Further results of the CFA for the permanent inter-sector mobility model, presented in Table 28, show that each measurement item loaded on the respective underlying concept of a latent variable it was intended to measure and that all factor loadings were statistically significant at a p-value < 0.001. In addition, the values of all standardized factor loadings were equal or above 0.50, which, as already described, is an indicator of the convergent validity of this measurement model (Cheung et al., 2024). The internal reliability of the measurement scales used was again calculated using the Cronbach's alpha method. All constructs showed an acceptable level of reliability ($\alpha \geq 0.60$, Table 28).

Table 28: Confirmatory factor and reliability analysis for measurement model of permanent inter-sector mobility of academics

Measurement items of inter-sector mobility model	Standardized factor loadings	z-value	M (sd)
Latent variable 1: Academic activities ($\alpha = 0.76$)			
ACACT1: I like the teaching and research aspects of the academic job and find them interesting.	0.50	**	5.61 (1.50)
ACACT2: All aspects of the academic job feel meaningful.	0.73	30.56	4.49 (1.66)
ACACT3: All aspects of the academic job are intellectually challenging.	0.56	27.26	4.97 (1.64)
ACACT4: I can realize my ideas and potential in all aspects of the academic profession.	0.78	31.33	4.73 (1.44)
ACACT5: The academic job meets my abilities.	0.78	31.10	5.59 (1.32)
Latent variable 2: Academic job significance ($\alpha = 0.77$)			
ACSIG1: My academic job is very important for practice.	0.73	**	5.07 (1.50)
ACSIG2: My academic job is one where a lot of people from other industries and sectors can be affected by how well the work is done.	0.76	37.77	4.59 (1.58)
ACSIG3: My academic job is very significant for society in general.	0.78	38.22	4.99 (1.43)

To be continued

Table 28: Confirmatory factor and reliability analysis for measurement model of permanent inter-sector mobility of academics (cont.)

Measurement items of inter-sector mobility model	Standardized factor loadings	z-value	M (sd)
Latent variable 3: Academic job demands ($\alpha=0.79$)			
ACDEM1: I feel that the number of teaching hours and research requirements in my academic job is more than expected.	0.73	**	3.99 (1.90)
ACDEM2: I feel pressured on the academic job.	0.80	27.36	4.06 (1.84)
ACDEM3: I feel that the amount of work I do (teaching hours and research requirements) interferes with how well it is done.	0.56	23.67	4.66 (1.67)
ACDEM4: I feel rushed on the job in academia.	0.84	26.88	4.07 (1.78)
Latent variable 4: Academic flexibility ($\alpha=0.84$)			
ACFLEX1: The academic job gives me the freedom to decide how I do the work assigned to me.	0.75	**	5.41 (1.46)
ACFLEX2: In the academic job, I have a clear idea of the scope of my work and my responsibilities.	0.76	41.73	5.48 (1.42)
ACFLEX3: The academic job allows flexible work procedures.	0.59	35.89	5.60 (1.34)
ACFLEX4: In the academic job, I have the freedom to choose how I perform my duties.	0.80	42.98	5.24 (1.47)
ACFLEX5: I have sufficient professional authority and autonomy in the academic job.	0.86	45.51	5.33 (1.46)
Latent variable 5: Academic opportunities ($\alpha=0.64$)			
ACOPP1: Higher education sector offers me training for my professional growth and development.	0.68	**	4.77 (1.63)
ACOPP2: Higher education sector offers me access to information about job opportunities, conferences, workshops and trainings.	0.76	32.93	5.08 (1.56)
Latent variable 6: Academic specific conditions & requirements ($\alpha=0.67$)			
ACCOND1: Temporary mobility to another higher education institution is one of the mandatory prerequisites for my academic advancement.	0.60	**	3.52 (2.14)
ACCOND2: Working in the higher education sector offers me many opportunities to temporarily move to another higher education institution and experience what it would be like to work there.	0.79	25.49	4.40 (1.69)
ACCOND3: Working in the higher education sector offers me many opportunities to temporarily move to an organization in a different sector or industry and experience what it would be like to work there.	0.58	22.53	3.44 (1.80)
Latent variable 7: Permanent inter-sector mobility intention ($\alpha=0.86$)			
INTERMOB1: I think a lot about leaving the higher education sector/academia.	1	**	2.91 (2.00)
INTERMOB2: I am actively searching for an alternative permanent job outside of academia.	0.98	42.59	2.03 (1.63)
INTERMOB3: As soon as it is possible, I will leave the academia and move to another sector.	0.98	42.06	2.09 (1.70)

Notes: All factor loadings are statistically significant at $p<0.001$.

** = items are constrained for identification purposes.

M = mean; sd = standard deviation.

Source: own work

To further assess the convergent validity of this measurement model, I also calculated the AVE, as was the case with the previous model. To assess the discriminant validity, I also examined the correlation between the latent variables and compared these correlation coefficients with the square root of the AVE for the measures of the latent variables. As shown in Table 29, the AVE values for the measures of each latent variable in this model were 0.50 and above, which is further evidence of convergent validity. In addition, the correlations between the latent variables were below 0.85, with the exception of the correlation between the variables “academic activities” and “academic job significance”, which also partially demonstrates discriminant validity and no multicollinearity. As expected,

the square root value of the AVE for the measures of these variables was slightly lower than their correlations with other latent variables, as was also the case for the variables “academic opportunities” and “academic specific conditions and requirements”, which again only partially supports the discriminant validity of this measurement model.

Table 29: AVE, correlations, square root of AVE and mean values of the latent variable measures in the permanent inter-sector mobility model

Variable	ACT	ASG	ADM	AFX	AOP	AC	MOB
1. ACT	0.707						
2. ASG	<i>0.939</i>	0.756					
3. ADM	<i>-0.265</i>	<i>-0.096</i>	0.738				
4. AFX	<i>0.843</i>	<i>0.547</i>	<i>-0.409</i>	0.762			
5. AOP	<i>0.729</i>	<i>0.609</i>	<i>-0.285</i>	<i>0.630</i>	0.721		
6. AC	<i>0.531</i>	<i>0.530</i>	<i>-0.277</i>	<i>0.479</i>	<i>0.842</i>	0.707	
7. MOB	<i>-0.544</i>	<i>-0.386</i>	<i>0.397</i>	<i>-0.522</i>	<i>-0.508</i>	<i>-0.304</i>	0.899
AVE	0.50	0.57	0.54	0.58	0.52	0.50	0.81
Mean	5.08	4.88	4.20	4.93	4.93	3.79	2.34
Std. Dev.	1.09	1.25	1.41	1.01	1.37	1.32	1.58

Notes: ACT = academic activities, ASG = academic job significance, ADM = academic job demands, AFX = academic flexibility, AOP = academic opportunities, AC = academic specific conditions & requirements, MOB = permanent inter-sector mobility intention, AVE = average variance extracted.

Correlations between all latent variables are shown in italics and are statistically significant at $p < 0.001$.

The bolded values on the diagonal are the square roots of the AVE for each measure of latent variable.

The mean values are based on a 7-point scale

Source: own work

As with the previous model, I have applied the Harman’s single factor test, which is used to detect common method bias in CFA. The test applied to the data in this measurement model showed that there is no factor that accounts for more than 50% of the variance (max. = 7.78%), indicating that common method bias is not a problem in this model either.

5.4.3 Structural model of the permanent intra-sector mobility of academics

As with the previous measurement models, the goodness-of-fit indices are again calculated for the structural models. This time, they provide information on whether our conceptualized relationships between latent variables, which we created based on theoretical findings and previous studies, fit the relationships in the actual data collected (Davvetas et al., 2020).

The results of the structural model of permanent intra-sector mobility of academics showed that the model fits the data well ($\chi^2=3048.846$, $df=1154$, $CFI=0.990$, $TLI=0.992$, $RMSEA=0.051$, $SRMR=0.050$). The comparison of the fit indices of this structural model with the proposed values is shown in Table 30.

Table 30: Fit indices of the structural model of permanent intra-sector mobility of academics

Fit index	Proposed Value	Structural model value	Interpretation
RMSEA	< 0.06 0.06 – 0.08	0.051	Good fit Acceptable fit
SRMR	< 0.08 0.08 – 0.10	0.050	Good fit Acceptable fit
CFI	> 0.95 0.90 – 0.95	0.990	Good fit Acceptable fit
TLI	> 0.95 0.90 – 0.95	0.992	Good fit Acceptable fit
Relative chi-square (χ^2/df)	$1 < \chi^2/df < 5$	2.64	Acceptable fit

Source: own work

As described in subsection 5.3.3, this second part of the SEM focuses on the structural pathways between latent variables or on the relationships between latent variables assumed in the conceptual model (Figures 20 and 21). Therefore, information on the significance of each of the hypothesized relationships (z-values and p-values) and standardized regression coefficients that provide information on the strength of these hypothesized relationships should be provided. For this structural model of permanent intra-sector mobility of academics, these results are presented together with the control variables in Table 31.

Table 31: Test results of the structural model of permanent intra-sector mobility of academics

Hypothesized relationship	Standardized regression coefficient	z-value	Hypothesis supported
H1a: Internal social ties $\Rightarrow$ Permanent intra-sector mobility intention	-0.083	-1.172 ^{ns}	No
H2a: External social ties $\Rightarrow$ Permanent intra-sector mobility intention	0.221	5.942 ^{***}	Yes
H3a: Family ties $\Rightarrow$ Permanent intra-sector mobility intention	-0.158	-3.384 ^{***}	Yes
H4a: Job satisfaction $\Rightarrow$ Permanent intra-sector mobility intention	0.557	11.247 ^{***}	No
H5a: Work demands $\Rightarrow$ Permanent intra-sector mobility intention	0.147	3.229 ^{**}	Yes
H6a: Work environment & org. culture $\Rightarrow$ Permanent intra-sector mobility intention	-0.087	-1.245 ^{ns}	No
H7a: Organizational location $\Rightarrow$ Permanent intra-sector mobility intention	-0.096	-3.860 ^{***}	Yes
H8a: Salary $\Rightarrow$ Permanent intra-sector mobility intention	0.027	0.264 ^{ns}	No
H9a: Career opportunities $\Rightarrow$ Permanent intra-sector mobility intention	-0.246	-2.365 [*]	Yes
H10a: Academic specific conditions & requirements $\Rightarrow$ Permanent intra-sector mobility intention	0.094	1.294 ^{ns}	No

To be continued

Table 31: Test results of the structural model of permanent intra-sector mobility of academics (cont.)

Control variable	Standardized regression coefficient	z-value
Gender $\Rightarrow$ Permanent intra-sector mobility intention	-0.060	-2.104*
Age $\Rightarrow$ Permanent intra-sector mobility intention	-0.107	-2.207*
Housheold income share $\Rightarrow$ Permanent intra-sector mobility intention	-0.075	-2.697**
Length of service in HEI $\Rightarrow$ Permanent intra-sector mobility intention	-0.311	-7.319***
Length of service in HE sector $\Rightarrow$ Permanent intra-sector mobility intention	0.153	2.714**
Type of employment $\Rightarrow$ Permanent intra-sector mobility intention	0.126	4.252***
Model fit statistics		
$\chi^2=3048.846$, $df=1154$, $p<0.001$		
CFI=0.990, TLI=0.992, RMSEA=0.051, SRMR=0.050		
R^2 Permanent intra-sector mobility intention = 0.578		

Notes: * $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, *** $p<0.001$

^{ns} not significant

Source: own work

Of the 4 determinants of mobility at the individual level, external social ties, or those that academics share with others outside their source HEI, and ties to their family showed significant relationships with the intention to permanently move to another HEI (i.e., permanent intra-sector mobility), supporting hypotheses H2a and H3a. Internal social ties or those that academics share with their colleagues, superiors and others within the source HEI did not show a significant relationship with academics' intention to permanent intra-sector mobility, therefore hypothesis H1a could not be supported. There was also a significant relationship between job satisfaction and the intention to permanently move to another HEI. However, contrary to the hypothesis of a negative relationship between these two variables, the data showed a positive direction. Despite the significance of this relationship shown in my data, the direction of the relationship could not be confirmed, so H4a should be rejected.

Of five mobility determinants at the organizational level, three showed a significant relationship with the intention to permanently move within the HE sector: work demands, organizational location, and career opportunities. The direction of the hypothesized relationship was also demonstrated, supporting hypotheses H5a, H7a and H9a. Work environment and organizational culture as well as salary were not significantly related to the dependent variable, so that hypotheses H6a and H8a could not be confirmed.

The only determinant at the sector level, academic specific conditions and requirements, had no significant relationship with the permanent intra-sector mobility intention, therefore H10a should be rejected. As this variable was about temporary mobilities at sector level, more specifically temporary transfers to other HEIs, which are encouraged or even required by the

HE sector in some countries, this means that these temporary mobilities do not have a significant impact on the academics' permanent intra-sector mobility intention.

Taking a closer look at the strength of the significant structural regression coefficients, job satisfaction ranks first among all independent variables that determine permanent mobility within the HE sector at the individual, organizational and sector levels. Although, as mentioned above, the hypothesized negative direction of the relationship between job satisfaction and permanent intra-sector mobility intention could not be confirmed, this independent variable has the largest standardized regression coefficient ($\gamma_{14}=0.56$, $z=11.25$, $p<0.001$). This result underlines that job satisfaction at the current HEI is the main reason why academics consider permanently moving to another HEI. This variable is followed by career opportunities ($\gamma_{19}=-0.25$, $z=-2.37$, $p<0.05$) and external social ties ($\gamma_{12}=0.22$, $z=5.94$, $p<0.001$). The strength of the structural regression coefficients for family ties ($\gamma_{13}=-0.16$, $z=-3.38$, $p<0.001$) and work demands ($\gamma_{15}=0.15$, $z=3.23$, $p<0.01$) was about the same and slightly lower than for the previous variables, while the attractiveness of the organization's location showed the weakest relationship with academics' permanent mobility intention within the HE sector ($\gamma_{17}=-0.10$, $z=-3.86$, $p<0.001$).

As for the control variables in this structural model, all showed a significant relationship with the permanent intra-sector mobility intention. The gender variable was coded in the data so that 1 stands for the male population and 2 for the female population. Its negative relationship to the independent variable therefore shows that male academics had a stronger intention to permanently move to another HEI than their female counterparts. As expected, age was negatively related to permanent intra-sector mobility intentions, meaning that younger academics are more willing to move within the HE sector. Household income share was coded so that 1 represented respondents who were the main wage earners, 2 those who were not, and 3 those who contributed as much as their family members, thus the negative relationship of this control variable with intention to permanently move within the HE sector shows that academics who earn more than their family members also tend to move more.

Length of service at the source HEI was negatively related to the intention to permanently move to another HEI, i.e., those academics who had been at their current HEI for longer were less interested in permanently moving to another HEI. On the other hand, those who had longer experience in the HE sector had a stronger intention to permanently move within the HE sector, as evidenced by the positive direction of the relationship between academic experience and intention to permanently move within the sector. Finally, the type of employment at the source HEI was positively related to the permanent intra-sector mobility intention. This control variable was coded so that lower numbers represent fixed-term contracts at the source HEI (e.g., 1 = fixed-term contract, up to 1 year; 2 = fixed-term contract, 2-6 years, etc.), while higher numbers lead to permanent or open-ended contracts, which means that academics with better employment conditions in the form of longer or even permanent contracts showed a stronger intention to permanently move within the HE sector.

Although, as explained above, the specific conditions and requirements of the HE sector that constituted the temporary mobility options at sector level did not show a significant relationship with academics' permanent intra-sector mobility intentions, I nevertheless wanted to investigate whether their previous experiences with temporary mobility – i.e., temporary mobility as an individual mobility determinant – showed a significant difference in their intended permanent mobility within the HE sector in the future. Accordingly, I also checked whether their previous experience of permanent mobility – i.e., permanent mobility as an individual mobility determinant – showed a significant difference in their intended future permanent intra-sector mobility. To this end, I conducted a Mann-Whitney U test. This is a non-parametric test used to compare two samples or, more precisely, to determine the probability that the values of a dependent variable are different for two independent samples or groups (Saunders et al., 2023). The test assesses the probability that a difference between these two groups occurs only by chance and is often used when the assumptions of the t-test for independent samples are not met (Saunders et al., 2023). Therefore, the test was used for this study to determine whether the permanent intra-sector mobility intention (dependent variable) differs between those who have experienced types of temporary mobility and those who have not. It was also tested whether the permanent intra-sector mobility intention (dependent variable) differs between those who have already experienced types of permanent mobility and those who have not.

I first examined the differences between respondents who had already experienced temporary intra-sector mobility and those who had not. I then examined the differences between respondents who had already experienced temporary inter-sector mobility and those who had not. The results of both tests showed no significant difference in the intended permanent mobility of academics to another HEI based on their previous experience of temporary intra- and inter-sector mobility.

Next, I tested for differences between respondents who had previous experience of permanent intra-sector mobility and those who had not. I also tested whether there were differences between respondents who had already experienced permanent inter-sector mobility and those who had not. The test results showed a significant difference in intended permanent mobility to another HEI (permanent intra-sector mobility) between those academics who had previous experience of permanent intra-sector mobility and those who had not ($U=33368.50$; $z\text{-value}=-3.951$; $p<0.001$). Those who had experience of permanent intra-sector mobility in the past had a higher intention to permanently move to another HEI in the future (mean rank=355.30; median=2.33) than those who had no such experience (mean rank=294.39; median=1.67). The results are shown in Table 32.

However, the test showed no significant difference in intended permanent mobility to another HEI (permanent intra-sector mobility) between academics who had experienced permanent inter-sector mobility in the past and those who had not. In other words, of all 4 types of interorganizational mobility – temporary intra- and inter-sector as well as permanent

Table 32: Differences in permanent intra-sector mobility intentions based on previous experience with permanent intra-sector mobility

Mann-Whitney U test	Test Statistics							
	Permanent intra-sector mobility experience	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Median	U	z-value	p-value
Permanent intra-sector mobility intention	Yes	191	355.30	67861.50	2.33	33368.50	-3.951	<0.001
	No	434	294.39	127763.50	1.67			

Source: own work

intra- and inter-sector mobility – only permanent intra-sector mobility showed a significant difference in terms of academics' future permanent intra-sector mobility intentions.

5.4.4 Structural model of the permanent inter-sector mobility of academics

As with the previous permanent intra-sector structural model, the goodness-of-fit indices are calculated for the structural model of permanent inter-sector mobility of academics. The results showed that the model fits the data well ($\chi^2=1404.904$, $df=398$, $CFI=0.977$, $TLI=0.982$, $RMSEA=0.064$, $SRMR=0.059$). The comparison of the fit indices of this structural model with the proposed values is shown in Table 33.

Table 33: Fit indices of the structural model of permanent inter-sector mobility of academics

Fit index	Proposed Value	Structural model value	Interpretation
RMSEA	< 0.06	0.064	Good fit
	0.06 – 0.08		Acceptable fit
SRMR	< 0.08	0.059	Good fit
	0.08 – 0.10		Acceptable fit
CFI	> 0.95	0.977	Good fit
	0.90 – 0.95		Acceptable fit
TLI	> 0.95	0.982	Good fit
	0.90 – 0.95		Acceptable fit
Relative chi-square (χ^2/df)	$1 < \chi^2/df < 5$	3.53	Acceptable fit

Source: own work

Table 34 shows the regression coefficients and z-values for each of the hypothesized relationships in this model along with the control variables.

Table 34: Test results of the structural model of permanent inter-sector mobility of academics

Hypothesized relationship	Standardized regression coefficient	z-value	Hypothesis supported
H1b: Academic job demands $\Rightarrow$ Permanent inter-sector mobility intention	0.277	6.427***	Yes
H2b: Academic activities $\Rightarrow$ Permanent inter-sector mobility intention	0.211	0.297 ^{ns}	No
H3b: Academic job significance $\Rightarrow$ Permanent inter-sector mobility intention	-0.258	-0.544 ^{ns}	No
H4b: Academic flexibility $\Rightarrow$ Permanent inter-sector mobility intention	-0.199	-0.589 ^{ns}	No
H5b: Academic opportunities $\Rightarrow$ Permanent inter-sector mobility intention	-0.694	-2.899**	Yes
H6b: Academic specific conditions & requirements $\Rightarrow$ Permanent inter-sector mobility intention	0.481	2.457*	No
Control variable	Standardized regression coefficient	z-value	
Gender $\Rightarrow$ Permanent inter-sector mobility intention	-0.025	-0.850 ^{ns}	
Age $\Rightarrow$ Permanent inter-sector mobility intention	-0.128	-2.592*	
Relationship status $\Rightarrow$ Permanent inter-sector mobility intention	-0.008	-0.238 ^{ns}	
Number of supported children $\Rightarrow$ Permanent inter-sector mobility intention	0.084	2.551*	
Job position $\Rightarrow$ Permanent inter-sector mobility intention	-0.237	-6.231***	
Length of service in HE sector $\Rightarrow$ Permanent inter-sector mobility intention	0.103	2.035*	
Model fit statistics			
$\chi^2=1404.904$, $df=398$, $p<0.001$			
CFI=0.977, TLI=0.982, RMSEA=0.064, SRMR=0.059			
R^2 Permanent inter-sector mobility intention = 0.452			
Notes: * $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, *** $p<0.001$			
^{ns} not significant			

Source: own work

As mentioned in the previous subchapter, only determinants at sector level served as independent variables in the design of the conceptual model of permanent inter-sector mobility of academics (Figure 21). Of these, only academic job demands and academic opportunities showed significant relationships with academics' intended permanent mobility to another sector or from academia (permanent inter-sector mobility), supporting hypotheses H1b and H5b. As hypothesized, the demands of the academic job proved to have a positive relationship with the academics' permanent inter-sector mobility intention, while academic opportunities, on the other hand, proved the hypothesized negative relationship with the same dependent latent variable.

The activities, significance and flexibility of the academic job showed no significant relationship with the academics' intended permanent mobility to another sector. Therefore,

hypotheses H2b, H3b and H4b could not be supported. Interestingly, however, there was a significant relationship between the academic specific conditions and requirements and their intended permanent mobility to another sector. Contrary to the hypothesis of a negative relationship between these two variables, however, the data showed a positive direction. This means that the opportunities that the HE sector offers its academics to move temporarily within the sector and to organizations from related sectors and industries do not keep them in academia but make them leave the sector permanently. This result shows an important relationship between the temporary mobility as a determinant at the sector level and permanent inter-sector mobility. However, since the direction of the hypothesized relationship was not confirmed, hypothesis H6b should be rejected.

Looking more closely at the strength of the significant structural regression coefficients, academic opportunities rank first among all independent sector-level variables that determine permanent mobility from HE to another sector. In other words, this independent variable has the largest standardized regression coefficient ($\gamma_{15} = -0.69$, $z = -2.90$, $p < 0.001$). This variable is followed by another variable that is almost as strongly related to the permanent inter-sector mobility intentions of academics – the academic specific conditions and requirements. Although, as mentioned above, the hypothesized negative direction of the relationship between academic specific conditions and requirements and permanent inter-sector mobility intentions could not be confirmed, this independent variable also has a fairly large standardized regression coefficient ($\gamma_{16} = 0.48$, $z = 2.46$, $p < 0.05$). This means that these specifics of the HE sector, which allow academics to move to other organizations within and outside the sector, encourage academics to find a permanent job outside the academia. Another variable that is also significant and quite strongly related is academic job demands ($\gamma_{11} = 0.28$, $z = 6.43$, $p < 0.001$).

As for the control variables in this structural model, not all of them showed a significant relationship with the academics' permanent inter-sector mobility intention. For example, gender and relationship status were not significant for academics' intended permanent mobility from academia. Age showed a significant negative relationship, as was also the case in the previous model of permanent intra-sector mobility, meaning that younger academics are also more likely to be willing to leave permanently the HE sector than their older counterparts. The number of children supported, a variable often used to express respondents' family characteristics, had a significant positive relationship with permanent inter-sector mobility intention. The data were coded so that 1 stood for respondents who had no children under their care, 2 for respondents who had one child under their care, 3 for respondents who had two children under their care, and so on. In other words, those with more children are more likely to permanently leave HE sector.

Job position showed a significant negative relationship with permanent inter-sector mobility. This control variable was coded so that lower numbers represent lower positions in the academic hierarchy (e.g., 1 = teaching and/or research assistant, 5 = full professor). The result thus shows that those in the lower positions, presumably also with fixed-term

contracts, have a stronger intention to permanently leave the sector. Length of service in the HE sector, was found to be positively related to the intended permanent mobility to another sector, which is consistent with the findings of previous intra-sector mobility. This means that longer work experience in academia has a positive influence not only on permanently moving to another HEI, but also to another sector.

Although, as explained above, the specific conditions and requirements of the HE sector that constituted the temporary mobility options at sector level showed a significant relationship with academics' permanent inter-sector mobility intentions, I still wanted to investigate whether their previous mobility experiences (i.e., temporary and permanent mobilities as individual determinants) showed a significant difference in their intended permanent mobility to another sector in the future. For this purpose, I conducted the Mann-Whitney U test as in the previous model.

When examining the experience of temporary intra- and inter-sector mobility, the test results showed no significant results. More specifically, there was no significant difference in intended permanent mobility to another sector (permanent inter-sector mobility) between academics who had experienced temporary intra-sector mobility and those who had not, nor was there a difference between those who had experienced temporary inter-sector mobility and those who had not.

Next, I tested for differences between respondents who had experienced permanent intra-sector mobility and those who had not. I also tested whether there were differences between respondents who had already experienced permanent inter-sector mobility and those who had not. The test results showed a significant difference in intended permanent mobility to another sector (permanent inter-sector mobility) between the academics who had previous experience of permanent intra-sector mobility and those who had not ($U=37159.50$; $z\text{-value}=-2.105$; $p<0.05$). Those who had experience of permanent intra-sector mobility in the past had a lower intention to permanently move to another sector in the future (mean rank=290.55; median=1.33) than those who had no such experience (mean rank=322.88; median=2.00). The results are shown in Table 35.

Table 35: Differences in permanent inter-sector mobility intentions based on previous experience with permanent intra-sector mobility

Mann-Whitney U test	Test Statistics							
	Permanent intra-sector mobility experience	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Median	U	z-value	p-value
Permanent inter-sector mobility intention	Yes	191	290.55	55495.50	1.33	37159.50	-2.105	<0.05
	No	434	322.88	140129.50	2.00			

Source: own work

Interestingly, however, the test showed no significant difference in intended permanent mobility to another sector (permanent inter-sector mobility) between academics who had experienced permanent inter-sector mobility in the past and those who had not. In other words, of all 4 types of interorganizational mobility – temporary intra- and inter-sector as well as permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility – only permanent intra-sector mobility showed a significant difference in terms of academics' future permanent inter-sector mobility intentions.

5.5 Discussion and conclusion

By conducting an online questionnaire and using a relatively large sample of respondents – 625 academics mostly from the field of economics and business – results of this quantitative study provided empirical evidence of the reasons that keep academics at their current HEI and HE sector, and the reasons that lead them to permanently move both within the HE sector and to another sector. Additionally, as this study is based on the existing theoretical insights and the results of studies from earlier chapters of this doctoral thesis, its findings explain the relationships between the multilevel mobility determinants and the permanent types of interorganizational mobility in the HE sector. By examining conceptual models for both types of permanent interorganizational mobility – intra-sector and inter-sector – this study broadens the field of employee mobility, as existing studies in this field mostly focus on only one type of mobility.

The model of permanent intra-sector mobility of academics showed a good fit with the actual data and confirmed that the measures used to observe the latent variables (both independent and dependent) were justified and appropriate. Although the original model tested the effects of 10 different independent variables representing determinants of permanent intra-sector mobility at the individual, organizational and sector levels, 6 of them were found to be significant for academics' intended permanent mobility to another HEI in the future. These were: external social ties (H2a), family ties (H3a), job satisfaction (H4a), work demands (H5a), organizational location (H7a) and career opportunities (H9a).

Looking at the strength of the significant relationships between the independent and dependent variables, job satisfaction ranks first, followed by career opportunities, external social ties, almost equally strong family ties and work demands, and the least strong attractiveness of the source HEI's location. More specifically, the career opportunities offered by the source HEI, the attractiveness of its location and the academics' ties to their family members, which are often also linked to said location, keep the academics at their current HEI and have a negative impact on their intended permanent mobility in the future. These results are consistent with the results of existing studies that also show a negative relationship between these variables – career opportunities offered by the source organization (Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Huang et al., 2006; Wynen et al., 2013; Campbell et al., 2017; S. Lee, 2018; Kost et al., 2020), attractiveness of its location (Sgobbi & Suleman,

2015; Czaller et al., 2021) and employees' ties to family members (Kidd, 1991; Mano-Negrin & Kirschenbaum, 2000; Eby, 2001; Valcour & Tolbert, 2003; Knight & Yueh, 2004; Huang et al., 2006; Valcour & Ladage, 2008; Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016; Ali et al., 2018) – and the interorganizational mobility of employees. Based on the additional classification of mobility determinants from the qualitative study (Chapter 4), these variables can be seen as anchors of the permanent intra-sector mobility of academics.

On the other hand, the ties they maintain with people outside their source HEI and the excessive demands placed on them by their source HEI in terms of teaching, research and/or administration have a positive effect on their intention to permanently move in the future and thus act as push determinants for their permanent intra-sector mobility. These results are also consistent with the findings of existing studies in which these variables – external social ties (Haunschild, 2003; Knight & Yueh, 2004; Randel & Ranft, 2007; Waters & Smith, 2008; Collet & Hedström, 2013) and work demands in source organization (Kim, 2005; Wynen et al., 2013; Omar et al., 2020; Hariyanto et al., 2022; Jayasri & Annisa, 2023; Yikilmaz et al., 2023) – also showed a positive relationship with the interorganizational employee mobility.

However, it turned out that although job satisfaction showed a significant relationship with academics' permanent intra-sector mobility intention, it did not prove the hypothesized negative relationship with the dependent variable. On the contrary, it was found that the more satisfied academics were with their job at their source HEI, the more likely they were to permanently move to another HEI. This is quite a revelation, as the empirical results of previous studies have almost invariably shown that lack of satisfaction is the reason why employees want to leave their current organization (Doering & Rhodes, 1996; Culié et al., 2014; James, 2014; Ali et al., 2018; S. Lee, 2018), which was also confirmed by the results of the qualitative study from the previous chapter. However, this result can be interpreted to mean that overall job satisfaction is related to many other aspects, which in turn can lead to the intended permanent mobility of academics. In other words, the visibility of academics, measured by the quality and quantity of their published work, their increased skills and competence and similar factors may increase their overall job satisfaction, which in turn increases their confidence in the academic labor market and prompts them to find an alternative, perhaps better option within the HE sector, even if they are still satisfied with what they have at their source HEI. However, as the hypothesized direction of the relationship was not proven, this hypothesis (H4a) was rejected.

In addition, internal social ties (H1a), work environment and organizational culture (H6a), salary (H8a) and specific academic conditions and requirements (H10a) did not show significant relationships in this study's model of permanent intra-sector mobility despite their significant relationship with interorganizational employee mobility found in the literature. The reason for this could lie in the countries in which the respondents in the sample are based. About 50% of the respondents live in Eastern European countries, which are characterized by smaller academic labor markets (e.g., Croatia, Slovenia, Slovakia, etc.) or by a generally weaker culture and tradition of interorganizational mobility (Fischer-Souan,

2019), especially when the permanent position is achieved in an organization or when the person is tied to their family and to a specific location. In other words, citizens of these countries are less determined to permanently move even if the work environment and organizational culture or salary at the source HEI are not satisfactory, because they compensate these poor conditions with the security of their academic job or the academic hierarchy.

The model of permanent inter-sector mobility of academics also showed a good fit with the actual data and confirmed that the measures used to observe the latent variables (both independent and dependent) were justified and appropriate. This original model tested the effects of 6 different independent variables representing determinants of permanent inter-sector mobility at the sector level only. Three of these were found to be significant for academics' intended permanent mobility from academia to another sector in the future: academic job demands (H1b), academic opportunities (H5b) and academic specific conditions and requirements (H6b). The academic activities (H2b), academic job significance (H3b) and academic flexibility (H4b) did not show significant relationships.

Looking at the strength of the significant relationships between the independent and dependent variables in this model, academic opportunities come first, followed by academic specific conditions and requirements and least strong academic job demands. More specifically, it is the opportunities provided by academic environment for academics to develop their skills that keep them in the HE sector and negatively affect their permanent mobility to another sector, thus serving as an anchor for their permanent inter-sector mobility. This finding is in line with the findings of some other studies conducted in the HE sector (Penman & Ellis, 2009; Bingwa & Ngibe, 2021; Mampuru et al., 2024). On the other hand, the demands of academic job, which are reflected in overly intensive teaching, publication and administrative requirements, have a positive effect on academics' intended permanent mobility out of the HE sector and thus act as a push determinant. This is also consistent with some other studies conducted in the HE sector (Boyd et al., 2011; Naidoo-Chetty & du Plessis, 2021).

Interestingly, the specific academic conditions and requirements, as measured by the temporary mobility options that the HE sector offers its academics, also acted as a push determinant, despite the initially hypothesized negative relationship between this variable and academics' permanent inter-sector mobility intention. More specifically, based on the previous findings of some studies (Althoff, 2020; Preidienė, 2023) and the results of a qualitative study from the previous chapter, it was hypothesized that temporary mobility options within and outside the sector that the HE sector offers to its academics, or in some countries even requires from them, would keep them in their secure academic positions and negatively influence their permanent mobility out of academia. However, the results showed the opposite, proving that these temporary mobility options offered at sector level do not serve to keep academics in the HE sector, but rather to push them out of the sector. One possible explanation would be that academics' experience of temporary work outside the HE

sector or even in a different academic environment gives them the opportunity to compare different environments first-hand and weigh up their pros and cons, which consequently strengthens their conviction that they can perform well in other industries, leading to their increased intention to move there permanently.

In both models (permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility), age and length of service in the HE sector proved to be control variables that were significantly related to the dependent variable (i.e., the permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility intention). In both models, age was negatively related to the permanent mobility intentions of academics, meaning that younger academics are more likely to move permanently both within and outside the HE sector. In addition, the length of service in the HE sector showed a positive relationship with the intended permanent mobility of academics in both models, meaning that those with longer work experience in the HE sector have a stronger intention to permanently move both within and outside the HE sector. The same findings were also confirmed in the study by Wynen et al. (2013) on mobility within the US federal government. This means that academics with longer employment in the HE sector are also likely to have a better academic profile and visibility, as well as a larger network, especially within the sector, which gives them better opportunities to find an alternative job in academia. They also have a greater general knowledge and better developed skills and competencies that they can more easily transfer to the non-academic sector, which also encourages them to engage in such mobility.

Gender was only found to be significant for the permanent intra-sector mobility model, where the male population is more likely to permanently move to another HEI, which is consistent with the findings of some existing similar studies (Huang et al., 2006; Ituma & Simpson, 2009; Sgobbi & Suleman, 2015; Ugarte, 2017; Amarante et al., 2019). In addition, the length of service at the source HEI had a negative impact on permanent mobility to another HEI, which is also consistent with the results of some previous studies in agriculture (Amarante et al., 2019), finance (Sgobbi & Suleman, 2015), public service (Wynen et al., 2013) and other sectors and industries (Dobrev & Merluzzi, 2018). On the other hand, the type of employment showed that those with better employment contracts (permanent compared to fixed-term or temporary contracts) have a greater intention to permanently move within the sector. This is at odds with some findings in the existing literature (Greenhalgh & Mavrotas, 1996; Campbell et al., 2017; Balachandran & Wezel, 2020; Seo & Somaya, 2021), but may be explained by the academic experience or length of service in the HE sector described above. Those with better contracts tend to be more experienced, have better academic credentials and a higher profile, which gives them better opportunities for other employment and thus also encourages them to permanently move within the sector. Another contradictory control variable in the model of permanent intra-sector mobility was found in household characteristics, more specifically the share of household income. In many other studies, the results have shown that the main earners in the household tend to be less mobile (Kidd, 1991; Mano-Negrin & Kirschenbaum, 2000; Eby, 2001; Valcour & Tolbert, 2003; Knight & Yueh, 2004; Huang et al., 2006; Valcour & Ladge, 2008;

Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016), which was not the case for the academics surveyed, as those who earn more than their family members are also more likely to switch permanently.

In the permanent inter-sector mobility model, those who had more children to care for were more open to permanently moving out of academia, which was also confirmed by the results of the qualitative study (Chapter 4). They have more family responsibilities and therefore find the demands of the academic profession more difficult to cope with, which pushes them out of the HE sector. Those in lower academic positions were also found to have a stronger intention to permanently leave academia, which is consistent with the findings of some other studies also in the HE sector (Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016), legal services (Campbell et al., 2012) and public services (Ali et al., 2018). This positive relationship between job position and permanent inter-sector mobility intention means that academics in lower academic positions also have less experience in the HE sector and fewer connections there, so that the thought of changing careers and the associated permanent mobility costs are less damaging. However, this is at odds with the previously described academic experience or length of service in HE sector being positively related to the permanent inter-sector mobility intention, so these findings call for future research. However, one possible reason could be that there is a turning point in academics' careers where they decide that the loss due to a career change is much greater than the gain and they therefore decide not to permanently move between sectors. Everything that happens before and after this point may complement the career change from different perspectives and thus positively influence the intention to permanently move to another sector.

Furthermore, the results of this study enrich the theoretical knowledge in the field of mobility by explaining the relationship between different types of mobility, with one type acting as a determinant for another type. Temporary mobility at sector level or the temporary mobility options offered by the HE sector to its academics were found to have no significant relationship with permanent intra-sector mobility of academics. However, there was a significant relationship with the permanent inter-sector mobility of academics. In other words, temporary mobility to organizations from a related sector as well as to other HEIs promotes the intention of academics to move permanently from academia to another sector. In other words, the results of this study show that the HE sector itself, by encouraging the temporary mobility of its academics to other organizations, plays an important role in their future permanent movements to another sector, as it facilitates such mobility.

When the same temporary mobility was tested as a potential determinant of mobility at the individual level, no significant results were found for either type of permanent mobility. In other words, the results of the Mann-Whitney U test showed no significant difference in the intended permanent mobility of academics within the HE sector or to another sector based on their experienced temporary mobility within the HE sector or to another sector. However, when the same test was conducted to find out whether previous experience of permanent mobility had an impact on intended permanent mobility in the future, the results for experience of permanent intra-sector mobility were significant. More specifically,

academics who had already experienced permanent intra-sector mobility had a stronger intention to move again permanently within the HE sector in the future. However, they showed a lower intention to permanently move to another sector or outside the HE sector. These results provide empirical evidence for permanent intra-sector mobility as an individual determinant of future permanent mobility of academics, both within the HE sector and to other sectors.

6 COOPERATIVE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MOBILE ACADEMICS' SOURCE AND DESTINATION ORGANIZATIONS

The previous chapters have focused on what determines the different types of interorganizational mobility of academics, while this chapter goes a little further by examining what happens after an academic has left their source HEI permanently. More specifically, it looks at interorganizational cooperation between the mobile academic's source and destination organizations as a possible consequence of their mobility and at factors that facilitate such collaboration. After introductory subchapter 6.1, the methodology of the mixed methods research design used in this chapter is described. Then the qualitative part of the study, followed by the quantitative part of the study, is explained in detail, presenting the process of data collection, data analysis and results. The final subchapter summarizes all the findings and contains concluding remarks.

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapters dealt with the development of a theory-based typology of mobility determinants (Chapter 3) and their adaptation to the HE sector (Chapter 4) as well as the empirical examination of the relationships between these mobility determinants and different types of interorganizational employee mobility (Chapters 4 and 5). This chapter goes a little further and explores what happens after academics decide to make a permanent move from the source to the destination organization, because these permanent moves are often encouraged by previous experiences of permanent mobility, and despite understanding the development and progression of interorganizational mobility in academia, permanent mobility of academics both within the HE sector and to other sectors will never completely disappear. In other words, there will always be academics who decide to leave their source HEIs or the HE sector as a whole permanently (Figuerola, 2015; Chatzky, 2018).

One stream in the existing literature often views such permanent movement as detrimental or an “end state” (Griffeeth & Hom, 2001; Rainey, 2003; Wright & Kim, 2004; Holtom et al., 2008; Shaw, 2011; Hancock et al., 2013) and associates it with the negative impact that employee turnover has on source organization, such as lower performance and loss of expertise (Lambert & Hogan, 2009). The other stream in the existing literature sees the same permanent movement as a possibility that those who have left permanently will eventually return to their source organization (Ship et al., 2014; Carnahan & Somaya, 2015; Chen, 2017; Zucker, 2022). The point, however, should be that organizations are neither struggling with the loss of their valuable employees nor waiting for them to return. Rather, organizations should seek to leverage their relationships with departing employees to build collegial, cooperative relationships with their new destination organizations (Dyer & Singh, 1998; Kale et al., 2000).

Social embeddedness theory (Granovetter, 1985) suggests that social ties that develop between people working in different organizations are one of the most important factors that facilitate interorganizational ties and consequently interorganizational cooperation (Somaya & Williamson, 2008; Somaya et al., 2008; Carnahan & Somaya, 2015). This finding was also supported by my literature reviews, as the co-citation analysis as part of the bibliometric analysis (Chapter 2) revealed that part of the literature in the field of employee mobility has developed around the construct of organizational embeddedness in both social and interorganizational networks that affect various organizational outcomes such as productivity, performance, competitive advantage, etc. (Dimaggio & Powell, 1983; Granovetter, 1985; Boeker, 1997; Uzzi, 1997; Broschak, 2004). A further systematic literature review (Chapter 3) has shown the importance of social ties that develop between people from different organizations working together and cooperating (e.g., supplier companies and buyer/client companies). Not only was this the most frequently cited determinant of interorganizational employee mobility across different sectors and industries, but it was also found to be the basis for interorganizational information sharing and potential cooperation (Collet & Hedström, 2013; Randel & Ranft, 2007).

The logic here lies in the fact that the bond that people have with each other translates into a bond that organizations that employ these people share with each other. In other words, the bonds between the organizations through which cooperation takes place do not exist in a vacuum, but consist of the bonds that the people who work for these organizations share with each other. This cooperation can be more or less formalized, but it always runs through people/employees. This has also been confirmed by Coleman's (1990) social theory, which is based on the idea that the behavior of individuals is fundamentally embedded in the institutions and structures of society. Applied to the organizational environment, this means that individual social capital or social ties make up the interorganizational ties.

This is especially true when a mobile employee moves to another organization but remains in contact with their former colleagues, thereby connecting the two organizations and laying the foundation for their future cooperation (Hjertvikrem & Fitjar, 2020). According to Coleman's theory, this happens because the mobile employee transforms his internal social capital, i.e., the social ties he shared with his colleagues in the source organization, into external social capital, i.e., social ties he shares with others outside the source organization, including the new destination organization (Coleman, 1988). However, some authors point out that such potential cooperation based on the mobile employee's social ties does not occur when mobility takes place between two competing organizations (Somaya & Williamson, 2008; Somaya et al., 2008; Carnahan & Somaya, 2015). In other words, if an employee moves to a competitor, their social ties will not translate into interorganizational ties between these two companies, so cooperation will not occur either. On the other hand, if an employee moves to a partner company (e.g., a buyer or supplier), this will further strengthen the ties between the companies and facilitate their continued cooperation.

While this may be true for many highly competitive sectors such as retail, IT, electronics, pharmaceuticals, etc., the HE sector is quite unique and specific in that its institutions by default act as collaborators rather than competitors, which makes this sector interesting for further analysis. Although cooperation is widespread in the HE sector, formal and sustained partnerships between HEIs are not nearly as common (Duffield et al., 2013). When examining the different aspects of cooperation between HEIs, most research focuses on the international aspect of such cooperation or cooperation between HEIs from different countries (Chan, 2004; Obolenska & Tsyrukun, 2016; Estébanez et al., 2023; Qi et al., 2024), as internationalization is one of the most important strategies for HEIs to respond to global competition and remain sustainable (Cantu, 2013; Soliman et al., 2018). The other aspect of cooperation in the HE sector that existing research mostly focuses on is cooperation between HEIs and organizations from related sectors and industries (Bektaş & Tayauova, 2014; Demirel et al., 2015; Tetreova & Vlckova, 2018; Pacheco & Franco, 2024). This essentially refers to cooperation between HEIs and their partner organizations or collaborators, as such cooperation is seen as another important strategy that HEIs use to achieve graduate employability, influential research outcomes and valuable societal impact (European Commission, 2024). However, academic mobility is also seen as a key strategy to achieve all these goals (Cantu, 2013; Soliman et al., 2018; Sharada et al., 2022) but no research has yet addressed how mobility of academics between different organizations, especially within the HE sector (i.e., between different HEIs), which are by default mutual competitors, affects potential cooperative relationships between these organizations. Or more precisely, what conditions need to be in place for such cooperation to occur as a result of academic mobility. The main question (RQ3) to be answered in this chapter is therefore: *Which factors facilitate cooperative relationships between source and destination organizations of mobile academics?*

Answering the posed question is important as it contributes to the understanding of the key factors that lead mobile academics to cooperate with their former employers, which inevitably corresponds to the main purpose of academic activity, namely the dissemination of knowledge across the boundaries of individual HEIs. Moreover, answering the posed question offers solutions to source HEIs on how best to capitalize on the permanent loss of their valuable academics. It also provides destination HEIs with concrete solutions on how to maximally absorb the knowledge, skills and expertise of newly recruited academics who are sometimes too attached to the routines and processes of their source organizations. Therefore, without creating a bond with the new employee's source organization, the destination organizations fail to maximize the productivity, performance and competitive advantage that the new employee should bring to them (Cantner et al., 2010; Corredoira & Rosenkopf, 2010; Goossen & Carnabuci, 2020; Castellani et al., 2022).

To answer the posed question, I conducted an exploratory study in the HE sector. More specifically, I used a mixed methods approach in the data collection, i.e., I used both the data from the interviews of the qualitative study from Chapter 4 and the data from the online

questionnaire of the quantitative study from Chapter 5. The results of this study have shown that the factors contributing to potential cooperation between the source and destination organizations of mobile academics are located at multiple levels, as are the determinants of mobility, which were examined in detail in this dissertation. In other words, different reasons at individual, organizational and even sector levels facilitate or hinder interorganizational cooperation as a result of permanent mobility of academics.

In the next subchapter, I present the methodology of the research approach used for the purposes of this chapter. The following subchapters and their subsections deal with the data collection and sampling, data analysis and the interpretation of the results, followed by the final subchapter with concluding remarks.

6.2 Methodology of a mixed methods research study

In order to thoroughly investigate what happens after the academic leaves the source HEI, or more precisely, what conditions need to be in place to establish a cooperative relationship between the mobile academic's source and destination organizations, I conducted a mixed methods research study. Mixed methods research designs integrate the use of both quantitative and qualitative data collection procedures and analysis techniques in the same research project (Saunders et al., 2023). Depending on the different possible combinations of quantitative and qualitative research, several mixed methods research designs are possible. A distinction is usually made between concurrent and sequential research designs. In concurrent research designs, qualitative and quantitative methods are applied simultaneously or a single phase of data collection and analysis is used. Sequential research designs, on the other hand, involve more than one phase of data collection and analysis, i.e., one method is used first, followed by another (Saunders et al., 2023). When qualitative methods are followed by quantitative methods, this is referred to as a sequential exploratory research design, while the reverse case (i.e., quantitative followed by qualitative methods) is referred to as a sequential explanatory research design (Saunders et al., 2023). Furthermore, in a mixed methods study, quantitative and qualitative research can be used equally or unequally, i.e., one methodology can play a dominant role and the other a supporting role. This prioritization usually depends on the main purpose of the research (Saunders et al., 2023).

For the research purpose of this study, I used a sequential exploratory research design, as in the first phase I collected qualitative data through semi-structured interviews, while in the second phase I collected quantitative data through an online questionnaire. This approach made sense given the purpose of this study, as by interviewing academics who have experience of permanent interorganizational mobility, I wanted to first explore in more detail their perceptions and the factors that determine cooperation with their previous academic employer. This allowed me to gain some basic insights into this topic, but also left room for additional research, as the general impression was that the sample of academics interviewed

(27) was not large enough. For this reason, it made sense to use an online questionnaire to collect more data.

By conducting the online questionnaire, however, I not only wanted to explain the qualitative results based on a larger sample, but also to explore whether there are other important factors that determine the cooperative relationships between the source and destination HEIs of mobile academics. To this end, I used open or open-ended questions – i.e., questions in which the respondents did not have predetermined answers from the outset, but formulated them on their own initiative. This type of questioning allowed me to ask respondents about their previous behavior or, more specifically, their experience of permanent mobility within the HE sector (i.e., permanent intra-sector mobility). Thus, those who had some experience of permanent interorganizational mobility within the HE sector were asked about the factors that contributed to their cooperation with their previous employer, or the factors that influenced the lack of such cooperation. The method of data collection in this second phase was quantitative (i.e., online questionnaire), but due to the nature of these open-ended questions and the fact that the respondents' answers were in words and thus not numerical, the analysis of these types of questions also met the criterion of a qualitative study. Research in which one method is embedded within another while using a single means of data collection – e.g., some questions in the questionnaire require a qualitative response – is also known as a concurrent embedded design (Saunders et al., 2023). In addition, I also asked the academics about the main reasons for their previous permanent mobility within the HE sector. In this way, I also wanted to examine whether there was a significant difference between respondents who still cooperate with their source HEI and those who do not, based on the reasons they gave as important for moving between source and destination HEIs.

6.3 Qualitative study as the first phase of a mixed methods research design

In the following subsections of this subchapter, I describe the data collection process and sampling as well as the data analysis and data interpretation for the first phase of the mixed methods research conducted – i.e., the qualitative study.

6.3.1 Data collection and sampling

To gain insights into the crucial factors that determine the cooperative relationships between the source and destination organizations of mobile academics, I conducted semi-structured interviews with academics from the field of economics and business who have experience with interorganizational mobility. More precisely, the same interviews that were used for the qualitative study in Chapter 4, where these interviews were described in detail, were also used for the data collection for this study. Although the aim of the qualitative study from Chapter 4 was to explore the main determinants of the different types of mobility in the HE sector, during the interviews I also took the opportunity to ask respondents about the cooperation between their current organization and their previous academic employers and

the reasons that contribute to this, as well as the reasons for the lack of such cooperation. To this end, I targeted respondents who have experienced permanent intra-sector mobility or mobility between different HEIs, as well as those who have experienced permanent inter-sector mobility. For the latter, I focused only on those who had experienced outgoing mobility or a move from academia to another sector to capture whether they were still cooperating with their previous academic employer and the reasons for this cooperation or lack thereof. I was not interested in incoming permanent inter-sector mobilities – movements from other sectors into the HE sector – as the focus was on how HEIs as source organizations establish interorganizational relationships and cooperations with the new destination organizations of their former employees.

As already mentioned (Chapter 4), I used the convenience and the snowball sampling methods, as I recruited the respondents from those I know personally and who fit the sample described. After these respondents learned about the study and the participation criteria, they also put me in touch with their colleagues from various HEIs. The process of conducting the interviews began in mid-June 2023 and lasted until September 2023, during which time I interviewed a total of 27 academics from the field of economics and business. However, not all of them met the given criterion for this study, as 9 of them only experienced temporary interorganizational mobility or permanent inter-sector mobility, but only moved from another sector to academia. Therefore, the remaining 18 respondents formed final sample for the study presented in this chapter.

Their most important demographic, family and employment characteristics were presented and described in Table 10 in Chapter 4. The difference after the exclusion of 9 respondents who did not meet the predetermined criterion for this study (participants: 010, 011, 012, 016, 017, 019, 020, 024 and 025) was in the age range, as the sample for this study was between 29 and 49 years old (the previous sample was between 29 and 58 years old). Average age was also a bit different – 38 in the new sample compared to 41 in the previous sample. There was a slight difference in gender, as the ratio of male to female respondents was slightly lower in the new sample (39% men) than in the previous sample (30% men). The number of countries of residence of the respondents in the new sample was, as expected, lower (8 compared to 13). The number of married and unmarried respondents was almost equal in this sample (8 to 10 respondents). 61% of them had no children. All male respondents in this sample also had a doctorate and worked in the HE sector as assistant professors, associate professors and full professors or in comparable positions. In addition to these academic positions, four female respondents also worked as teaching and research assistants or as lecturers. Two female respondents were no longer working in the HE sector. In contrast to the previous sample, the average total work experience of the female respondents in this sample was slightly shorter than that of their male counterparts (12 to 13 years), and they also had less work experience in the HE sector (9 to 11 years). The average length of service of all respondents in their current organization was 3.4 years.

6.3.2 Data analysis

Since the answers about respondents' cooperations with previous academic employers were given in the same interviews in which respondents were asked about the main reasons for their mobility experiences between different organizations, the data for this study were analyzed in the same way as the data in Chapter 4. More precisely, the thematic analysis described in detail in Chapter 4 was used. I followed Braun and Clark's (2006) six-phase process of thematic analysis, again familiarizing myself with the data in the first phase, but this time only with the data relevant to this study. The second phase was about generating initial codes, while the third phase was about finding the themes within these codes. The fourth and fifth phases were about revisiting and naming the themes found in the previous phase, while the sixth and final phase was about summarizing and interpreting the analyzed data (Braun & Clark, 2006).

After familiarizing myself with the data and reading the interviewees' transcribed responses to the questions about cooperation with their previous academic employer and the reasons for such cooperation or lack thereof (first phase), I began coding the data using MAXQDA 2022 software (second phase). As in the qualitative study from Chapter 4, I also tended to distinguish between the typologies of codes (i.e., a priori and inductive codes as well as descriptive and interpretive codes - Mihas & Odum Institute, 2019). Since there were no previous studies that addressed the exact reasons that facilitate or hinder interorganizational cooperation as a result of employees moving between them, I had no a priori codes, only inductive ones. However, some of these inductive codes were equated with the mobility determinants from the multilevel typology, because what respondents gave as a reason for cooperation with the previous employer, or lack thereof, was almost the same as what they gave as a reason for their mobility (e.g., social ties, work environment and organizational culture, etc.). Examples of some of the codes and short sections of the raw data from my interviews to which these codes were applied can be found in Table 36.

Table 36: Examples of raw data sections from the interviews and the codes applied to them

Data segment from the interview	Code	Code type
<i>I have a relationship with people, not institutions. So the people who stay there, I still do research with them actually, quite a lot of research with them, and that bring me a kind of like collaborations. So most of the relationships are on personal level, not institutional level. (Respondent no. 005)</i>	Social ties	Inductive descriptive code
<i>Well, the main connection that I have with my previous places, or with people at the previous places, is that we have research projects together, so writing papers. (Respondent no. 013)</i>	Ongoing research project	
<i>With previous employer no, there is no cooperation, because there was no research interest that kind of aligned. (Respondent no. 014)</i>	Research interests	

To be continued

Table 36: Examples of raw data sections from the interviews and the codes applied to them
(cont.)

Data segment from the interview	Code	Code type
<i>I do actually a visiting lectures at my old HEI. So I help them with the PhD, students with research and so on. But I do not have an income, like a regular income from them. (Respondent no. 005)</i>	Temporary mobility	Inductive interpretive code
<i>I don't have actually any desire even to work with any people there because I don't think we would... We actually started working on the paper when I was still there, but that just didn't go well. There was like five of us and it was just like each was pulling its own way and we just didn't, that paper just didn't move, so it was just nothing happened. (Respondent no. 007)</i>	Work environment & organizational culture	
<i>There is no cooperation because it's different, this is a public sector, that's the private sector. (Respondent no. 001)</i>	Structural characteristics	

Source: own work

In the third phase of thematic analysis, I searched for the themes in the coded data. As mentioned earlier, some of the codes applied to the data collected for this study were the same as the codes applied to the mobility determinants in the qualitative study from Chapter 4, so different levels could be identified within the codes in this study. In other words, the reasons that mobile academics gave as factors for cooperation between their source and destination organizations could be divided according to the level of analysis. Specifically, they mentioned some things that were related to their personal relationships or their personal interests, characteristics and skills, so these and similar factors were grouped as individual factors. They also mentioned things related to their source HEI, which were grouped together as organizational factors. Finally, they also mentioned things related to the HE sector, which were grouped together as sectoral factors. In other words, the levels of individual, organization and sector, known from the previously established multilevel typology of mobility determinants, became new themes in the data collected in this study (fourth and fifth phase of thematic analysis). The final phase of the thematic analysis, or the summary and interpretation of the analyzed data, is presented in the next subsection.

6.3.3 Data synthesis and interpretation of the findings

Based on the thematic analysis described above, the data were summarized and the results interpreted with regard to the posed research question (RQ3), which is about crucial factors that facilitate cooperative relationships between source and destination organizations of mobile academics. As mentioned earlier, the thematic analysis revealed that the target factors can also be classified at different levels of analysis. Therefore, the results of this study provide a brief multilevel typology of factors that facilitate cooperative relationships

between source and destination organizations of mobile academics, which can be seen in Table 37.

Table 37: Multilevel typology of factors that facilitate cooperation between the source and destination organizations of mobile academics

Individual factors		Organizational factors		Sectoral factors	
Factor	No. of occur.	Factor	No. of occur.	Factor	No. of occur.
Social ties	15	Temporary mobility	9	Structural characteristics	2
Research interests	9	Ongoing research project	4	Σ: 1 factor	Σ: 2
Personal skills & competence	1	Work environment & organizational culture	3		
Additional income	1	Σ: 3 factors	Σ: 16		
Σ: 4 factors	Σ: 26				

Source: own work

The number of mentions of each factor indicates that the cooperative relationship between the academics' current organization and previous academic employer(s) is determined by factors at the individual level. More precisely, most respondents indicated that such cooperation is based solely on personal relationships they share with their former colleagues rather than on some organizational factors, so that *social ties* were the most frequently mentioned individual factor that positively affects interorganizational ties. This suggests the extent to which interorganizational relationships and potential cooperation are rooted in the personal relationships fostered at the individual level. The respondents also indicated that they would continue to cooperate with their former colleagues even if they left their former HEI and moved to a new destination HEI. This is further evidence of what has already been established in the existing literature on this topic: The social ties that the mobile employee brings from the source organization to the destination organization are the foundation upon which interorganizational cooperation can develop (Coleman, 1988; Somaya & Williamson, 2008; Somaya et al., 2008; Carnahan & Somaya, 2015). This is particularly true in the academic environment, where cooperation between individual academics usually leads to new cooperation at the organizational level. The importance of these social ties also justifies why mobile academics as individuals are placed at the center of the whole equation of "cooperation between HEIs", since the latter largely depends on them. On the other hand, the fact that they did not leave good relationships behind when they left their source HEIs was one of the main reasons that prevented potential cooperation at the individual and thus organizational level between two organizations.

In addition to the good relationships they maintain with staff at their source HEIs, they also cited the importance of shared *research interests* or a focus on a particular research field, which opens up a variety of opportunities for them to apply for research grants, win research

projects, publish jointly authored papers, etc. On an individual level, all this raises the profile of the academics and increases their visibility. On an organizational level, it enables the formalization of cooperation between two HEIs involved in the same research project. On the other hand, the lack of common ground in research was cited as one of the most important reasons why mutual cooperation does not materialize.

One respondent also mentioned that his *personal skills and competence*, particularly his excellent teaching skills and expertise in certain areas, have enabled him to stay in contact with his previous employer, who regularly calls on him for his work. The same respondent, also sees this as an opportunity to earn some extra money (i.e., *additional income*). Thus, such personal motivation also has a positive impact on a potential partnership between two organizations, through the intermediary role of a mobile academic.

At the organizational level, the most frequently cited factor was *temporary mobility*. This refers to the opportunity offered by the source HEI to mobile academics to work or cooperate there temporarily after they have moved permanently to another organization. In other words, the offer of temporary mobility for former academics enables the source HEIs to maintain relations with them and possibly also to establish further cooperation with their destination organization. These temporary mobilities usually take the form of guest lectureships. Sometimes a mobile academic may also serve as a member of a committee or editorial board or as a supervisor of students at the source HEI. But even with this organizational factor, social ties again appear as an important mediator, because without the ties that former academics share with people in their source organization, the mere possibility of working and collaborating with each other on a temporary basis would not be possible.

Ongoing research project was also something that connected mobile academics with their source HEI. As these projects were usually formalized and “owned” by the organization rather than an individual, they were classified as belonging to the organizational level.

Several respondents mentioned the *work environment and organizational culture* at their source HEI, which they felt was inadequate and a kind of barrier to potential cooperation. For example, a culture where it was acceptable for people to be involved as co-authors on a paper or project even though they had not contributed to it. Or a generally non-collegial atmosphere that left no room for cooperation.

The only factor mentioned at sector level was mentioned by two respondents who left the HE sector and moved to another sector. *Structural characteristics* were therefore mostly associated with the differences between the HE sector and their new destination sector. One respondent cited them as differences between the public and private sectors, particularly between the large HEI she left and the small private company she moved to, which operate on a completely different basis and have less in common in terms of building concrete relationships. The other respondent mentioned these differences in the sense that she is

moving to a completely different industry that has little to do with her previous work in academia and therefore leaves little room for building concrete cooperation between the former HEI and the new organization from the non-academic sector.

6.4 Quantitative study as the second phase of a mixed methods research design

In the following subsections of this subchapter, I describe the data collection process and sampling as well as the data analysis and data interpretation for the second phase of the mixed methods research conducted – i.e., the quantitative study.

6.4.1 Data collection and sampling

To further explore the factors of the cooperative relationship between the source and destination organizations of mobile academics, I conducted an online questionnaire with academics mostly from the field of economics and business currently working in the HE sector. More specifically, the same online questionnaire that was used for the quantitative study in Chapter 5, the structure of which is described in detail there, was also used to collect data for this study. Although the main purpose of this questionnaire was to test conceptual models of permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility of academics, for which I asked respondents about their potential permanent movements in the future (Chapter 5), I also asked them about their previous permanent mobility experiences and the cooperation between their current HEI and their previous academic employers and the reasons contributing to this, as well as the reasons for the lack of such cooperation. As this questionnaire was only aimed at academics still working in the HE sector and not those who had moved to another non-academic sector, I focused on their experiences of permanent intra-sector mobility. In other words, I wanted to identify the factors that facilitate cooperation within the HE sector – i.e., between different HEIs employing the same mobile academic. Furthermore, I did not focus on the cooperative relationships between the respondents' current HEI and their former non-academic employer, as in this part of the study, as in the qualitative part, the focus was on how HEIs, as source organizations, establish interorganizational relationships and cooperations with their former employees' new destination HEIs. In addition, I also asked the respondents about the main reasons for the change from the source HEI to the destination HEI in the past.

As already mentioned in Chapter 5, I used the convenience and the snowball sampling methods. First, I sent the e-mail with the invitation to participate in a research and the link to the online questionnaire to the respondents I know personally and who fit into the sample described. I also asked them to forward the questionnaire to some of their colleagues, which was in line with the snowball sampling. Once I had exhausted the pool of academic contacts I knew, I turned to new publicly available contacts I found on the official websites of various HEIs. As I wanted to have a sample that reflected the mobility experiences of academics in

different European HE sectors, I randomly selected some business faculties or schools from most European countries.

The data collection started at the end of June 2024 and lasted until the end of September of the same year. A total of 936 responses to the online questionnaire were recorded on the web-based 1KA platform. Of these, 636 were completed and partially completed questionnaires. After the partially completed questionnaires were removed, 625 valid responses remained. However, not all of these respondents met the predetermined criterion for this study – i.e., they had no experience of permanent intra-sector mobility and therefore could not answer the open-ended questions about the cooperative relationship between their current and previous academic employer or the questions about the main reason for their mobility between different HEIs. After refining the sample according to this criterion, 191 out of 625 respondents remained (30.56%). 13 of these 191 respondents did not answer all questions completely, so I removed them. This left 178 valid responses, which formed the final sample for the quantitative part of this study. The descriptive statistics of the sample for this study are presented in Table 38.

Table 38: Descriptive statistics of respondents in the quantitative part of the study

	Academics (n=178)	
Age	Mean (range)	Std. Deviation
<i>Age in years</i>	46.35 (27-74)	9.91
Gender	Frequency (n)	Percentage
<i>Male</i>	103	57.87
<i>Female</i>	75	42.13
<i>Prefer not to disclose</i>	0	0.00
Education	Frequency (n)	Percentage
<i>PhD or equivalent</i>	172	96.63
<i>Master degree or equivalent</i>	6	3.37
<i>Bachelor degree or equivalent</i>	0	0.00
Relationship status	Frequency (n)	Percentage
<i>Married or cohabiting</i>	127	71.35
<i>In a relationship</i>	25	14.04
<i>Not in a relationship</i>	26	14.61
No. of supported children	Frequency (n)	Percentage
<i>0</i>	82	46.07
<i>1</i>	43	24.16
<i>2</i>	42	23.59
<i>3</i>	7	3.93
<i>More than 3</i>	4	2.25
Primary earner in household	Frequency (n)	Percentage
<i>Yes</i>	94	52.81
<i>No</i>	18	10.11
<i>Equal to other family members</i>	66	37.08
Job position	Frequency (n)	Percentage
<i>Teaching and/or research assistant</i>	6	3.37
<i>Post-doctoral researcher</i>	12	6.74
<i>Assistant professor</i>	51	28.65
<i>Associate professor</i>	51	28.65
<i>Full professor</i>	58	32.59

To be continued

Table 38: Descriptive statistics of respondents in the quantitative part of the study (cont.)

	Academics (n=178)	
Length of service in HE sector	Frequency (n)	Percentage
<i>Less than 1 year</i>	1	0.56
<i>1-9 years</i>	45	25.28
<i>10-19 years</i>	65	36.52
<i>20-29 years</i>	45	25.28
<i>30 years and more</i>	22	12.36
Length of service in current HEI	Frequency (n)	Percentage
<i>Less than 1 year</i>	13	7.30
<i>1-9 years</i>	103	57.87
<i>10-19 years</i>	45	25.28
<i>20-29 years</i>	17	9.55
<i>30 years and more</i>	0	0.00
Permanent mobility experience	Frequency (n)	Percentage
<i>No</i>	0	0.00
<i>Yes</i>	178	100.00
<i>Only intra-sector</i>	107	60.11
<i>Only inter-sector</i>	0	0.00
<i>Both intra- and inter-sector</i>	71	39.89
Temporary mobility experience	Frequency (n)	Percentage
<i>No</i>	81	45.51
<i>Yes</i>	97	54.49
<i>Only intra-sector</i>	76	78.35
<i>Only inter-sector</i>	5	5.15
<i>Both intra- and inter-sector</i>	16	16.50
Cooperating with former academic employer	Frequency (n)	Percentage
<i>Yes</i>	123	69.10
<i>No</i>	55	30.90

Source: own work

The respondents were between 27 and 74 years old, with an average age of 46.35 years. There were slightly more male respondents than female respondents – i.e., male respondents made up about 58% of the sample, while female respondents made up about 42%. Only 6 of the respondents have a master's degree, while the rest (96.63%) have a PhD, thus forming a fairly homogeneous group when considering the level of education. The majority of respondents are married or living with a partner (71.35%). However, 46% of respondents (127) do not have children to care for. In other words, they may have adult children who they no longer support financially. More than half of respondents (52.81%) said that they are the main wage earner in their household, while just over a third of them (37.08%) responded that they contribute as much as their family members. Nearly 90% of respondents were evenly split between three academic positions: assistant professor, associate professor and full professor. Only 10% of them were post-docs and teaching and/or research assistants. Just over a third of all respondents (36.52%) had 10-19 years of professional experience in the HE sector. However, more than half of the respondents (57.87%) had not worked at their current HEI for more than 10 years. Of all these respondents, only 71 were permanently mobile both within the HE sector and between sectors (i.e., permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility), while the rest (107 respondents) were only permanently mobile within the HE

sector (i.e., permanent intra-sector mobility). There were slightly more respondents who experienced temporary interorganizational mobility (54.49%). Most of them were only temporarily mobile within the HE sector (78.35%), while 16.50% of them were mobile both within the HE sector and to an organization from another sector while working in academia (i.e., temporary intra- and inter-sector mobility). In addition, almost 70% of respondents stated that they cooperate with their former academic employer.

6.4.2 Data analysis

As mentioned earlier, the responses to the factors that facilitate cooperation between the source and destination HEIs of mobile academics were conducted using open-ended questions that provide the data in words rather than numbers, therefore a thematic analysis was again conducted to analyze this type of data collected. Again, Braun and Clark's (2006) six-phase analysis process was followed, as in the qualitative part of this study described previously, as well as in the qualitative study from Chapter 4.

In the first phase of thematic analysis, I familiarized myself with the data by reading each individual response. 123 respondents indicated that they cooperate with their former academic employer (69.5%), while the rest (55 respondents) had no such cooperation. Accordingly, in the second phase, I divided these respondents into two groups and coded their responses using MAXQDA 2022 software as factors that favor cooperation between HEIs and factors that negatively influence it. Again, I differentiated between the coding typologies (i.e., a priori and inductive codes as well as descriptive and interpretive codes – Mihas & Odum Institute, 2019). For this reason, I examined both groups of respondents and coded their responses based on the already developed multilevel typology of factors from the earlier qualitative part of this study – i.e., social ties, research interests, temporary mobility, work environment and organizational culture, etc. These were all a priori descriptive and interpretive codes. The responses that emerged as new factors were coded using the so-called inductive descriptive and interpretive codes. Examples of raw data from respondents' answers to the questionnaire to which these codes were applied can be found in Table 39.

Table 39: Examples of raw data sections from the questionnaire and the codes applied to them

Data segment from the questionnaire	Code	Code type
<i>Good work relationship with colleagues.</i>	Social ties	A priori descriptive code
<i>Common research interests.</i>	Research interests	
<i>They offer me good teaching opportunity.</i>	Temporary mobility	A priori interpretive code
<i>The dean at that time was a very bad boss and a liar.</i>	Work environment & organizational culture	

To be continued

Table 39: Examples of raw data sections from the questionnaire and the codes applied to them (cont.)

Data segment from the questionnaire	Code	Code type
<i>The reason for lack of cooperation with my previous employer is lack of scientific competence among my former colleagues.</i>	Scientific competence	Inductive descriptive code
<i>X is a small country, thus academics from different institutions tend to have relatively close ties with each other.</i>	Academic labor market characteristics	Inductive interpretive code
<i>Sense of duty, supporting ex-colleagues.</i>	Organizational commitment	

Source: own work

In the third phase of the thematic analysis, I looked for commonalities between the codes used. As with the data from the semi-structured interviews, the data from the questionnaire also showed differences between the levels to which the factors belonged. In the fourth and fifth phases, I grouped the coded factors according to the well-known multilevel approach, i.e., they were divided into individual, organizational and sector factors. The final and sixth phase of the thematic analysis, in which the analyzed data is summarized and interpreted, is presented in the following subsection.

Furthermore, I examined whether there is a significant difference between respondents who cooperate with their source HEI and those who do not, based on the reasons that led them to leave their source HEI. Specifically, I asked respondents to rate on a 7-point Likert scale how important (1 for not at all important, 7 for extremely important) various determinants were for their mobility from their source HEI. The determinants offered were push determinants from the data-based typology (Chapter 4), which have been shown to be important for the permanent intra-sector mobility of academics (Table 40).

Table 40: Push determinants of permanent intra-sector mobility from the data-based typology used in the online questionnaire

Push determinants of permanent intra-sector mobility from data-based typology (Chapter 4)	
Individual determinants	Organizational determinants
Family ties	Type of employment
Internal social ties	Career opportunities
External social ties	Salary
Job satisfaction	Work demands
Previous mobility experience	Establishment of the research field
Academic visibility	Organizational location
	Work environment & organizational culture
	Organizational support

Source: own work

More specifically, I asked respondents how important their family ties, poor social ties with colleagues at the source HEI, dissatisfaction with the job at the source HEI, strong social ties with people at the destination HEI, previous work experience at the destination HEI and their good academic visibility were for their past mobility from the source HEI to the destination HEI. I also asked them how important a fixed-term contract at their source HEI, lack of promotion opportunities at their source HEI, insufficient salary at their source HEI, heavy workload at their source HEI, poor match with the research field at their source HEI, the location of their source HEI, poor work environment and organizational culture at their source HEI, and poor support at their source HEI were for their past mobility from source HEI to destination HEI. I analyzed the data collected on these questions using a non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test. The results of the test are presented in the next subsection.

6.4.3 Results

In this subsection, the results of the quantitative part of this study are split between the results of the thematic analysis mentioned above and the results of the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test.

6.4.3.1 Data synthesis and interpretation of the findings of the thematic analysis

Most of the respondents who formed the final data sample for the quantitative part of this study gave more than one reason for their cooperation, or lack thereof, with their previous academic employer, so each of these reasons was treated as a separate factor in a thematic analysis. As this part of the study focuses exclusively on academics' experiences of permanent intra-sector mobility, these were the factors that facilitate cooperation only between different HEIs and not between HEIs and organizations from related non-academic sectors. Furthermore, as mentioned earlier, some of these factors related to the personal or individual level of the mobile academic, while others were more related to the source or destination HEIs or even to the HE sector as a whole, which allowed for a structuring of the multilevel results of the thematic analysis that can be seen in Table 41.

Although there were the most factors at the organizational level (8 factors), the factors at the individual level appeared most frequently (155 times) in the respondents' answers. As the results of the qualitative part of this study suggest, common *research interests* and *social ties* played the most important role in academics' cooperation with their source HEI after moving to the destination HEI. In contrast to the results of the qualitative part of this study, the results of this quantitative part of the study showed that research interests appeared more frequently than social ties as an influencing factor for the cooperative relationship.

For example, most respondents stated that they cooperate with their former academic employer because they have the same *research interests* as their former colleagues or with what is generally conducted at their source HEI. On the other hand, respondents whose

Table 41: Multilevel typology of factors that facilitate cooperation between the source and destination HEIs of mobile academics

Individual factors		Organizational factors		Sectoral factors	
Factor	No. of occur.	Factor	No. of occur.	Factor	No. of occur.
Research interests	82	Temporary mobility	20	Academic labor market characteristics	1
Social ties	49	Ongoing research project	17	Academic specific requirements for career advancement	1
Individual interests & preferences	14	Work environment & organizational culture	9	Σ: 2 factors	Σ: 2
Work-life balance	4	Research/scientific expertise	8		
Organizational commitment	3	Organizational initiative	8		
Additional income	3	Organizational support	6		
Σ: 6 factors	Σ: 155	Organizational structure	1		
		Organizational location	1		
		Σ: 8 factors	Σ: 70		

Source: own work

research interests no longer overlap with those of their former colleagues did not continue the cooperation. This factor was again placed at the individual level, as it mainly relates to the research interests and field of expertise of the mobile academic. Sometimes, however, it can also be seen from an organizational perspective or as a kind of alignment of the research interests of a mobile person with the research interests of their former HEI.

As expected, *social ties* were another important factor that facilitated cooperation between the mobile academics and their source HEI and therefore also had a positive influence on cooperation between their source and destination HEIs. Respondents indicated that good personal and academic relationships with former colleagues, based on good communication and collegial and efficient cooperation across organizational boundaries, encouraged them to work together. On the other hand, respondents who had lost contact with their former colleagues or whose former colleagues had also left the source HEI cited this as the main reason for the lack of cooperation with their former employer.

Individual interests and preferences were a factor that did not appear in the results of the previous qualitative part of the study. However, in their responses to the questionnaire, several respondents simply stated that they did not cooperate with their source HEI because they have no interest or need to do so. They indicated that this is simply something from the past that they have left behind and that does not align with their current interests.

Some respondents stated that they simply do not have time to cooperate with their source HEI due to their other professional and personal commitments, so *work-life balance* was included as a new individual factor in the typology. They stated that they mainly focus on working with colleagues at their current HEI, which does not leave them enough room to involve people from other HEIs, including their source HEI.

Another new factor introduced at the individual level was *organizational commitment*. Some of the respondents stated that they felt a strong sense of commitment to their source HEI and a sense of loyalty and a kind of duty to be available to their former employer, which prompted them to cooperate with their source HEI even after they had left it.

The final factor at this level of analysis was *additional income*, which was also mentioned in the typology from the qualitative part of this study. Three of the respondents stated in the questionnaire that they cooperate with their source HEI because of the financial incentives and extra income that such cooperation provides.

At the organizational level, *temporary mobility* was the most frequently mentioned factor of cooperation between source and destination HEIs, which was also confirmed by the results of the earlier qualitative part of this study. These temporary mobility options offered by the source HEI to its former employees often serve as a channel through which mutual and consequently interorganizational cooperation is continued. Some of the respondents are still involved part-time or to a lesser extent in many academic activities at their source HEI. Some are involved in guest lectureships, supervisory roles, committee memberships, examination and review activities, etc. Temporary mobility therefore does not always serve as a potential trigger for future mobility, but also as a channel through which interorganizational cooperation can be established and from which the source HEIs can benefit, even if they have lost their academic staff permanently.

Another organizational factor that was already known from the qualitative part of the study was an *ongoing research project*. In other words, some unfinished projects with the source HEI prolong the cooperation. Since these projects usually have more to do with the institution than with an individual academic, this factor is again located at the organizational level.

The next frequently mentioned organizational factor is *work environment and organizational culture*, which also appeared in the interview responses in the previous phase of this study. This factor exclusively concerned the respondents' source HEI. Some of them emphasized that they highly value the work environment and organizational culture in their source HEI and that this has a positive influence on their cooperation. Others stated that a toxic work atmosphere in their source HEI and poor treatment are the main reasons why they no longer want to cooperate with this source HEI.

Another important and newly introduced organizational factor, which was also exclusively related to the respondents' source HEI, was *scientific or research-related expertise*. Several

respondents stated that they do not cooperate with their former employer because they lacked the academic or research expertise mentioned. This is closely related to the previously described research interests at an individual level, but more in the sense that the skills and competence of mobile academics do not overlap with what their source HEI offers, which does not motivate them to extend the cooperation. Therefore, this factor is placed at the organizational level.

Two important newly introduced organizational factors that concern both the source and destination HEIs of mobile academics are *organizational initiative* and *organizational support*. For example, if both the source and destination HEIs did not take the initiative to cooperate and did not support the mobile academics in organizing such cooperation, they did not stand a chance despite their efforts. In other words, not only the initiative and support of the source HEI is important for establishing cooperative relationships, but the same impetus must also come from the destination HEI.

One respondent stated that the overly bureaucratic structure of the source HEI, which places too much emphasis on administrative activities, automatically discourages him from further cooperation. Another respondent mentioned that due to his international career, he is based in a different country from his former HEI, which makes it difficult for him to fully engage in mutual cooperation. Therefore, *organizational structure* and *organizational location*, which only concern source HEIs, were introduced as new organizational factors of interorganizational cooperation.

Finally, two factors were mentioned that could have been located at the level of the HE sector. One respondent referred to the *characteristics of the academic labor market* in his country, which is quite small, making it inevitable for academic institutions to cooperate with each other, as was the case with his source and destination HEIs. The other respondent referred to the *specific academic requirements for career advancement*, which in his HE sector do not necessarily require cooperation between different HEIs and therefore do not motivate him enough to engage in cooperation with his source HEI.

6.4.3.2 Results of the Mann-Whitney U test

As mentioned in the previous chapter (Chapter 5), the Mann-Whitney U test is used to compare two samples or to determine the probability that the values of a variable are different for two independent samples or groups (Saunders et al., 2023). In this study, the Mann-Whitney U test was used to determine whether there is a difference in the reasons that caused academics to leave their source HEI between those who cooperate with the source HEI after moving to the new destination HEI and those who do not.

As already mentioned, I tested these differences using the determinants from the data-based typology from Chapter 4, which proved to be significant for the mobility of academics from the source to the destination HEI (Table 40). Of all the determinants tested, family ties,

internal social ties, job satisfaction, establishment of the research field, work environment and organizational culture, and organizational support showed a significant difference. In other words, there was a significant difference between respondents who cooperate with their source HEI and those who do not, in the assessment of the determinants mentioned as important for their previous permanent mobility from that source HEI. The results of the tests are shown in Table 42.

Table 42: Differences in the cooperation of academics with the source HEI on the basis of mobility determinants

Mann-Whitney U test	Test Statistics							
	Family ties as mobility determinant	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Median	U	z-value	p-value
Cooperation with source HEI	Yes	123	96.42	11859.50	5.00	2531.50	-2.374	<0.01
	No	55	74.03	4071.50	3.00			
Cooperation with source HEI	Internal social ties as mobility determinant	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Median	U	z-value	p-value
	Yes	123	83.93	10323.50	2.00	2697.50	-3.570	<0.05
	No	55	101.95	5607.50	3.00			
Cooperation with source HEI	Job satisfaction as mobility determinant	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Median	U	z-value	p-value
	Yes	123	80.42	9891.50	3.00	2265.50	-3.570	<0.001
	No	55	109.81	6039.50	4.00			
Cooperation with source HEI	Establishment of research field as mobility determinant	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Median	U	z-value	p-value
	Yes	123	82.24	10116.00	2.00	2490.00	-2.892	<0.01
	No	55	105.73	5815.00	3.50			
Cooperation with source HEI	Work environ. & org. culture as mobility determinant	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Median	U	z-value	p-value
	Yes	123	80.47	9898.00	3.00	2272.00	-3.551	<0.001
	No	55	109.69	6033.00	5.00			
Cooperation with source HEI	Organizational support as mobility determinant	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Median	U	z-value	p-value
	Yes	123	80.13	9855.50	3.00	2229.50	-3.682	<0.001
	No	55	110.46	6075.50	5.00			

Source: own work

Respondents who cooperate with their source HEI gave higher rates to family ties as a reason for their mobility from their source HEI ($U=2531.50$; $z\text{-value}=-2.734$; $p<0.01$). Those who did not cooperate with their source HEI gave higher rates to poor social ties with colleagues at their source HEI as a reason for their mobility from that source HEI ($U=2697.50$; $z\text{-value}=-2.246$; $p<0.05$). This result is consistent with the findings from the qualitative part of this study – those who had a poor relationship with their colleagues at their source HEI and moved away from there because of these poor relationships do not cooperate with this HEI. The same applies to job satisfaction – those who do not cooperate with their source HEI gave higher rates to job dissatisfaction in source HEI as a reason for mobility from that HEI ($U=2265.50$; $z\text{-value}=-3.570$; $p<0.001$). As a rule, poor relationships with colleagues and some other organizational determinants also lead to poor job satisfaction, which causes academics to move from the source HEI and consequently does not motivate them to cooperate with that source HEI.

The consistency with the results from the qualitative part of this study was also evident when examining the organizational determinants. Respondents who did not cooperate with their source HEI gave higher rates to poor fit with the research field at their source HEI ($U=2490.00$; $z\text{-value}=-2.892$; $p<0.01$), to poor work environment and organizational culture at their source HEI ($U=2272.00$; $z\text{-value}=-3.551$; $p<0.001$), and to poor organizational support at their source HEI ($U=2229.50$; $z\text{-value}=-3.682$; $p<0.001$) as reasons for their mobility from that HEI. In other words, those who have moved from their source HEI due to a lack of common research interests, poor work environment and organizational culture as well as poor organizational support do not cooperate with the same HEI.

6.5 Discussion and conclusion

The mixed methods study conducted in this chapter provided empirical evidence that mobile academics play a leading role in mediating potential cooperation between their source and destination HEIs. In other words: If there has been no interorganizational cooperation between these HEIs and the mobile employee also does not cooperate with his/her source HEI, there is little chance that such interorganizational cooperation will ever develop. For this reason, it was justified and appropriate to focus on the reasons academics gave for their cooperation with their former academic employer. Moreover, the results of the study showed that the reasons or factors for interorganizational cooperation can be divided at different levels or by applying the multilevel approach. In other words, not only the mobility determinants and effects are classified according to the multilevel principle, but also the factors that contribute to a cooperative interorganizational relationship as one of the possible effects of interorganizational mobility of academics.

Most of the factors were attributed to the individual level, such as the mobile academics' field of research and the match between their research interests and what is being researched at their source HEI, as well as social ties or good relationships they had and continue to have

with people at their source HEI. With the exception of personal skills and competence, all individual factors from the qualitative part of the study also appeared in the results of the quantitative part of the study. The latter also revealed three additional factors that play an important role in facilitating cooperative relationships between the source and destination organizations of mobile academics: the academics' individual interests and preferences, work-life balance, and organizational commitment, which in turn demonstrates the leading role of the mobile academic in shaping the aforementioned interorganizational relationships.

Many of the factors were also considered as organizational factors. As expected, some of these related only to the source HEI, while some related to both the source and destination HEIs. For example, temporary mobility, ongoing research projects, research or scientific expertise, and work environment and organizational culture were only mentioned in relation to the source HEI. Most frequently mentioned were various temporary roles that the source HEIs can offer their departing employees – e.g., guest lectureships, supervisory functions, examination and editorial tasks etc. Ongoing projects or unfinished working papers that mobile academics have at the source HEI also have a positive effect on maintaining the relationship after they have left the source HEI. Furthermore, if the research and scientific expertise as well as the work environment and organizational culture at the source HEI are not satisfactory for the mobile academic, he/she will have no motivation to continue cooperating with it and to mediate a potential cooperation between the source and destination HEIs. The same applies to the organizational structure and location, which are also exclusively related to the mobile academic's source HEI.

On the other hand, organizational initiative and organizational support are two factors that relate to both the mobile academics' source and destination HEIs. Thus, if there is no initiative or support from both sides, the interorganizational ties and cooperation have no basis to build and develop. In addition, the work environment and organizational culture as well as organizational support seem to be important not only to maintain the satisfaction of existing employees, but also have an impact on the employees even if they leave the source HEI. This is because the willingness of the mobile academic to continue cooperating with the source HEI and possibly bridge the gap between the previous and current academic employer depends on the working environment and support he/she had at the source HEI.

At the level of the HE sector, the characteristics of the academic labor market and the academic specific requirements for career advancement can also play an important role in establishing relationships between organizations within the HE sector. The latter factor is particularly important as it provides the HE sector with practical recommendations on how to maximize the opportunity to spread knowledge between different HEIs. In other words: Requiring academics not only to move temporarily between different HEIs in order to achieve a higher academic position, but also to cooperate formally across the boundaries of their current HEI, strengthens ties between HEIs and offers benefits for all parties involved.

Furthermore, the results of the Mann-Whitney U test in the quantitative part of the study show that the same factors that are important for fostering cooperative relationships between the source and destination HEIs of mobile academics are also important for their mobility from the same source HEI. Specifically, this means that academics who moved from the source HEI due to poor ties with their colleagues were unable to cooperate with the source HEI after they left because of these poor relationships. The same applies to the research field, work environment and organizational culture, as well as organizational support. If academics have left their source HEI because their research interests did not match what is generally researched there, or because of the poor work environment and organizational culture as well as the poor organizational support they received from the source HEI, the same factors will prevent their further cooperation with the source HEI after they have left it.

By highlighting the necessary conditions for building a cooperative relationship between the source and destination organizations of mobile employees, the results of this mixed methods study shed new and positive light on the consequences of permanent mobility of valuable employees, which is usually perceived negatively by the source organizations. Using a multilevel perspective allows organizations to directly address the factors at their level in order to turn the loss of their employees into something that could be beneficial for them. Although all these results were obtained in the HE sector, which is quite specific due to its conditions, norms and requirements that are not always transferable to other sectors, all these results regarding mobility determinants and the resulting interorganizational relationships might also be relevant for other knowledge-intensive sectors.

Moreover, this study provides evidence that temporary mobility not only serves as a determinant for other temporary or permanent moves, but that temporary mobility at the organizational level or temporary mobility offered by the source HEI to its former academics also serves to facilitate cooperative relationships between source and destination HEIs through the intermediary role of the mobile employee. More specifically, the option of temporary mobility offered by HEIs to their former employees enables them to maintain contact with these employees and establish cooperative relationships with their new employers. Therefore, it is sometimes the source institution's initiative, or lack thereof, that makes the difference in whether a cooperative interorganizational relationship is established.

7 GENERAL DISCUSSION

In subchapter 7.1, I first summarize the purpose and objectives of my doctoral thesis and the efforts made to achieve them. More specifically, I summarize everything that has been examined and described in the previous chapters – i.e., the research purpose of each chapter, the type of the study and the methods used, the main findings and the contributions to theory and practice. In subchapters 7.2 and 7.3, I highlight the theoretical and methodological contributions of my dissertation and its practical implications. Finally, in subchapter 7.4, I address the main limitations of this dissertation and suggest possible avenues for future research.

7.1 Summary of the main findings of the dissertation

The main objective of this dissertation was to examine the relationships between multilevel determinants and different types of interorganizational mobility in the HE sector. In the introductory chapter (Chapter 1), I presented the main thesis and posed the research questions to be addressed in this dissertation. In order to achieve the main objective of the dissertation, the following steps were taken: a bibliometric analysis of the literature in the field of employee mobility (Chapter 2), a systematic review of the literature in the field of employee mobility (Chapter 3), a qualitative study on the multilevel determinants of interorganizational employee mobility in HE sector (Chapter 4), a quantitative study on the interplay between the different multilevel determinants and types of interorganizational employee mobility in HE sector (Chapter 5), and a mixed methods study on the factors that determine the cooperative relationships between academics' source and destination organizations (Chapter 6). In the following Tables 43, 44, 45, 46 and 47, I summarize the main findings of each chapter, the methods used, the hypotheses proposed and their theoretical contributions and practical implications.

In Chapter 2 (Table 43), I conducted a bibliometric analysis as a quantitative approach to the literature review. The main objective of this chapter was to provide a comprehensive overview of the main phenomenon under study – interorganizational employee mobility – and to examine how it has evolved over time, what the current focus of mobility research is, and what network of key contributors in the field (main authors, affiliations, journals, etc.) forms an intellectual structure of the main phenomenon and other related topics. I found that publications in this field have been active since 1978, with an average of about 7 publications per year. However, most papers (65%) were published from 2010 onwards, with a record of 19 publications in 2020. This means that interorganizational mobility is still gaining interest, as most studies have been conducted and published in the last 20 years, while the entire active era has been between the late 20th century, the first decade of the 21st century and the second decade of the 21st century.

Table 43: Summary of the main findings and contributions – Chapter 2

Chapter 2: Bibliometric analysis of interorganizational employee mobility	
Research objective	• O1: To provide a comprehensive overview of the phenomenon of interorganizational employee mobility. • O2: To examine how interorganizational mobility has evolved over time and determine its current focus. • O3: To identify the network of key contributors in the field of interorganizational mobility (authors, affiliations, journals, etc.) and how this network forms the intellectual structure of the main phenomenon and other related topics.
Study type	• Quantitative literature review.
Methods	• Performance analysis: Publication- and citation-related metrics. • Science mapping: Co-authorship analysis, Co-citation analysis, Bibliographic coupling, Co-word analysis. • Network analysis: Visualization.
Main findings	• Identification of 36 active publication years in the field of interorganizational mobility, with the majority of papers (65%) published in the last decade (from 2010 onwards). • Identification of a relatively low level of collaboration between countries and affiliations in this field – mostly US and Western European affiliations, which are also the most productive (highest number of publications) and influential (highest number of citations) in this field, collaborate with each other. • Identification of the relatively low level of collaboration between authors in this field – only 7.1% of authors have more than 1 publication in this field. • Identification of three main periods of study in this field: late 20th century, the first decade of the 21st century and the second decade of the 21st century. • Identification of the main topics studied in these periods and shift in the focus from labor economic constructs to a more micro or organizational perspective, including a multidisciplinary approach and the call for a multilevel approach. • Identification of the direction in which research on this topic could develop (a comprehensive overview of the multilevel determinants of interorganizational employee mobility).
Theoretical contributions	• Detailed insight into the knowledge base and intellectual structure of the phenomenon of interorganizational employee mobility. • Overview of how the field of interorganizational employee mobility has changed over time and how it has evolved through the major technical and social constructs of individual careers. • Explanation of the critical role of the phenomenon of interorganizational mobility in connecting the fields of labor economics and career development. • Highlighting the issues that are currently in focus and suggesting how they could be explored in the future.

Source: own work

In the late 20th century, the field of mobility mainly referred to labor economic constructs such as employment, labor supply and demand, income, trade unions, etc., where employee mobility was hardly differentiated from turnover. In the first decade of the 21st century, the focus shifted more to the organizational perspective, incorporating micro constructs such as organizational capabilities, performance, structure, etc. This period also saw a heightened awareness that mobility is something that goes beyond simple turnover. Therefore, the focus also shifted to examining the impact of mobility on both the source and destination organizations. The multidisciplinary approach also took hold as the field of mobility began to incorporate topics from psychology, sociology, political science, etc. In the second decade of the 21st century, the organizational perspective and multidisciplinary approach continued, also suggesting that mobility is a multilevel phenomenon and that its concepts should be perceived from a multilevel perspective. It was also highlighted that the determinants of mobility have not been sufficiently studied, while its effects have not been considered from a multilevel perspective, pointing to a further research direction in this field.

In Chapter 3 (Table 44), I conducted a systematic literature review as a qualitative method to review the literature. Its main objective was to comprehensively examine all determinants of interorganizational mobility that have been studied in previous research in different sectors and industries and to create a theory-based multilevel typology of these determinants. Since mobility effects were unavoidable and have mainly been studied so far, I also examined them using the multilevel approach and thus also created a theory-based multilevel typology of mobility effects.

The results of this chapter provided a targeted theory-based typology of multilevel mobility determinants in different sectors and industries, which consisted of: 5 economic-level determinants, 4 sector-specific determinants, 11 organizational-level determinants, and 16 individual-level determinants. They also provided a theory-based typology of multilevel mobility effects in different sectors and industries, which consisted of: 1 economic-level effect, 6 organizational-level effects and 4 individual-level effects. The detailed examination of these mobility factors showed that some of them appear both as determinants and effects of mobility, and sometimes even at different levels of analysis. For example, income/salary as a determinant of mobility is placed at the organizational level, as employees choose to move from/to an organization that offers them worse/better pay. If the same factor is perceived as a mobility effect (because mobile employees subsequently earn a lower/higher salary due to their mobility decision), then this factor is placed at the individual level, as it is a direct amount of money earned by the mobile person.

The results of Chapter 3 also showed that there are relationships between mobility determinants at the same or different levels and that there is a potential hierarchy between them. For example, the organizational location is usually related to some economic determinants, such as government policies and public services, or even to some individual determinants, such as family and household characteristics. Organizational size, on the other hand, is usually associated with sector-specific determinants, such as structural

Table 44: Summary of the main findings and contributions – Chapter 3

Chapter 3: Systematic review of the literature in the field of employee mobility	
Research objective	• <i>O1</i>: To provide a comprehensive overview of the determinants of interorganizational employee mobility. • <i>O2</i>: To synthesize previous findings on mobility determinants in different sectors and industries. • <i>O3</i>: To create a theory-based multilevel typology of determinants of interorganizational employee mobility in different sectors and industries.
Study type	• Qualitative literature review.
Methods	• Systematic literature review – the three-stage process of Tranfield et al. (2003): planning the review, conducting the review, and reporting and disseminating the review
Main findings	• Identification of the studied determinants of interorganizational employee mobility in different sectors and industries at different levels: broader economic, narrower economic or sector-specific, organizational and individual level. • Development of a theory-based multilevel typology of the determinants of interorganizational employee mobility in different sectors and industries. • Development of a theory-based multilevel typology of the effects of interorganizational employee mobility in different sectors and industries. • Disclosure that some mobility determinants can occur simultaneously at different levels (e.g., organizational and individual). • Identification of existing relationships and hierarchy between some mobility determinants at the same or different levels. • Disclosure that some factors can act as both a mobility determinant and an effect (closed loop of interorganizational mobility determinants and effects). • Disclosure of the different types of interorganizational mobility (intra-sector and inter-sector, permanent and temporary).
Theoretical contributions	• Detailed insight into the determinants and effects of interorganizational employee mobility. • Synthesis of previous findings in different sectors and industries. • Development of a comprehensive multilevel framework for the phenomenon of interorganizational employee mobility, encompassing both its antecedents and consequences. • Contributions to the literature on labor economics, migrations and career development. • Enrichment of the mobility literature by revealing the complex nature of the phenomenon of interorganizational mobility. • Applicability and relevance to many different sectors and industries.

To be continued

Table 44: Summary of the main findings and contributions – Chapter 3 (cont.)

Chapter 3: Systematic review of the literature	
Practical implications	• Managers in industries such as advertising, banking and finance, biotechnology, construction, consulting, energy, engineering, food, healthcare, IT and high-tech, manufacturing, media, pharmaceuticals, public and legal services, semiconductors, telecommunications, textiles, etc. should build solid relationships with partner organizations (i.e., buyers, suppliers) and provide their employees with support and skill development opportunities to retain them. • If their employees decide to leave, business leaders in these industries should try to maintain ties with their former employees and build interorganizational relationships with their new employers.

Source: own work

characteristics that distinguish whether the organization belongs to the private or public sector. In addition, the main results of the systematic literature review have shown that some determinants are more strongly associated with interorganizational mobility than others. For example, in some sectors and industries, employees tend to move to lower-status organizations because they receive a better salary and greater organizational support, highlighting the existing hierarchy between mobility determinants. Finally, the results of this chapter also point to the differences that arise when mobility takes place between organizations in the same or different sectors and when it is permanent or temporary. This proved to be particularly important when examining a knowledge-intensive sectors such as HE, where both permanent and temporary movements of academics within the sector and from HE to another sector and vice versa enable the transfer of crucial tangible and intangible knowledge. These conclusions pointed a direction for future research which should take place in such a knowledge-intensive sector, where all these mobility differences should be taken into account.

To further explore the key findings from the literature reviews and to test the so-called theory-based multilevel typology of mobility determinants for different types of mobility in the HE sector as representative of a knowledge-intensive sector, I conducted a qualitative study in Chapter 4 (Table 45). I interviewed 27 academics from the field of economics and business who have experienced at least one of the identified types of interorganizational mobility.

The results of this chapter provided a so-called data-based multilevel typology of mobility determinants in the HE sector which consisted of: 5 economic level determinants (of which 2 come from the theory-based typology), 12 sector-level determinants (of which 3 come from the theory-based typology), 17 organizational-level determinants (of which 9 come from the theory-based typology) and 20 individual-level determinants (of which 12 come from the theory-based typology). Due to the many specifics of the HE sector, the results of this qualitative study have shown that it is necessary to introduce the sector level as a separate level of analysis with the corresponding mobility determinants. Furthermore, the results have also shown that the mobility determinants at each level can also be categorized into different groups: push determinants, pull determinants, anchors and barriers. While push determinants and anchors are related to the source context of the mobile academic – i.e., the source HEI, the source HE sector and the source country as well as the mobile person himself as the source of a mobility decision and action – pull determinants and barriers are related to the destination context of the mobile academic – i.e., the destination HEI or an organization from another sector, the destination HE sector or another sector and the destination country. These findings establish a link between mobility and the field of migration from which the logic of naming these types of determinants was borrowed, and they also empirically support earlier assumptions that interorganizational mobility is indeed a multilevel phenomenon that goes beyond the construct of employee turnover.

Table 45: Summary of the main findings and contributions – Chapter 4

Chapter 4: Qualitative study on the multilevel determinants of interorganizational employee mobility in HE sector	
Research objective	• <i>O1</i>: To extend the findings from the bibliometric analysis and the systematic literature review. • <i>O2</i>: To explore whether the theory-based multilevel typology of mobility determinants in different sectors and industries is applicable to HE as a knowledge-intensive sector. • <i>O3</i>: To explore what determines the different types of mobility (permanent and temporary intra- and inter-sector) of academics.
Study type	• Qualitative exploratory study.
Methods	• Data collection: semi-structured interviews with 27 academics from the field of economics and business who have already had experience with interorganizational mobility, recruited through convenience and snowball sampling. • Data analysis: thematic analysis of the interviews conducted.
Main findings	• Identification of the need to introduce the sector level as a separate and additional level of analysis with the corresponding mobility determinants. • Development of a data-based multilevel typology of mobility determinants in the HE sector. • Identification of 4 different groups of mobility determinants within each level, related to the mobile employee's source and destination context: push determinants, pull determinants, anchors and barriers. • Discovery that some mobility determinants can occur simultaneously in different groups (e.g., push and pull determinants) and at different levels (e.g., individual and organizational). • Identification of the relationship between the exact group of mobility determinants (e.g., push determinants) within each of the proposed levels (e.g., individual level) and the type of interorganizational mobility of academics (i.e., temporary intra- and inter-sector, permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility). • Confirmation of the existing relationships and hierarchy between the different determinants of academics' mobility at the same and different levels. • Discovery that some types of mobility can act as determinants of other types of mobility (e.g., temporary intra-sector mobility as a determinant of permanent intra-sector mobility).

To be continued

Table 45: Summary of the main findings and contributions – Chapter 4 (cont.)

Chapter 4: Qualitative study on the multilevel determinants of interorganizational employee mobility in HE sector	
Theoretical contributions	• Contribution to the lack of qualitative methods in the field of employee mobility. • Providing empirical evidence that interorganizational mobility is a multilevel phenomenon and thus contributing to social cognitive theory. • Development of a more detailed and comprehensive data-based multilevel typology of the determinants of different types of interorganizational mobility in the HE sector. • Providing empirical evidence that there are different groups of mobility determinants within each level, consistent with the migration literature, thereby combining and merging the two fields. • Providing empirical evidence of the differences between the constructs of employee mobility and turnover. • Contribution to the literature in higher education. • <u>Potential applicability and relevance to different knowledge-intensive sectors and industries.</u>
Practical implications	• HEIs should offer various research topics and projects that relate to current issues in non-academic sector in order to attract people from this sector to make a permanent move into the HE sector. • HEIs should build close relationships with non-academic organizations and conduct research with high impact and transferability to the non-academic sector in order to attract people from this sector to make a permanent move to the HE sector. • HEIs should improve their international visibility in order to attract people from the non-academic sector to make a permanent move to the HE sector. • The HE sector should emphasize and improve its specific characteristics in order to attract people from the non-academic sector to make a permanent move to the HE sector: Flexibility in terms of freedom and autonomy to think critically and shape one's own work schedule; specific characteristics of the teaching and research activities of academic job; opportunities to develop new learning and skills, as well as opportunities of temporary mobility that it offers to its academic staff. • The HE sector should provide concrete operational solutions on how HEIs should deal with the temporary mobility of their academic staff, which is one of the most important mechanisms of knowledge transfer within the HE sector.

Source: own work

Further results of the qualitative study from Chapter 4 empirically confirmed the findings from the previous chapter regarding the existing relationships between some mobility determinants at the same and different levels of analysis as well as the hierarchy between them. For example, job satisfaction as an individual determinant was related to many determinants at the organizational level, such as work demands, organizational support, work environment and organizational culture, etc. The analysis of the interviews also revealed that academics considered some mobility determinants to be more important for their mobility decisions than others. For example, the most important push determinants for their permanent intra-sector mobility were the field of research, the type of employment and the work demands at the source HEI. The same determinants were also the most important pull determinants for their choice of destination HEI. It was also found that some mobility determinants can be simultaneously in different groups (e.g., push and pull determinants) at the same or at different levels of analysis (e.g., individual and organizational). For example, the organizational location of the source HEI was sometimes a push determinant and at another times an anchor, while the same determinant observed for the destination organization sometimes acted as a pull determinant and sometimes as a barrier. Temporary mobility as a prior experience was usually a push determinant at the individual level. However, when the destination organization offered the mobile academics a temporary mobility option to their source HEI, this temporary mobility acted as a pull determinant at the organizational level. In other cases, where temporary mobility was perceived as a specific option offered by the HE sector to its academics, it was located at the sector level and sometimes acted as a push determinant or anchor.

Finally, the results of the qualitative study from Chapter 4 revealed the relationships between each group of mobility determinants within each of the proposed levels with the each type of mobility – e.g., the relationships between push determinants at the individual level with temporary intra-sector mobility. It was also shown that one type of mobility can act as a determinant for another type of mobility. For example, both temporary intra- and inter-sector mobilities were found to be determinants of permanent intra- and inter-sector mobilities. In addition, temporary intra-sector mobility proved to be a determinant of temporary inter-sector mobility. Permanent intra-sector mobility proved to be a determinant of temporary intra-sector mobility, while both permanent intra- and inter-sector mobilities determined further permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility.

To further expand on the findings of the qualitative study, to delve deeper into the types of permanent mobility and to empirically investigate the complex relationship between the different types of mobility in the HE sector, I conducted a quantitative study, which is presented in Chapter 5 (Table 46). A semi-structured online questionnaire was used to collect data from 625 academics working mainly in the field of economics and business. The main purpose of the questionnaire was to empirically test the results of the qualitative study or, in other words, to test the conceptual models of permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility of academics. In these models, the intended permanent mobility of academics to another HEI

Table 46: Summary of the main findings and contributions – Chapter 5

Chapter 5: Quantitative study on the interplay between the different multilevel determinants and types of interorganizational employee mobility in HE sector	
Research objective	• <i>O1</i>: To further empirically explore findings from the qualitative study on a larger number of academics. • <i>O2</i>: To delve deeper into the field of permanent mobility types – i.e., which of the push determinants and anchors from the data-based typology influence the future permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility of academics. • <i>O3</i>: To clarify the complex relationship between different types of interorganizational mobility in HE sector.
Study type	• Quantitative explanatory study.
Hypotheses for conceptual model of academics' permanent intra-sector mobility	• <i>H1a</i>: The internal social ties of academics are negatively related to their intended permanent mobility from their source HEI to another HEI. (not supported) • <i>H2a</i>: The external social ties of academics are positively related to their intended permanent mobility from their source HEI to another HEI. (supported) • <i>H3a</i>: The family ties of academics are negatively related to their intended permanent mobility from their source HEI to another HEI. (supported) • <i>H4a</i>: The general satisfaction of academics with their job at their source HEI is negatively related to their intended permanent mobility from their source HEI to another HEI. (not supported) • <i>H5a</i>: The work demands at the academics' source HEI are positively related to their intended permanent mobility from source HEI to another HEI. (supported) • <i>H6a</i>: The work environment and organizational culture in the academics' source HEI are negatively related to their intended permanent mobility from source HEI to another HEI. (not supported) • <i>H7a</i>: The attractiveness of the location of the academics' source HEI is negatively related to their intended permanent mobility from source HEI to another HEI. (supported) • <i>H8a</i>: The salary at the academics' source HEI is negatively related to their intended permanent mobility from source HEI to another HEI. (not supported) • <i>H9a</i>: The career opportunities offered by the academics' source HEI are negatively related to their intended permanent mobility from source HEI to another HEI. (supported) • <i>H10a</i>: The specific conditions and requirements of the HE sector that allow academics to temporarily move to other HEIs and other sectors and industries are negatively related to their intended permanent mobility from source HEI to another HEI. (not supported)

To be continued

Table 46: Summary of the main findings and contributions – Chapter 5 (cont.)

Chapter 5: Quantitative study on the interplay between the different multilevel determinants and types of interorganizational employee mobility in HE sector	
Hypotheses for conceptual model of academics' permanent inter-sector mobility	• <i>H1b</i>: The demands of academic job are positively related to the intended permanent mobility of academics from the HE sector to another sector. (supported) • <i>H2b</i>: Academic activities are negatively related to the intended permanent mobility of academics from the HE sector to another sector. (not supported) • <i>H3b</i>: The significance of the academic job is negatively related to the intended permanent mobility of academics from the HE sector to another sector. (not supported) • <i>H4b</i>: The flexibility of the academic job is negatively related to the intended permanent mobility of academics from the HE sector to another sector. (not supported) • <i>H5b</i>: Academic opportunities are negatively related to the intended permanent mobility of academics from the HE sector to another sector. (supported) • <i>H6b</i>: The specific conditions and requirements of the HE sector that allow academics to temporarily move to other HEIs and other sectors and industries are negatively related to the intended permanent mobility of academics from the HE sector to another sector. (not supported)
Methods	• Data collection: survey – online questionnaire completed by 625 respondents (academics mostly from the field of economics and business). • Data analysis: validity and reliability analysis, common method bias analysis, non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test, structural equation modeling (SEM) including confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).
Main findings	• There was a significant positive relationship between academics' external social ties and the intra-sector mobility intention. • There was a significant negative relationship between the academics' family ties and the intra-sector mobility intention. • There was a significant positive relationship between the job satisfaction of academics and their intra-sector mobility intention. • There was a significant positive relationship between the work demands at the source HEI and the academics' intra-sector mobility intention. • There was a significant negative relationship between the attractiveness of the location of the source HEI and the academics' intra-sector mobility intention. • There was a significant negative relationship between the career opportunities offered by the source HEI and the academics' intra-sector mobility intention.

To be continued

Table 46: Summary of the main findings and contributions – Chapter 5 (cont.)

Chapter 5: Quantitative study on the interplay between the different multilevel determinants and types of interorganizational employee mobility in HE sector	
Main findings	• There was a significant positive relationship between the demands of academic job and the academics' inter-sector mobility intention. • There was a significant negative relationship between academic opportunities and academics' inter-sector mobility intention. • There was a significant positive relationship between the specific conditions and requirements of the HE sector and the academics' inter-sector mobility intention. • There was a significant relationship between gender and the academics' intra-sector mobility intention – i.e., male academics showed a stronger intended mobility to another HEI. • There was a significant negative relationship between age and academics' intra- and inter-sector mobility intention. • There was a significant positive relationship between the number of supported children and academics' inter-sector mobility intention. • There was a significant relationship between household income share and academics' intra-sector mobility intention – i.e., academics who are the main earners in their household show a stronger intended mobility to another HEI. • There was a significant negative relationship between the length of service at the source HEI and the academics' intra-sector mobility intention. • There was a significant positive relationship between length of service in the HE sector and academics' intra- and inter-sector mobility intention. • There was a significant relationship between the type of employment and the academics intra-sector mobility intention – i.e., academics who have longer or permanent employment contracts show a stronger intended mobility to another HEI. • There was a significant negative relationship between job position and academics' inter-sector mobility intention – i.e., academics who occupy a higher position in the academic hierarchy show a lower intended mobility to another sector/outside academia. • It was found that temporary mobility as a determinant at sector level is only significantly related to academics' permanent inter-sector mobility intention. • It was found that temporary mobility as a determinant at the individual level has no significant relationship with academics' permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility intention. • Permanent intra-sector mobility as an individual-level determinant was significantly related to academics' permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility intention.

To be continued

Table 46: Summary of the main findings and contributions – Chapter 5 (cont.)

Chapter 5: Quantitative study on the interplay between the different multilevel determinants and types of interorganizational employee mobility in HE sector	
Theoretical contributions	• Contribution to the field of employee mobility. • Comprehensive and direct insight into the main reasons that keep employees of a knowledge-intensive sector in their current organization and the reasons that lead them to leave both their current organization and the sector. • Contribution to the employee turnover models and literature. • Extension of the existing models of employee mobility by including two types of mobility: permanent intra-sector mobility and permanent inter-sector mobility. • Identification of the factors that need to be included in permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility models. • Explanation of the relationship between the different types of mobility. • Providing empirical evidence that one type of mobility can be perceived as a determinant of another type of mobility at different levels (e.g., individual and sector). • Contribution to the social cognitive theory. • Potential applicability and relevance to different knowledge-intensive sectors and industries.
Practical implications	• The workload of academics should be appropriate so that HEIs can prevent their academics from moving to another HEI or sector. • HEIs should offer academics the opportunity to advance to higher academic positions in order to retain them. • The HE sector should improve opportunities to develop new knowledge and skills to prevent academics from moving to another sector. • HEIs should build close relationships and cooperate with non-academic organizations to mitigate the potential negative consequences of the permanent inter-sector mobility of their academics.

Source: own work

and the intended permanent mobility to another sector were used as dependent variables instead of the actual mobility experiences in the past. This is usually done when studying mobility or similar movements (e.g., migration), as intention itself usually precedes and is the best predictor of actual movements and also allows for a quantitative study to be conducted with a larger number of participants (Mobley et al., 1979; Griffeth et al., 2000; Van Breukelen et al., 2004; Wynen et al., 2013). In addition, the push determinants and anchors from the qualitative study were used as independent variables in both models.

The results of the permanent intra-sector mobility model from Chapter 5 showed that significant push determinants for the academics' permanent intra-sector mobility intention are external social ties, job satisfaction and work demands in the source HEI, while significant anchors for the same mobility are family ties, the location of the source HEI and the career opportunities offered by the source HEI. More specifically, it is the contacts that academics maintain with other people outside their source HEI, the general satisfaction with the job at their source HEI, and the work demands in terms of teaching hours and publication requirements that the source HEI places on them that push them to permanently move to another HEI. On the other hand, the relationships with their family members, the attractiveness of the location of their source HEI and the career opportunities it offers in terms of the possibility of a higher academic position keep them where they are and have a negative impact on their intended permanent mobility to another HEI.

The results of the permanent inter-sector mobility model from Chapter 5 showed that significant push determinants of academics' permanent inter-sector mobility intention are the academic job demands and the academic specific conditions and requirements, which are perceived as temporary mobility options offered by the HE sector. An important anchor for the same mobility are the academic opportunities. More specifically, the general demands of the academic job and the temporary mobility options that the HE sector offers them push academics to permanently move to another sector, while fruitful academic opportunities that strengthen their skills and competence keep them in the HE sector and negatively affect their intended permanent mobility to another sector.

In terms of socio-demographic determinants, a significant relationship was found between gender and the academics' permanent intra-sector mobility intention, with male respondents showing a stronger intended permanent mobility to another HEI than their female counterparts. Age is significantly negatively related to the both permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility intention, meaning that younger academics are more likely to move permanently both to another HEI and to another sector/outside academia. In terms of family-related factors, household characteristics showed a significant relationship with permanent intra-sector mobility, i.e. academics who are the main earners in the household had a stronger intention to permanently move to another HEI. Those with more children to care for showed a significantly stronger intention to permanently move to another sector/outside academia.

Of the employment characteristics, length of service at the source HEI was negatively related to the permanent intra-sector mobility intention – i.e., academics who had worked longer at their source HEI showed a lower intended permanent mobility to another HEI. The length of service in the HE sector, on the other hand, showed a significant positive relationship with the intended permanent mobility both within and between sectors. This means that academics with longer academic experience showed a stronger intention to move permanently both to another HEI and to another sector. The type of employment was significantly related to the permanent intra-sector mobility intention – those who had longer or permanent contracts showed a stronger intended permanent mobility to another HEI. On the other hand, those who held a higher position in the academic hierarchy showed a lower intended permanent mobility to another sector/outside academia.

Regarding the complex relationship between the different types of mobility, it was found that temporary mobility as a determinant at the sector level was only significant for academics' intended permanent mobility to another sector. In other words, the opportunities offered by the HE sector to academics to temporarily move to another HEI, as well as the organization of another sector, push them to move to another sector permanently. Temporary mobility as a determinant at the individual level, perceived through previous personal experience, did not show a significant relationship with any of the types of permanent mobility. However, experience with permanent mobility, particularly intra-sector type, was significantly related to both the intended permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility in the future. In other words, there was a significant difference in the intended permanent mobility to another HEI between those who had already experienced permanent intra-sector mobility and those who had not. Those who had had this experience had a stronger intention to move again permanently within the HE sector. There was also a significant difference in the intended permanent mobility to another sector between those who had already experienced permanent intra-sector mobility and those who had not. Those who had had this experience had a weaker intention to move permanently to another sector and leave academia.

The main objective of Chapter 6 was to explore how the permanent mobility of academics affects the creation of a cooperative relationship between their source and destination organizations. Or more specifically, what factors or conditions need to be in place to facilitate cooperation between the source and destination organizations of mobile academics (Table 47). To this end, a mixed methods research design was conducted. More specifically, a sequential exploratory research design was used, as a qualitative study was conducted in the first phase, while a quantitative study was conducted in the following phase. In the first phase of this mixed methods research design, the data from the semi-structured interviews from the qualitative study in Chapter 4 were used, while in the second phase, the data from the online questionnaire of the quantitative study in Chapter 5 were used. In addition, respondents were asked about their previous experiences of permanent mobility and the resulting cooperation with previous academic employers, as well as the main reasons for such cooperation or lack thereof.

Table 47: Summary of the main findings and contributions – Chapter 6

Chapter 6: Mixed methods research study on the factors that determine the cooperative relationships between academics' source and destination organizations	
Research objective	• <i>O1</i>: To explore how mobility of academics between different organizations, especially within the HE sector (i.e., between different HEIs) affects potential cooperative relationships between these organizations. • <i>O2</i>: To identify the factors that facilitate cooperation between the source and destination higher education institutions of mobile academics.
Study type	• Sequential exploratory research design – i.e., qualitative study followed by quantitative study.
Methods	• Data collection: semi-structured interviews with 27 academics from the field of economics and business who have already had experience with interorganizational mobility. 18 of respondents met the specified criteria – they have had experience with type of permanent interorganizational mobility – and formed the final sample for the qualitative part of the study. • Data analysis: thematic analysis of the interviews conducted. • Data collection: survey – online questionnaire completed by 625 respondents (academics mostly from the field of economics and business). 178 respondents met the specified criteria – they have had experience with permanent intra-sector mobility – and formed the final sample for the quantitative part of the study. • Data analysis: thematic analysis, non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test.
Main findings	• Mobile academics were found to play a leading role in mediating potential cooperation between their source and destination HEIs. • Development of a multilevel typology of factors that facilitate cooperation between the source and destination HEIs of mobile academics, consisting of: 2 sector-level factors, 8 organizational-level factors, and 6 individual-level factors. • Discovery that temporary mobility options offered by source HEIs to their former employees are one of the key factors facilitating a cooperative relationship between these HEIs and the new destination organizations of their former academics.
Theoretical contributions	• Contribution to the field of employee mobility. • Explanation of the relationship between the different types of mobility. • Development of a multilevel typology of factors that facilitate cooperative relationships between the source and destination organizations of mobile employees. • Contribution to the literature on interorganizational relationships and strategic human resource management. • Potential applicability and relevance to different knowledge-intensive sectors and industries.

To be continued

Table 47: Summary of the main findings and contributions – Chapter 6 (cont.)

Chapter 6: Mixed methods research study on the factors that determine the cooperative relationships between academics' source and destination organizations	
Practical implications	• HEIs should nurture relationships with their outgoing academics by offering them a temporary mobility option, which would subsequently lead them to build interorganizational relationships with their former academics' new destination HEIs. • HEIs should focus on improving their research excellence, as this makes them an attractive partner for interorganizational cooperation. • HEIs should focus on their work environment and organizational culture, as well as the support they provide to its academic staff, as these factors are important not only for current employees, but also for former employees, as the latter decide whether to stay in touch with their source HEI based on the atmosphere they experienced and support they received there, thus paving the way for new interorganizational cooperation.

Source: own work

The results of both phases of the study (i.e., quantitative and qualitative) showed that mobile academics play a crucial role in mediating potential cooperation between their source and destination HEIs. In other words: If they do not have a relationships with their former academic employer, the chances of establishing cooperative relationships at the organizational level are insignificant. Based on the thematic analysis of the academics' responses, a multilevel typology of factors that facilitate cooperative interorganizational relationships was created. It consisted of: 2 sector-level factors, such as characteristics of the academic labor market and academic specific requirements for career advancement; 8 organizational-level factors, such as temporary mobility options offered by the source HEI, ongoing projects with the source HEI, work environment and organizational culture in the source HEI, research and academic expertise of the source HEI, organizational initiative of both the source and destination HEIs, etc.; and 6 individual-level factors, such as common research field and interests between the mobile academic and the source HEI, common social ties with former colleagues, etc.

In addition to the thematic analysis, the results of the Mann-Whitney U test in the quantitative part of the study also showed that the same factors that are important for promoting cooperative relationships between the source and destination HEIs of mobile academics are also important for their mobility from the same source HEI. Specifically, this means that academics who moved away from the source HEI due to poor ties with their colleagues were unable to cooperate with this source HEI after their departure due to these poor relationships. The same applies to the research field, work environment and organizational culture, as well as organizational support. In addition, this study found that the temporary mobility offered by HEIs to their current and former academics is not only a determining factor for further permanent mobility, but also plays a crucial role at the organizational level, facilitating cooperative relationships between the mobile academics' source and destination HEIs.

7.2 Theoretical contributions of the dissertation

The theoretical contributions of this dissertation are summarized in the previously presented tables (Tables 43-47) of subchapter 7.1, while they are explained in more detail in the following text of this subchapter.

This dissertation is a further step towards understanding the phenomenon of interorganizational employee mobility in general and mobility in the HE sector. It makes several contributions to the mobility literature and the related turnover theory, as well as to the related fields of labor economics and career development. To my knowledge, there is no study to date that has comprehensively investigated the phenomenon of interorganizational employee mobility as such and in distinction to the concept of employee turnover. The bibliometric analysis as a quantitative approach to the literature review (Chapter 2) provided an overview of the field of employee mobility in general and highlighted how it has evolved

over time as well as the knowledge base and intellectual structure of the targeted phenomenon, which directly enriches the mobility literature. This helped to distinguish between the more technical constructs of labor economics with which interorganizational mobility was associated until the end of the 20th century, such as employment rates, labor supply and demand, etc., and the social constructs of individual careers embedded in social capital and related theories, which have become more of a focus of the mobility field since the beginning of the 21st century. Moreover, the 21st century brought a shift in the general perception of careers, highlighting the concepts of boundaryless and protean careers (Hall, 2004; Arthur et al., 2005), which further emphasized the importance of interorganizational employee mobility and revealed its mediating role between the fields of labor economics and career development.

Furthermore, to my knowledge, there is neither a comprehensive overview of the determinants of interorganizational mobility nor a multilevel approach to it, which I have done using the qualitative, systematic literature review in Chapter 3. Although most of the previous studies examined the effects or consequences of interorganizational employee mobility, their multilevel typology was missing, which I also presented in this chapter. These theory-based multilevel typologies of mobility determinants and effects synthesize all previous research findings across different sectors and industries, thus enriching the existing mobility literature. They also provide a comprehensive framework for the phenomenon of interorganizational employee mobility, encompassing both its direct antecedents and its consequences. Uncovering the key economic determinants and effects of employee mobility in different sectors and industries contributes to the labor economics literature by expanding knowledge about the economic factors leading to and resulting from individuals' decisions to move between two organizations. Furthermore, since the mobility of employees between different countries has been shown to be due to some of these economic factors, revealing the determinants and effects of mobility at the economic level also contributes to the migration literature. Revealing the critical determinants and effects of employee mobility at the organizational and individual levels, on the other hand, contributes to the career development literature, which is theoretically divided between the individual and organizational levels of managing one's career (Baruch, 2022). Therefore, emphasizing the personal and organizational factors leading to and resulting from individuals' decisions to move between two organizations enriches the understanding of the whole process of career development and the positive and negative aspects it can have for both the mobile individual and the organizations he/she moves between.

The systematic literature review also contributes to the literature on employee mobility by shedding light on the complex nature of the phenomenon of interorganizational mobility by reflecting the fact that some mobility effects act simultaneously as determinants of mobility and that the same determinants may be located at different levels of analysis. Furthermore, it enriches and extends the literature on employee mobility by distinguishing between 4 types

of interorganizational mobility: temporary intra-sector mobility, temporary inter-sector mobility, permanent intra-sector mobility and permanent inter-sector mobility.

Given the lack of qualitative research approaches in the literature on employee mobility (Mawdsley & Somaya, 2016), the in-depth and semi-structured interviews with academics who have experienced interorganizational mobility (Chapter 4) enabled the identification of important causes of mobility decisions of knowledge-intensive sector employees that could not have been observed with a large-scale quantitative study alone. Furthermore, this qualitative study provided empirical evidence that interorganizational mobility is indeed a multilevel phenomenon. This contributes to social cognitive theory as it confirms its basic premise that human behavior, which also applies to mobility decisions and actions, is shaped by the dynamic interaction between a person's individual factors and their prior behaviors as well as environmental factors (Bandura, 1986), which in turn can be perceived at different levels. Further adapting the general or theory-based multilevel typology of mobility determinants to higher education as a knowledge-intensive sector and building the data-based typology that specifies the exact determinants that influence 4 different types of mobility is another important contribution to the general knowledge in this field. As far as I know, there is no study that has ever investigated mobility determinants for four different types of interorganizational mobility, nor has it paid special attention to a knowledge-intensive sector such as higher education.

The qualitative study also provided empirical evidence that the determinants of interorganizational employee mobility within each of the proposed levels can be divided into additional groups – push and pull determinants, anchors and barriers – using the logic from the migration literature (E. S. Lee, 1966; Passaris, 1989; de Haas, 2010; Van Hear et al., 2018; Lalot et al., 2019; Grzymala-Kazłowska & Ryan, 2022; Urbański, 2022; World Economic Forum, 2022; Bargłowski & Bonfert, 2023; Sokolic et al., 2024), thereby linking the fields of mobility and migration and expanding their knowledge base. As explained earlier, push determinants and anchors are related to the source context of the mobile employee, while pull determinants and barriers are related to the destination context of the mobile employee (Sokolic et al., 2024), which is further empirical evidence of the main difference between the constructs of interorganizational employee mobility and employee turnover. Employee turnover is only concerned with the source context, without considering what has a positive or negative impact on the employee's departure from the destination context. Interorganizational mobility, on the other hand, as has already been emphasized, is about both the source and destination contexts, which are linked by a mobile individual, as evidenced by the key findings of the qualitative study in the HE sector, where all types of mobility of academics were determined by both the source and destination contexts. As far as I know, this is the first attempt to include a combination of different contexts (i.e., source and destination contexts) for different types of main phenomenon (i.e., four types of interorganizational mobility) in a multilevel analysis of the antecedents of a phenomenon. Therefore, this is another valuable contribution of this dissertation to the field of mobility,

but also to all similar and related fields and their theoretical constructs (e.g., migration, demography, geography, etc.).

Furthermore, the investigation of the aforementioned push and pull determinants as well as the anchors and barriers for the inter-sector mobility of academics focused exclusively on the HE sector. In other words, push determinants of academics' inter-sector mobility were those that led them to leave the HE sector, while pull determinants were those that attracted them to the HE sector and due to which they decided to move to it from another sector. Anchors were factors that keep them in academia, while barriers were obstacles they encountered when trying to move from another sector to academia. In this way, my qualitative study further contributes to the field of higher education as it highlights all groups of determinants at all levels of analysis, with particular attention to the specific level of the HE sector, that shape and influence the movements of valued academic employees in and out of academia.

The quantitative study conducted in the HE sector (Chapter 5) provided additional evidence for some of the assumptions based on the results of the previous mobility studies as well as the results of the qualitative study I conducted. This comprehensive exploratory sequential mixed methods approach that I used in this doctoral research, combining both the qualitative and quantitative study, is a valuable methodological contribution to the field of mobility. As far as I know, no mixed methods research design has ever been applied in this field to identify the determinants of interorganizational mobility or academic mobility in the HE sector.

Since quantitative studies generally allow predictions and generalizations to be made for a larger population, the 625 valid responses from my quantitative study contributed to the generalizations in the field of mobility in the same sense. As the study specifically asked what from the academics' source context (i.e., push determinants and anchors) mattered for their permanent mobility intentions, it also enriches the models of employee turnover and contributes to their literature. By distinguishing between the two scenarios following a potential move from the source organization – i.e., first scenario is the intended permanent mobility to an organization within the same sector, while the second scenario is the intended permanent mobility to an organization from a different sector – the study further highlights and substantiates the distinction between the constructs of employee mobility and turnover.

Statistical analyses applied to the data of this study have revealed the (in)significance of some results of the previous studies as well as my qualitative study. Thus, the major contribution of this quantitative study is to substantiate the models of interorganizational mobility or, more precisely, to point out the variables that should be included in these models. More specifically, the internal social ties academics share with others in their source HEI, the work environment and organizational culture, and the salary in their source HEI were found to be not significantly related to academics' intended permanent mobility to another HEI. The specific academic activities, the significance of academic job and its flexibility, on the other hand, were not significantly related to academics' intention to stay

in the HE sector and not to move permanently to another sector. However, the quantitative results proved that external social ties, family ties, job satisfaction, work demands, organizational location and career opportunities at the source HEI played an important role in academics' intended permanent mobility to another HEI. Perhaps the most important of these significant relationships was job satisfaction. Contrary to the findings of previous studies and also my qualitative study, job satisfaction at the source HEI was found to be positively related to academics' intended permanent mobility to another HEI. This is an important discovery that raises new questions in the study of job satisfaction in the field of mobility. As has already been offered as an explanation, job satisfaction is usually related to many other individual, organizational or even sector aspects that may lead to such outcomes, which is further evidence of how the determinants mutually interact alongside the interaction with mobility intentions.

Other important findings that contribute to mobility models, particularly when applied to the HE sector, relate to sector-level determinants. It has been found that excessive demands of academic job drive academics out of the HE sector, while the opportunities this sector offers for developing their knowledge and skills keep them in the sector. Another important determinant at sector level is the academic specific conditions and requirements perceived through the temporary mobility options within the HE sector and to other sectors that the HE sector offers or even demands from academics. This determinant proved to be significant only for the permanent inter-sector mobility of academics or their intended mobility outside the academia. Contrary to the assumption that it has a negative relationship with mobility intentions and thus keeps academics in the HE sector, the opposite was shown. In other words, the temporary mobility options offered at sector level were found not to keep academics in the HE sector, but rather to encourage them to leave it permanently. This is another important finding that adds to the knowledge in the field of mobility in general and also shows the relationship between temporary mobility as a sector determinant and permanent mobility of academics. In addition, previous experience of permanent mobility within the HE sector was significantly related to the future intention to pursue permanent mobility within the HE sector as well as to another sector. This result is a further contribution to the field of mobility as well as to the aforementioned social cognitive theory, as it confirms that people's past behavior is a predictor of the same behavior in the future.

Finally, another important contribution of the quantitative study to the literature on mobility and turnover is the development of a multilevel typology of factors that facilitate cooperation between the source and destination organizations of mobile employees in knowledge-intensive sectors (Chapter 6). To my knowledge, this is the first attempt of its kind to examine these factors from a multilevel perspective and to offer a solution on how the source organizations can compensate for the loss of their valuable employees. The finding that the temporary mobility option offered by the source organization to their former employees is also a determinant of the potential interorganizational cooperation between the source organization and the new destination organization of the former employee enriches and

integrates the theoretical understanding of the phenomenon of employee mobility. This part of the study also contributes to the literature on interorganizational relationships as it highlights the conditions necessary for a mobile employee to perform his/her mediating role in establishing cooperation between two initially competing organizations in the same sector. Furthermore, it contributes to the literature on strategic human resource management as the organizational-level factors from the typology provide organizations from knowledge-intensive sectors with a direct roadmap on how to mitigate the negative effects of permanent mobility of their valuable employees. Although the HE sector is quite specific in its nature, many of the results obtained in these studies can potentially be replicated and transferred to organizations from other knowledge-intensive sectors.

7.3 Practical implications of the dissertation

This dissertation offers several important practical implications, primarily for HEIs and their academics, but also for organizations in other knowledge-intensive sectors and their employees. They have been summarized in the previously presented tables (Tables 44-47) of subchapter 7.1, while they are explained in more detail in the following text of this subchapter.

Through a systematic review of the existing literature, I have identified multilevel determinants and effects of interorganizational employee mobility in different sectors and industries (Tables 4-7 in Chapter 3). This gives company leaders and their HRM in sectors and industries such as advertising, banking and finance, biotechnology, construction, consulting, energy, engineering, food, healthcare, IT and high-tech, manufacturing, media, pharmaceuticals, public and legal services, semiconductors, telecommunications, textiles, etc. a clear idea of the main reasons why employees leave their organizations permanently and the impact of this mobility.

Focusing on the organizational level of both the determinants and the effects of interorganizational mobility in all these sectors and industries provides organizational managers with solutions on how to retain their employees and how to at least mitigate the negative effects if they decide to go elsewhere permanently. The realization that the interorganizational relationships an organization has with others within its sector as well as with organizations from other sectors, its status, the opportunities for learning, training, promotion, etc. that it offers, the support it provides in terms of autonomy, participation in decision-making, flexible working arrangements, work-life balance, etc., play an important role in the mobility decisions of its employees, automatically gives these organizations ideas on how to prevent their permanent moves. On the other hand, the realization that knowledge can also be transferred from the destination to the source organization, that employee mobility does not always have a negative impact on the source organization's productivity, performance and competitive advantage, and that interorganizational relationships and cooperation can actually develop between the source and destination organizations of mobile

employees, sheds new light on the question of how to proceed when valuable employees leave permanently.

The study in Chapter 4 focuses specifically on the HE sector and provides a detailed insight into the measures that can be taken both at the level of HEIs and at the level of the HE sector as a whole to attract people to move into academia from other sectors. More specifically, HEIs can attract more people from other sectors to enroll in doctoral studies and consequently start working in academia by offering diverse research topics and projects that are related to and address current issues in the non-academic sectors. Other important factors that encourage people from other sectors and industries to move permanently to the HE sector and work there are the close relationships that HEIs maintain with organizations from different sectors and industries, as well as the conduct of research that is highly transferable and has a major impact on non-academic sectors and everyday practice. Consequently, this also affects the reputation of a particular HEI and the academic profession in general, because when it is clearly communicated what is done in academia and how and why it is beneficial to wider society or external stakeholders, the significance of academic job is enhanced. This is also reflected in the fact that the status of a HEI plays an important role in attracting new employees to the HE sector. This is not necessarily about the current formal ranking, but about the tendency of the HEI to meet standards that enable better international visibility. This also shows the relationships and a certain closed loop between the determinants mentioned, as HEIs with greater international visibility have a greater chance of attracting high-quality international projects and projects with greater practical significance and relevance, which has a positive impact on the contribution of these HEIs to society and attracts new doctoral students and new valuable employees from other sectors who move to these HEIs. In addition, the expertise and support of academic staff as potential supervisors/mentors for new staff play an important role in attracting them to move into academia.

From the sector's perspective, higher education should emphasize and improve its specific characteristics that distinguish it from other sectors and thus make it unique. This mainly concerns the autonomy and freedom that allow academics to think critically and question things, which is one of the main characteristics that attract people to move to this sector. Another characteristic is the flexibility of academic job, which can have different aspects. One of these aspects is the flexibility to arrange one's own work schedule, which can have a positive impact on individual work-life balance, which is also an incentive to work in academia. This flexibility can be further encouraged through flexible working arrangements, such as hybrid teaching and research models or, in other words, working without being physically present at all times. Such flexibility in work organization would not only potentially attract new employees to the HE sector, but would also allow easier temporary and perhaps even permanent mobility of existing academics within the HE sector, as they could more easily balance their professional commitments with life circumstances and academic opportunities and demands at other HEIs. Another important aspect of academic

flexibility, which is also helpful in realizing temporary mobilities, concerns flexibility in the planning and delivery of courses. For example, having the flexibility to take on the entire teaching load at the source HEI in one academic semester gives academics a greater chance of temporarily moving to another HEI for an entire next semester. An important aspect of academic flexibility is also flexibility in structuring academic work or in choosing between a more teaching or more research-oriented activity. However, this flexibility is not implemented by many HEIs, so academics at most HEIs are evenly split between teaching and research, which places an additional burden on many and prevents them from specializing in a part of academic work where they could be more engaged and productive. Furthermore, the uniqueness of the teaching and research activities of the academic profession is another important characteristic that plays a role when someone decides to move to the HE sector. In addition, the HE sector should constantly improve the opportunities for new learning, research and cooperation that it offers, which has a positive impact on the development of individual skills and competencies and attracts people to work in academia.

Another important aspect of academic job that attracts people to move into academia from other sectors is the variety of temporary mobility options that the HE sector offers its academics. In this context, however, there is still much room for improvement both at the level of individual HEIs and at the level of the HE sector as a whole in a given country. For example, administrative hurdles, especially when moving between organizations from different countries (i.e., international mobility), such as obtaining work visas or work permits, as well as recognition of qualifications and other administrative issues, can be significant barriers to academic mobility. Moving to a country with a significantly higher standard of living and covering their own travel and accommodation costs is also a significant financial burden for mobile academics and also acts as a barrier to mobility. Therefore, HEIs should develop clear guidelines for incoming and outgoing academics participating in interorganizational mobility and provide them with administrative, legal and even financial support. A practical idea is to set up a department specifically dealing with academic mobility and recruitment issues that go beyond the usual tasks of HR departments, covering all types and forms of academic mobility – temporary and permanent mobility of academic and administrative staff as well as student mobility. Such an organizational solution would put more emphasis on academic mobility as an important strategic solution for any HEI to remain globally competitive and sustainable, and would simplify processes such as accreditation and recognition of qualifications, which would consequently facilitate the transfer of academics between HEIs of the same and different countries. This mobility department could also conduct exit interviews with academics who decide to leave their source HEI or the entire HE sector permanently. In this way, the most important factors leading to their mobility decisions could be identified. Formalizing this administrative, legal and financial support at the organizational level through the aforementioned mobility department would also provide a solid basis for HEIs to formalize the commitments of their temporarily mobile academics and administrative staff. In other words, by formally

supporting their own outgoing employees, HEIs could also commit these employees to return to and remain at their source HEI for a period of time after completing their temporary mobility, thus protecting themselves from the potential permanent mobility of their valuable employees.

In addition, the HE sector should create financial incentives and set up joint postdoctoral or research projects for younger academics to participate in temporary mobility. This is particularly important in countries where temporary mobility is a mandatory prerequisite for promotion to a higher academic position. In this way, academics would be encouraged and supported to participate in various temporary mobility experiences through fellowships and grants as well as formalized interorganizational networks that enable or facilitate participation in international research projects. Furthermore, the HE sector should also offer concrete operational solutions on how HEIs should deal with the temporary mobility of their academic staff – i.e., how the mobile academic should be replaced and who should take over his/her position at the source HEI while he/she is absent. The potential for such solutions lies in the flexible hybrid forms of academic job mentioned above, which allow the person to be engaged at their source HEI without being physically present there. Another possible solution is the flexible delivery of the course throughout the semester, so that the entire remaining semester is available for mobility. However, such solutions should be carefully considered to ensure that the burden of the work demands of the source HEI, that mobile academics have to cope with before or during their temporary stay at the destination HEI, does not become too great and push the person towards permanent mobility from that HEI or the entire HE sector.

In Chapter 5, the study provides a detailed insight into what HEIs can do to retain their academics and what should be done at sector level to retain academics in academia and prevent their permanent mobility to other related sectors and industries. Both HEIs and HE sectors in each country should set reasonable requirements for their academics in the areas of teaching, research and administration, as these have been shown to lead to them moving to another HEI or sector. The career opportunities offered by HEIs, which enable academics to progress safely to higher academic positions, can keep them at their source HEIs. What HEIs cannot easily change is their location, but the fact that the attractiveness of such a location also plays a role in retaining academics is also worth noting.

In addition, the results of this study have shown that family ties serve as an anchor of permanent intra-sector mobility intention. This means that academics who are attached to their spouses, children and other family members tend to stay where they are and are less likely to move elsewhere permanently. The same reason could also prevent their long-term temporary mobility. In addition to the administrative, legal and financial support mentioned above, HEIs could therefore also take measures to support academics who move with their families to a destination HEI in a different location. This is particularly important for HEIs that want to recruit valuable new academics. For example, they could offer help and support to integrate the spouses of academics into the new working environment, provide educational

opportunities for their children or generally facilitate the living conditions in the new destination of mobile academics by providing them with helpful information about important things such as health care for the family or facilities they use on a daily basis – e.g., the nearest kindergartens/schools, the best options for public transportation, etc. In this way, personal barriers can be broken down and greater academic mobility within the HE sector can be promoted, which in turn leads to concrete and fruitful interorganizational cooperation.

Moreover, the aforementioned opportunities that the HE sector offers to its academics are not only something that attracts new academics to the HE sector, but also discourages existing academics from moving to another sector and leaving the HE sector permanently. While the temporary mobility options offered by the HE sector attract people from other sectors, they can also cause existing academics to leave the sector. Although this is not ideal for the HE sector and its institutions, these mobility options cannot be avoided as they are an important mechanism for the transfer and dissemination of knowledge between the academic and non-academic sectors. The possible solution for HEIs is therefore to build interorganizational links and cooperate with as many organizations from other sectors and industries as possible, as this could mitigate the potential negative consequences both for such a source HEI and for the HE sector as a whole if key academic staff decide to leave the academia permanently and move to some of these partner organizations. In this way, HEIs would also strengthen the links between academia and practice, thus closing the existing theory-practice gaps and improving the employability of their students. This could be done by creating professional networks and common platforms for academics and practitioners from related sectors and industries, as this could facilitate interaction between individuals from different academic and non-academic institutions. These networks and platforms can act as online communities for the exchange of research ideas, participation in joint workshops and virtual seminars, and access to databases that enable the sharing of resources. For example, through these platforms, practitioners from related non-academic sectors could present a real, current business problem for which they are seeking help, while academics, together with their students, could offer creative solutions, thus building strong relationships and bridging the gap between academia and practice. In addition, these inter-sector cooperations could be further encouraged if the HE sector required academics to do so in order to progress to higher academic positions. However, in most countries, teaching and research requirements play a major role in habilitation procedures. Therefore, academics who primarily contribute to building close relationships between academia and practice may be rewarded monetarily for such contributions, but this societal impact does not play a major role in their academic advancement.

Uncovering the conditions for cooperative relationships between source and destination HEIs (Chapter 6) helps to reduce the negative effects of permanent mobility within the HE sector and also helps these HEIs to improve their performance and create an alternative source of competitive advantage. Therefore, the source HEIs should begin to cultivate relationships with their departing academics. They should conduct the aforementioned exit

interview and offer their departing academics some temporary mobility options, such as guest lectureships, supervisory roles, board memberships, etc., which will encourage them to build inteorganizational relationships with their former academic's new destination HEI. HEIs should also continue to develop their research excellence, as this makes them an attractive partner for interorganizational cooperation. It is also worth noting that the working environment and organizational culture, as well as the organizational support are important not only for current employees of HEIs, but also for former employees, as the latter decide whether they will stay in touch with their source HEI based on the atmosphere they experienced and support they received there, thus paving the way for new interorganizational cooperation. Irrespective of the potential cooperation with their former academics, however, HEIs should also develop concrete strategies for interorganizational cooperation with other domestic and foreign HEIs, which would serve the exchange of ideas and innovations as well as the improvement of teaching methods and research results. This could take the form of joint research projects at an organizational level, long-term academic partnerships or agreements on temporary exchange of academic staff.

7.4 Limitations of the disertation and future research suggestions

The main limitation of the bibliometric analysis from Chapter 2 is that it is based exclusively on bibliometric methods and thus tends to be too descriptive and lacks theoretical insights. Although all the science mapping methods I used (i.e., co-authorship analysis, co-citation analysis, bibliographic coupling, and co-word analysis) are quantitative in nature, my observations of the clustered networks that these methods provided, as well as my overall conclusions, are purely qualitative and may therefore be too subjective and should be supported by an additional review method, such as meta-analysis. Furthermore, the results of bibliometric studies tend to change over time as the number of publications, citations and citation trends change. Therefore, predictions based on this type of literature review are short-lived and require repeating the whole process in the future, which could include publications from databases other than the Web of Science used (e.g., Scopus) as well as publications that are not exclusively in English.

The main limitation of the systematic literature review in Chapter 3 is a possible bias in the search for relevant literature in the field of employee mobility. This is quite common when conducting a qualitative literature review, and although systematic approaches tend to reduce such biases, they still cannot be ruled out. Future studies should therefore include additional electronic databases or even relevant research published in other languages when searching for literature. The omission of older papers or papers not available in the electronic search could also be minimized by using the reference lists of the selected papers in the sample. Although the conceptualization of interorganizational employee mobility goes beyond pure turnover behavior (Wille et al., 2010), broadening the target field and deepening and integrating it with the turnover literature could also be beneficial for future research. Since a larger number of studies can be expected in the field of employee turnover, a bibliometric,

meta- or other quantitative analysis of the literature review could also be beneficial to combine with the field of interorganizational employee mobility.

The main limitation of the qualitative study in Chapter 4 is the convenience sampling and snowball sampling methods. The convenience method is not clearly generalizable, as it is difficult to replicate the results of such studies. In addition, they may present some results inaccurately due to the large bias of the researcher who approaches potential respondents with whom they can build a relationship. On the other hand, the snowball sampling leads to sample bias, as respondents who have already participated in a study tend to recommend people with similar characteristics, leading to a lack of diversity in the sample and skewing the results. Future studies should therefore use other sampling methods such as probability sampling. Another limitation of the qualitative study may be omitted details that I did not analyze in the interesting data set I collected based on the extensive responses of my respondents. Another related limitation is subjectivity in the coding and further analysis and interpretation of respondents' words, which is a common problem when conducting qualitative research. In addition, the sample size (27 respondents) can also be one of the limitations of this qualitative study, because in order to generalize the results, the number of respondents should be larger. On the other hand, some authors suggest an even smaller sample size (less than 20 - Crouch & McKenzie, 2006) in order to deepen the data collected by interviewing the respondents, to build a relationship with the respondents and to deal more intensively with the general research problem. The heterogeneity of the respondents is also one of the limitations, as some of the respondents have a different or specific background than others – e.g., only representatives of a certain country – or have only had a single experience with interorganizational mobility in the past, while the rest have experienced it several times.

The limitations of the quantitative study (Chapter 5) are also the methods of convenience and snowball sampling, as described for the qualitative study. Another limitation of a quantitative study is that not all relevant variables were included in the conceptual models of academics' permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility. This was certainly the case in the model of permanent inter-sector mobility, where only sector determinants were observed as independent latent variables. Future research should therefore include latent determinants at all levels to further test the intended permanent mobility of academics between sectors. In addition, the relationships between different independent latent variables that are determinants of mobility at the same and different levels should also be further examined. More specifically, these relationships should be considered in both models as second-order or indirect pathways. Furthermore, as some of the measurement scales used were found to have somewhat lower internal consistency (e.g., family ties and academic specific conditions and requirements), they should be replaced by other, more reliable measures of the same constructs in future studies. Some other tests of reliability and validity of measurement models should also be considered to further demonstrate the suitability of the two models.

As has already been emphasized, mobility differs from turnover in that it combines the source and destination context of the mobile employee. In this destination context, the results of the qualitative study (Chapter 4) distinguish between pull determinants, or factors that attract people from the destination organization and/or sector to move there, and barriers to mobility, again something from the destination organization and/or sector that prevents the desired mobility. In the quantitative study (Chapter 5), I focused exclusively on the source context, which is another limitation of this dissertation. Future research should therefore also include the destination context or pull factors and barriers to mobility as latent variables in the models of both permanent intra- and inter-sector mobility in order to extend the results and contribute to the field of mobility both theoretically and practically. Economic determinants should also be considered, as well as the nature of international mobility. Since the latter usually also considers the migration of employees or the permanent change of their residence, future research should also combine the migration and mobility literature to uncover all possible economic-level determinants that influence interorganizational mobility between countries, and how these economic determinants also influence other organizational and perhaps individual determinants.

In the quantitative study (Chapter 5), I only tested temporary and permanent mobility as individual determinants of future permanent mobility using a simple non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test, which only provides superficial results without examining the interaction of mobility types in more detail. Future research should therefore also consider the moderating effects of the different mobility types on the intended permanent mobility. In other words, the same or similar (perhaps extended) models should be applied simultaneously to academics who have experienced temporary or permanent mobility and to those who have not. The fit of both models and the significance of their independent variables with the academics' future permanent mobility intentions should then be compared. Any differences between the models could then be attributed to the moderating effects of temporary or permanent mobility as an important individual determinant.

The mixed methods research design in Chapter 6, which provided a multilevel typology of factors that facilitate cooperative relationships between HEIs based on the mobile academic they share, relied heavily on the qualitative data analysis technique (i.e., thematic analysis). Therefore, this typology should be further explored and complemented by an additional conceptual model that could be empirically tested using the large-scale quantitative data and corresponding analysis. Data triangulation should also be considered in order to include a variety of information sources – e.g., the representativeness of source and destination HEIs or policy makers at the HE sector level – which will further increase the validity and reliability of the study findings.

As technological development changes the structure of a workplace and the way a job is performed, future research should also pay special attention to how the trend of digital transformation affects the mobility of academics. This is particularly important for the aforementioned international mobility, as the movement of academics between

organizations from different countries is one of the key strategies that HEIs employ to remain globally competitive and sustainable. While physical mobility has been the predominant form of academic mobility (Shen et al., 2022), due to digitalization as well as increasing environmental awareness regarding cross-border travel and the COVID-19 period of restricted physical mobility, so-called virtual mobility of academics and remote internationalization, which can be carried out without the physical presence of academics, are becoming more popular than ever (Shen et al., 2022; Ziyatdinova, 2023). This makes it necessary to investigate in the future how digital and virtual or online practices influence the traditional mobility of academics between HEIs from different countries.

More specifically, these practices should be studied in depth as determinants of traditional international mobility of academics, as they change the way academics seek and choose their mobility options. They should also be examined in relation to other known determinants of mobility from the established data-based typology. For example, the extent to which external personal social ties as an important push mobility determinant are shaped by online forms of social and professional networking – e.g., social media and professional networking platforms such as LinkedIn or ResearchGate – should be investigated. However, the extent to which virtual mobility replaces traditional mobility or leads to its hybrid forms, and what its key determinants are at multiple levels, should also be explored in future research.

As is well known, online alternatives to traditional mobility increase the flexibility of working conditions by offering online teaching and remote research cooperations. This reduces geographical barriers to mobility and increases the opportunity for individuals to engage in both permanent and temporary interorganizational mobility. It also increases HEIs' chances of internationalization as they can more easily attract talented academics. However, many factors related to this alternative form of mobility, such as its main advantages, shortcomings and obstacles, are still unknown and should therefore be clarified in future research. For example, how well and effectively virtual mobility facilitates concrete interorganizational cooperation – i.e., what long-term effects virtual mobility has on academic exchange and joint research initiatives at the individual level and, consequently, between the source and destination HEIs of virtually mobile academics.

Furthermore, participation in virtual mobility requires academics to develop specific digital skills for effective online teaching. At the same time, HEIs must provide the opportunity to develop these skills and create the conditions for an effective online environment – e.g., online communication tools, digital devices, advanced technologies, etc. However, academic mobility is not limited to teaching. More and more young researchers are participating in international mobility programs to use unique equipment at world-leading HEIs for their scientific experiments or to gain first-hand experience in the laboratories of so-called star scientists. This is particularly important in technical and engineering fields, as in these fields the benefits of academic mobility cannot be fully realized if one is not physically present at the chosen destination HEI. Future research should therefore investigate how different scientific fields – e.g., STEM (i.e., life and computer sciences, technology, engineering and

mathematics) or social sciences – react to the digital transformation and how this affects the mobility of academics.

However, regardless of the academic field and despite its flexibility, virtual mobility limits academics' face-to-face exchange of ideas in a foreign academic environment, thus reducing opportunities to improve their intercultural competencies and communication skills. As different geographical regions react differently to digitalization and the resulting virtual mobility, future research should also investigate the socio-economic, cultural and regional characteristics that influence academics' ability and willingness to engage in this form of mobility.

In addition, the new generation of employees born between the mid-to-late 1990s and 2012 entering the labor market, also known as Zoomers or Generation Z, exhibit significant differences in terms of overall self-esteem, organizational commitment and the factors that make a job attractive to them. They are values-driven, concerned about the environment, the state of the world and the future they see ahead of them, as well as their own work-life balance, and are therefore looking for employers that empower them to make a difference (Parmelee, 2023). Therefore, future research should consider these generational differences and pay particular attention to how these new potential talents, who will influence the quality of future academic work, its relevance and contribution to wider society, perceive the studied determinants of mobility at all levels. In other words, they should focus on the precise determinants from the established multilevel typology that attract and retain new generations into the HE sector, as well as those that make them move within the HE sector and to another sector.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Daljši povzetek (Extended summary in Slovene language)

Medsebojna povezanost dejavnikov in vrst medorganizacijske mobilnosti zaposlenih v visokem šolstvu

V sodobnem delovnem okolju so zaposleni ključni deležnik organizacij in eden najpomembnejših virov dolgoročne konkurenčne prednosti (Memon et al., 2009; Pasban & Nojdedh, 2016; Alnidawi et al., 2017; Y. Liu et al., 2020). Zato je vlaganje v razvoj njihovega znanja in veščin nujno za uspeh organizacij (Bassi & McMurrer, 2007). Koncepti karier, ki so se razvili v 21. stoletju, poudarjajo mobilnost med različnimi delodajalci (Hall, 2004; Arthur et al., 2005), kar pomeni, da doživljenjska zaposlitev v eni organizaciji za mnoge ni več izvedljiva možnost (Wynen et al., 2013). Ti koncepti, v kombinaciji s stalnimi tehnološkimi, družbenimi in gospodarskimi spremembami, so pripeljali do povečanja medorganizacijske mobilnosti zaposlenih v različnih sektorjih in panogah (Mawdsley & Somaya, 2016; Pricewaterhouse Coopers, 2018; Forbes, 2021).

Čeprav ta pojav lahko preprosto opredelimo kot prenos človeškega kapitala iz ene organizacije v drugo (Wynen et al., 2013) ali kot gibanje zaposlenih med različnimi delodajalci (Haunschild, 2003; Collet & Hedström, 2013; Litano & Major, 2016), se njegova zapletenost skriva v množici različnih dejavnikov, ki vplivajo na mobilnost (Simonen et al., 2016). Ti dejavniki se razlikujejo na več ravneh, kot so individualna, organizacijska, sektorska in ekonomska raven (Muchinsky & Morrow, 1980; Moynihan & Landuyt, 2008), in v različnih vrstah mobilnosti, ki so lahko trajne ali začasne (Bell & Ward, 2000; O'Reilly, 2003; Lawson & Shibayama, 2013; Nagy & Korpela, 2013; Haldimann et al., 2021, 2022; De Moortel et al., 2022), znotraj sektorja (tj. intrasektorska mobilnost) ali med različnimi sektorji (tj. intersektorska mobilnost) (Elliott & Lindley, 2001; OECD, 2011; Masso et al., 2012; Vandevelde, 2014; Simonen et al., 2016, 2018; Technopolis Group, 2019; Pratiwi et al., 2020; Riker, 2020).

Poleg tega je zapletenost tega pojava povezana z medsebojnimi vplivi različnih dejavnikov in vrst mobilnosti. Ti odnosi so specifični za posamezne sektorje ali poklice, njihova zapletenost pa se še poveča, kadar obravnavamo znanjske delavce. Medorganizacijska mobilnost zaposlenih je tako še bolj kompleksna in se razlikuje od mnogo pogostejše raziskovane fluktuacije zaposlenih (Wille et al., 2010). Medorganizacijska mobilnost se osredotoča tako na izvirno kot na ciljno organizacijo mobilnega zaposlenega (tj. organizacije, med katerimi se premika), kar vključuje več dejavnikov v analizi končnih vplivov (Haunschild, 2003; Collet & Hedström, 2013; Wynen et al., 2013; Litano & Major, 2016).

Medorganizacijska mobilnost zaposlenih je lahko koristna, zlasti za posameznike, ki želijo napredovati v karieri ali izboljšati svoj odnos do dela in motivacijo (S. Lee, 2018). Prav tako prinaša organizacijske koristi, vendar večinoma zgolj ciljnim organizacijam, ki si izboljšajo uspešnost z dostopom do znanja in veščin novih zaposlenih (Mascia & Piconi, 2013). Po

drugi strani pa se izvirne organizacije soočajo s fluktuacijo zaposlenih ter izgubo uspešnosti in strokovnega znanja (Lambert & Hogan, 2009). Da bi se spopadli z negativnimi učinki medorganizacijske mobilnosti na izvirne organizacije in hkrati izkoristili potencialne prednosti izboljšane sodelovanja s ciljnim organizacijami, je ključno razumeti tako determinante kot različne vrste mobilnosti, ki vodijo do konkurenčnih ali kooperativnih odnosov med izvornimi in ciljnim organizacijami.

Visokošolski sektor je še posebej pomemben za razumevanje kompleksnega pojava medorganizacijske mobilnosti, saj zajema vse identificirane vrste mobilnosti. Poleg zaposlovanja in vključevanja mednarodnih študentov ter internacionalizacije učnih načrtov je akademska mobilnost oziroma mobilnost znotraj visokošolskega sektorja ena glavnih strategij, ki jih izvajajo javne in zasebne univerze, visoke šole ter univerze uporabnih znanosti (Weisbrod et al., 2008), da bi se odzvale na globalno konkurenco in zagotovile trajnostno delovanje (Cantu, 2013; Soliman et al., 2018). Ko se takšna mobilnost odvija na mednarodni ravni, spodbuja napredek znanosti in izobraževanja na globalni ravni ter postane eden najpomembnejših načinov internacionalizacije visokošolskih institucij (Sharada et al., 2022). Akademska mobilnost ima pomemben vpliv tudi na posameznika, saj mobilnim posameznikom omogoča razvoj poklicnih in socialnih veščin ter hkrati izboljšuje njihovo zaposljivost (European Commission, 2024).

Poleg akademske mobilnosti, ki poteka med dvema visokošolskima ustanovama (tj. znotrajsektorska mobilnost), pa je medsektorska mobilnost oziroma mobilnost med organizacijami iz različnih sektorjev (Elliott & Lindley, 2001; OECD, 2011; Masso et al., 2012; Vandevelde, 2014; Simonen et al., 2016, 2018; Technopolis Group, 2019; Pratiwi et al., 2020) ključna za razumevanje prenosa znanja med akademskimi in neakademskimi sektorji (Vandevelde, 2014; European Commission, 2016; Pittnerová & Rydvalová, 2017; Viinikainen, 2017; Technopolis Group, 2019). Nedavne študije kažejo, da se povečuje število posameznikov, ki prehajajo iz zasebnega sektorja v akademske kroge, prav tako pa narašča število akademikov, ki se selijo iz akademskega sveta v zasebni sektor (Higher Education Statistics Agency, 2023; Velez Ospina & Rodriguez, 2023). Ta medsektorska gibanja omogočajo ustvarjanje močnih povezav med različnimi sektorji ter med akademskim svetom in prakso, saj mobilni raziskovalci pridobijo perspektive in vpoglede iz vseh sektorjev, v katerih delujejo, kar pozitivno vpliva na družbo (Technopolis Group, 2019).

Vendar pa si vsaka visokošolska ustanova v razmerah hitro rastoče konkurence med javnimi in zasebnimi univerzami, visokimi šolami in univerzami uporabnih znanosti (Weisbrod et al., 2008) prizadeva preprečiti trajno mobilnost svojih zaposlenih na drugo visokošolsko ustanovo ali k konkurentom, kakor tudi v organizacije iz drugih sektorjev (Lambert & Hogan, 2009; Fernández-Zubieta et al., 2016; Mascia & Piconi, 2013). Po drugi strani visokošolske ustanove spodbujajo začasno mobilnost, zlasti med mlajšimi raziskovalci in podoktoranti (Burkus, 2017; Society for Human Resource Management, 2018). Nekatere študije kažejo, da je več kot 30 % zaposlenih v visokem šolstvu vključenih v neko obliko začasnih medorganizacijske mobilnosti, ki se razlikujejo predvsem glede na trajanje

mobilnosti (De Moortel et al., 2022). Na individualni ravni ponuja začasna mobilnost na drugo visokošolsko ustanovo mobilnim zaposlenim v visokem šolstvu izjemne priložnosti za pridobivanje novih znanj, specifičnih veščin in praktičnih izkušenj, ki so ključne za njihovo akademsko delo in nadaljnji strokovni razvoj (Edler et al., 2011; Teichler, 2015). Na organizacijski ravni pa takšna mobilnost spodbuja širjenje in prenos znanja ter tehnologije, hkrati pa omogoča vzpostavljanje mrež med različnimi visokošolskimi ustanovami, kar povečuje njihovo produktivnost (Lawson & Shibayama, 2013). Da bi visokošolske ustanove dosegle svoje strateške cilje, kot so zaposljivost diplomantov, vplivni raziskovalni rezultati in pomemben družbeni doprinos (SEB LU, 2020; European Commission, 2024), je ključno sodelovanje z organizacijami in praktiki iz sorodnih sektorjev ter industrij. Poleg tega so ti cilji poglavitni razlog, da visokošolske ustanove močno podpirajo začasno medsektorsko mobilnost svojih zaposlenih v visokem šolstvu.

Zaradi vseh teh razlogov se ta disertacija osredotoča na analizo medsebojne povezanosti različnih dejavnikov in vrst medorganizacijske mobilnosti v visokem šolstvu z uporabo postopnega preučevalnega raziskovalnega načrta z mešanimi metodami (Saunders et al., 2023), ki združuje kvalitativne in kvantitativne raziskave. Natančneje, disertacija uvaja večnivojsko tipologijo dejavnikov akademske mobilnosti ter raziskuje odnose med temi večnivojskimi dejavniki in štirimi glavnimi vrstami mobilnosti v visokem šolstvu: začasna mobilnost znotraj sektorja, začasna mobilnost med sektorji, trajna mobilnost znotraj sektorja in trajna mobilnost med sektorji. Poleg tega obravnava zapletene odnose med različnimi vrstami medorganizacijske mobilnosti zaposlenih v visokem šolstvu, zlasti ali začasna mobilnost in predhodne izkušnje s trajno mobilnostjo vplivajo na prihodnjo trajno mobilnost zaposlenih v visokem šolstvu, bodisi znotraj visokošolskega sektorja bodisi v druge sektorje. Disertacija preuči tudi ključne dejavnike, ki spodbujajo sodelovalne odnose med izvornimi in ciljnim organizacijami mobilnih zaposlenih v visokem šolstvu.

Najprej smo izvedli bibliometrično analizo kot kvantitativni pristop k pregledu literature, s katero je zagotovljen celovit pregled glavnega preučevanega pojava. Analiza vključuje pregled razvoja pojava skozi čas, trenutnega fokusa raziskav na področju mobilnosti in analizo omrežja ključnih raziskovalcev, organizacij ter publikacij, ki tvorijo intelektualno strukturo tega področja in sorodnih tem. Rezultati kažejo, da publikacije na tem področju nastajajo že od leta 1978, in sicer povprečno približno sedmih objav na leto. Največji delež publikacij (65 %) je bil objavljen po letu 2010, z rekordnimi 19 objavami v letu 2020. To nakazuje, da je medorganizacijska mobilnost relativno novo raziskovalno področje, saj je bila večina študij izvedena in objavljena v zadnjih 20 letih, pri čemer se je aktivno raziskovanje raztezalo od poznega 20. stoletja do prvega desetletja 21. stoletja in se nadaljuje v njegovem drugem desetletju.

V poznem 20. stoletju se je raziskovanje mobilnosti večinoma osredotočalo na ekonomske konstrukte dela, kot so zaposlenost, ponudba in povpraševanje po delu, dohodek, sindikati itd., pri čemer raziskave niso pretirano razlikovale med mobilnostjo zaposlenih in fluktuacijo. V prvem desetletju 21. stoletja se je pozornost premaknila na organizacijsko

perspektivo, ki je obravnavala mikrokonstrukte, kot so organizacijske sposobnosti, uspešnost, struktura itd. V tem obdobju se je povečalo zavedanje, da mobilnost presega preprosto menjavo delovnega mesta, zato se je raziskovanje osredotočilo tudi na vpliv mobilnosti na izvirno in ciljno organizacijo. Multidisciplinarni pristop se je razvil, ko so se v raziskovanje mobilnosti vključile teme iz psihologije, sociologije, politologije in drugih disciplin. V drugem desetletju 21. stoletja so raziskave nadaljevale z organizacijsko perspektivo in multidisciplinarnim pristopom, pri čemer so poudarjale, da je mobilnost večnivojski pojav, ki zahteva analizo z večnivojske perspektive. Poudarjeno je bilo, da so dejavniki mobilnosti premalo raziskani, medtem ko njeni učinki niso dovolj obravnavani z večnivojskega vidika, kar je nakazalo potrebo po nadaljnjem raziskovanju na tem področju.

Po bibliometrični analizi je bil izveden sistematični pregled literature kot kvalitativni pristop k raziskovanju, da bi celovito preučili vse dejavnike medorganizacijske mobilnosti, ki so bile obravnavane v predhodnih raziskavah v različnih sektorjih in panogah, ter oblikovali večnivojsko tipologijo teh dejavnikov. Ker so učinki mobilnosti neločljivo povezani s tem pojavom in so bili doslej pogosto predmet raziskav, so bili vključeni tudi v analizo z večnivojskim pristopom, kar je omogočilo oblikovanje večnivojske tipologije učinkov mobilnosti.

Rezultati sistematičnega pregleda literature so omogočili oblikovanje teorijsko utemeljene tipologije dejavnikov mobilnosti v različnih sektorjih in panogah, ki vključuje: 5 ekonomskih dejavnikov, 4 sektorske dejavnike, 11 organizacijskih dejavnikov in 16 individualnih dejavnikov. Prav tako je bila oblikovana teoretsko utemeljena tipologija učinkov mobilnosti, ki zajema: 1 ekonomski učinek, 6 organizacijskih učinkov in 4 individualne učinke. Podrobna analiza teh dejavnikov je pokazala, da se nekateri pojavljajo tako kot determinante kot tudi kot učinki mobilnosti, včasih celo na različnih ravneh analize. Na primer, dohodek/plača kot dejavnik mobilnosti spada pod organizacijsko raven, saj se zaposleni odločajo za prehod iz ali v organizacijo, ki jim nudi slabšo ali boljšo plačo. Če pa isti dejavnik razumemo kot učinek mobilnosti (ker mobilni zaposleni zaradi mobilnosti zaslužijo nižji ali višji dohodek), je ta dejavnik uvrščen na individualno raven, saj gre za neposreden finančni vpliv na posameznika, tj. mobilno osebo.

Rezultati sistematičnega pregleda literature so pokazali tudi, da obstajajo razmerja med dejavniki mobilnosti na isti ali različnih ravneh ter potencialna hierarhija med njimi. Na primer, lokacija organizacije je pogosto povezana z ekonomskimi dejavniki, kot so vladne politike in javne storitve, ali z individualnimi dejavniki, kot so značilnosti družine in gospodinjstva. Velikost organizacije pa je običajno povezana s sektorskimi dejavniki, kot so strukturne značilnosti, ki določajo, ali organizacija pripada javnemu ali zasebnemu sektorju. Poleg tega rezultati pregleda literature kažejo, da so nekateri dejavniki mobilnosti močnejše povezani z medorganizacijsko mobilnostjo kot drugi. Na primer, v določenih sektorjih in panogah zaposleni pogosto prehajajo v organizacije z nižjim statusom, če te nudijo boljše plačilo ali večjo organizacijsko podporo, kar poudarja obstoječo hierarhijo dejavnikov mobilnosti. Prav tako pregled literature opozarja na razlike, ki se pojavijo, ko mobilnost

poteka med organizacijami v istem ali različnih sektorjih in ko gre za trajno ali začasno mobilnost. To je še posebej pomembno pri sektorjih, ki temeljijo na znanju, kot je visokošolski sektor, kjer trajna in začasna mobilnost zaposlenih v visokem šolstvu znotraj sektorja ter med visokošolskim sektorjem in drugimi sektorji omogoča prenos ključnega materialnega in nematerialnega znanja.

Po pregledu literature je bila izvedena kvalitativna študija za nadaljnje raziskovanje glavnih ugotovitev in za preizkušanje teoretsko utemeljene večnivojske tipologije dejavnikov mobilnosti za različne vrste mobilnosti v visokošolskem sektorju kot predstavniku sektorja, ki temelji na znanju. Izvedeni so bili poglobljeni polstrukturirani intervjuji s 27 zaposlenimi v visokem šolstvu s področja ekonomije in poslovnih ved, ki so imeli izkušnje z vsaj eno vrsto medorganizacijske mobilnosti.

Rezultati te kvalitativne študije so omogočili oblikovanje na podatkih temelječe večnivojske tipologije dejavnikov mobilnosti v visokošolskem sektorju. Ta tipologija vključuje naslednje dejavnike: 5 ekonomskih dejavnikov (od tega 2 iz teoretsko utemeljene tipologije), 12 sektorskih dejavnikov (od tega 3 iz teoretsko utemeljene tipologije), 17 organizacijskih dejavnikov (od tega 9 iz teoretsko utemeljene tipologije) in 20 individualnih dejavnikov (od tega 12 iz teoretsko utemeljene tipologije).

Rezultati študije tudi kažejo, da lahko dejavnike mobilnosti na vsaki ravni razvrstimo v štiri skupine: potisni dejavniki, vlečni dejavniki, sidra in ovire. Potisni dejavniki in sidra so povezani z izvirnim kontekstom mobilnega zaposlenega v visokem šolstvu – tj. z izvirno visokošolsko ustanovo, izvirnim visokošolskim sektorjem, izvirno državo ter z mobilnim posameznikom kot virom odločitve o mobilnosti in dejanj. Po drugi strani so vlečni dejavniki in ovire povezani s ciljnim kontekstom mobilnega zaposlenega v visokem šolstvu – tj. s ciljno visokošolsko ustanovo ali organizacijo iz drugega sektorja, ciljnim visokošolskim sektorjem ali drugim sektorjem ter ciljno državo. Te ugotovitve vzpostavljajo povezavo med mobilnostjo in področjem migracij, pri čemer je logika poimenovanja teh skupin dejavnikov povzeta po migracijskih raziskavah. Hkrati empirično podpirajo prejšnje zaključke, da je medorganizacijska mobilnost res večnivojski pojav, ki presega koncept fluktuacije zaposlenih.

Dodatni rezultati kvalitativne študije empirično potrjujejo ugotovitve sistematičnega pregleda literature o obstoječih razmerjih med nekaterimi dejavniki mobilnosti na isti ali različnih ravneh analize ter o hierarhiji med njimi. Na primer, zadovoljstvo pri delu kot individualni dejavnik je povezan z različnimi dejavniki na organizacijski ravni, kot so delovne zahteve, organizacijska podpora, delovno okolje in organizacijska kultura. Analiza intervjujev je tudi pokazala, da zaposleni v visokem šolstvu določene dejavnike mobilnosti ocenjujejo kot pomembnejše za svoje odločitve glede mobilnosti kot druge. Med najpomembnejšimi dejavniki, ki jih motivirajo za trajno selitev na drugo visokošolsko ustanovo, so na primer področje raziskovanja, vrsta zaposlitve in delovne zahteve na izvorni visokošolski ustanovi. Ti isti dejavniki so ključni tudi pri izbiri ciljne visokošolske ustanove.

Študija je prav tako pokazala, da se nekateri dejavniki mobilnosti lahko pojavljajo hkrati v različnih skupinah (npr. kot potisni in vlečni dejavniki) na isti ali na različnih ravneh analize (npr. individualni in organizacijski ravni). Na primer, organizacijska lokacija izvirne visokošolske ustanove lahko deluje kot potisni dejavnik, ki zaposlene v visokem šolstvu spodbuja k odhodu, ali kot sidro, ki jih zadrži na izvorni ustanovi. Isti dejavnik – organizacijska lokacija – v kontekstu ciljne organizacije včasih deluje kot vlečni dejavnik, ki privlači zaposlene v visokem šolstvu, drugič pa kot ovira, ki preprečuje njihovo mobilnost. Začasna mobilnost kot predhodna izkušnja je običajno individualni dejavnik. Če pa ciljna organizacija mobilnemu zaposlenemu ponudi možnost začasne mobilnosti na njegovo izvirno visokošolsko ustanovo, ta začasna mobilnost deluje kot organizacijski dejavnik. V drugih primerih, ko je začasna mobilnost obravnavana kot posebna možnost, ki jo visokošolski sektor ponuja svojim zaposlenim, je umeščena na sektorsko raven.

Poleg tega rezultati te kvalitativne študije kažejo razmerja med vsako skupino dejavnikov mobilnosti na posamezni ravni in vsako vrsto mobilnosti – na primer razmerja med potisnimi dejavniki na individualni ravni in začasno mobilnostjo znotraj sektorja. Dokazali smo tudi, da lahko ena vrsta mobilnosti deluje kot dejavnik druge vrste mobilnosti. Ugotovili smo, da sta začasna mobilnost znotraj sektorja in med sektorji dejavnika trajne mobilnosti znotraj sektorja in med sektorji. Poleg tega je začasna mobilnost znotraj sektorja dejavnik začasne mobilnosti med sektorji. Prav tako smo ugotovili, da trajna znotrajsektorska mobilnost deluje kot dejavnik začasne znotrajsektorske mobilnosti, medtem ko trajna znotrajsektorska in medsektorska mobilnost vplivata na prihodnjo trajno znotrajsektorsko in medsektorsko mobilnost.

Za poglobitev rezultatov kvalitativne študije in boljšo analizo vrst trajne mobilnosti ter empirično raziskavo zapletenega razmerja med različnimi vrstami mobilnosti je bila izvedena tudi kvantitativna študija. S polstrukturiranim spletnim vprašalnikom so bili zbrani podatki 625 zaposlenih v visokem šolstvu s področja ekonomije in poslovnih ved. Glavni namen vprašalnika je bil empirično dokazati oziroma ovreči rezultate kvalitativne študije oziroma preizkusiti konceptualne modele trajne znotrajsektorske in medsektorske mobilnosti zaposlenih v visokem šolstvu. Kot neodvisne spremenljivke so bile uporabljeni le potisni dejavniki in sidra, prepoznani v kvalitativni študiji, medtem ko je bila kot odvisna spremenljivka v modelu znotrajsektorske mobilnosti uporabljena nameravana mobilnost zaposlenih v visokem šolstvu na drugo visokošolsko ustanovo. V modelu medsektorske mobilnosti pa je bila odvisna spremenljivka njihova nameravana mobilnost v drug sektor, zunaj akademskega okolja.

Rezultati modela trajne znotrajsektorske mobilnosti so pokazali, da so glavni dejavniki, ki zaposlene v visokem šolstvu spodbujajo k selitvi na drugo visokošolsko ustanovo, zunanje socialne vezi, zadovoljstvo pri delu in delovne zahteve na izvorni visokošolski ustanovi. Glavni dejavniki, ki jih zadržujejo na izvorni visokošolski ustanovi, pa so družinske vezi, lokacija izvirne visokošolske ustanove in karijerne možnosti, ki jih ta ponuja. Natančneje, stiki z ljudmi zunaj izvirne visokošolske ustanove, splošno zadovoljstvo z delom na tej

ustanovi ter zahteve glede poučevanja in objavljanja strokovnih člankov prispevajo k odločitvi za izbiro druge visokošolske ustanove. Po drugi strani pa odnosi z družinskimi člani, privlačnost lokacije izvirne ustanove in karierne priložnosti tam zmanjšujejo njihovo nameravano trajno mobilnost.

Rezultati modela trajne medsektorske mobilnosti so pokazali, da so najpomembnejši dejavniki, ki zaposlene v visokem šolstvu spodbujajo k selitvi v drug sektor ali izven visokošolskega okolja, zahtevnost akademskega dela in akademsko specifični pogoji, ki jih dojemajo kot začasne možnosti mobilnosti, ki jih ponuja visokošolski sektor. Pomemben dejavnik, ki jih zadržuje v visokošolskem sektorju, so akademske priložnosti. Natančneje, splošne zahteve visokošolskega poklica in začasne možnosti mobilnosti, ki jih ponuja visokošolski sektor, spodbujajo selitev v drug sektor, medtem ko dobre akademske priložnosti, ki krepijo spretnosti in kompetence zaposlenih v visokem šolstvu, znižujejo njihovo nameravano trajno mobilnost.

Socialno-demografski dejavniki prav tako razkrivajo pomembne vplive. Med spolom in nameravano trajno mobilnostjo znotraj sektorja obstaja pomembna povezava – moški zaposleni imajo močnejšo namero po selitvi na drugo visokošolsko ustanovo kot ženske kolegice. Starost je negativno povezana z mobilnostjo znotraj in med sektorji, kar pomeni, da so mlajši zaposleni bolj naklonjeni selitvi na drugo visokošolsko ustanovo ali v drug sektor. Pri družinskih dejavnikih stanje v gospodinjstvu pomembno vpliva na mobilnost znotraj sektorja; zaposleni, ki so glavni zaslužkarji v gospodinjstvu, so bolj nagnjeni k selitvi na drugo visokošolsko ustanovo. Tisti z več otroki, za katere morajo skrbeti, pa pogosteje načrtujejo mobilnost v drug sektor ali zunaj akademskega okolja.

Kar zadeva zaposlitvene vidike, je delovna doba na izvorni visokošolski ustanovi negativno povezana z nameravano trajno mobilnostjo znotraj sektorja – akademiki z daljšo delovno dobo na izvorni ustanovi so manj naklonjeni selitvi. Po drugi strani pa delovna doba v visokošolskem sektorju pozitivno vpliva na nameravano trajno mobilnost tako znotraj kot med sektorji. Zaposleni z daljšem stažem v visokošolstvu so bolj nagnjeni k selitvi tako na drugo visokošolsko ustanovo kot v drug sektor. Vrsta zaposlitve ima prav tako pomemben vpliv – zaposleni z daljšimi ali trajnejšimi pogodbami pogosteje načrtujejo mobilnost znotraj sektorja, medtem ko tisti na višjih položajih v akademski hierarhiji redkeje načrtujejo mobilnost v drug sektor ali zunaj akademskega okolja.

Kar zadeva kompleksno razmerje med različnimi vrstami mobilnosti, rezultati kažejo, da je začasna mobilnost kot sektorski dejavnik pomembna predvsem za nameravano mobilnost zaposlenih v visokem šolstvu v drug sektor. Z drugimi besedami, priložnosti, ki jih visokošolski sektor ponuja zaposlenim za začasno selitev na drugo visokošolsko ustanovo, in priložnosti, ki jih nudi organizacija iz drugega sektorja, spodbujajo zaposlene v visokem šolstvu k trajni selitvi v drug sektor. Začasna mobilnost kot individualni dejavnik, zaznana na podlagi predhodnih osebnih izkušenj, ni pokazala pomembne povezave z nobeno vrsto trajne mobilnosti. Po drugi strani so izkušnje trajne mobilnosti, zlasti znotraj sektorja, močno

povezane z načrtovano trajno mobilnostjo znotraj in med sektorji v prihodnosti. Z drugimi besedami, obstaja opazna razlika v nameravani trajni mobilnosti na drugo visokošolsko ustanovo med zaposlenimi, ki so že imeli izkušnje s trajno znotrajsektorsko mobilnostjo, in tistimi, ki te izkušnje nimajo. Tisti, ki so izkusili trajno mobilnost, se bodo bolj verjetno ponovno odločili za selitev na drugo visokošolsko ustanovo. Podobno obstaja pomembna razlika v nameravani trajni mobilnosti v drug sektor med tistimi, ki so že imeli izkušnje s trajno znotrajsektorsko mobilnostjo, in tistimi, ki te izkušnje nimajo – zaposlenimi v visokem šolstvu z izkušnjami trajne mobilnosti znotraj sektorja redkeje načrtujejo selitev v drug sektor in zapustitev akademskih krogov.

Po preizkusu obeh modelov trajne mobilnosti zaposlenih v visokem šolstvu smo pozornost usmerili na vpliv trajne mobilnosti na vzpostavljanje kooperativnih odnosov med njihovimi izvornimi in ciljnim organizacijami. Natančneje, raziskovali smo, kateri dejavniki ali pogoji olajšajo sodelovanje med izvornimi in ciljnim organizacijami mobilnih zaposlenih. V ta namen smo uporabili raziskovalni pristop z mešanimi metodami. Natančneje, uporabili smo sekvenčni raziskovalni načrt, ki je vključeval kvalitativno študijo v prvi fazi in kvantitativno študijo v drugi fazi. V prvi fazi smo uporabili podatke iz polstrukturiranih intervjujev kvalitativne študije, v drugi fazi pa podatki iz spletnega vprašalnika kvantitativne študije. Poleg tega smo anketirance povprašali o njihovih preteklih izkušnjah s trajno mobilnostjo, posledičnim sodelovanjem s prejšnjimi visokošolskimi delodajalci ter glavnih razlogih za takšno (ne)sodelovanje.

Rezultati teh dveh faz raziskave z mešanimi metodami (tj. kvalitativne in kvantitativne) so pokazali, da imajo mobilni zaposleni v visokem šolstvu ključno vlogo pri spodbujanju potencialnega sodelovanja med izvornimi in ciljnim visokošolskimi ustanovami. Z drugimi besedami, če zaposleni nimajo odnosov z nekdanjim visokošolskim delodajalcem, je zelo malo možnosti za vzpostavitev sodelovanja na organizacijski ravni. Na podlagi kvalitativne analize odgovorov zaposlenih v visokem šolstvu je bila oblikovana večnivojska tipologija dejavnikov, ki omogočajo kooperativne medorganizacijske odnose. Ta vključuje 2 sektorska dejavnika, kot so značilnosti akademskega trga dela in specifične akademske zahteve za karierno napredovanje; 8 organizacijskih dejavnikov, kot sočasne možnosti mobilnosti, ki jih ponuja izvorna visokošolska ustanova, obstoječi projekti z izvirno ustanovo, delovno okolje in organizacijska kultura na izvorni ustanovi, raziskovalno in akademsko strokovno znanje izvirne ustanove ter organizacijska pobuda izvornih in ciljnih ustanov; in 6 individualnih dejavnikov, kot so skupno raziskovalno področje in interesi, ki si jih delita mobilni zaposleni v visokem šolstvu in izvorna ustanova, ter skupne socialne vezi z nekdanjimi sodelavci.

Rezultati kvantitativnega dela raziskave kažejo, da so isti dejavniki, ki spodbujajo sodelovanje med izvornimi in ciljnim visokošolskimi ustanovami, pomembni tudi za mobilnost zaposlenih v visokem šolstvu iz izvirne institucije. Konkretno to pomeni, da zaposleni v visokem šolstvu, ki so se zaradi slabih odnosov s sodelavci preselili iz izvirne visokošolske ustanove, po odhodu s to ustanovo ne morejo več sodelovati zaradi teh slabih

odnosov. Enako velja za raziskovalno področje, delovno okolje, organizacijsko kulturo in organizacijsko podporo. Poleg tega je raziskava ugotovila, da začasna mobilnost, ki jo visokošolske ustanove ponujajo svojim sedanjim in nekdanjim zaposlenim, ni le ključni dejavnik nadaljnje trajne mobilnosti, temveč igra tudi osrednjo vlogo na organizacijski ravni, saj spodbuja sodelovanje med izvorno in ciljno ustanovo mobilnih zaposlenih v visokem šolstvu.

Ta disertacija predstavlja pomemben korak k boljšemu razumevanju fenomena medorganizacijske mobilnosti zaposlenih, še posebej v kontekstu visokošolskega sektorja. Prispeva k obstoječi literaturi o mobilnosti in teoriji fluktuacije ter sorodnih področjih, kot sta ekonomija dela in karierni razvoj. Kolikor nam je znano, doslej ni bilo raziskave, ki bi celovito preučila pojav medorganizacijske mobilnosti zaposlenih kot tak in ločeno od koncepta fluktuacije zaposlenih, kar smo storili z opisano bibliometrično analizo kot kvantitativnim pristopom k pregledu literature. Disertacija ponuja celovit pregled dejavnikov medorganizacijske mobilnosti zaposlenih in prikazuje, kako se je razvijala skozi čas, ter bazo znanja in intelektualno strukturo ciljnega pojava, ki neposredno bogati literaturo o mobilnosti.

Poleg tega, kolikor vem, ni niti celovitega pregleda dejavnikov medorganizacijske mobilnosti niti večnivojskega pristopa k njej (Aguirre et al., 2015; Kornblum et al., 2018; J. J. Lee, 2020; Tzabbar & Cirillo, 2020), kar smo izvedli z opisanim kvalitativnim sistematičnim pregledom literature. Čeprav je večina predhodnih študij preučevala učinke ali posledice medorganizacijske mobilnosti zaposlenih, je manjkala večnivojska tipologija, ki je predstavljena tudi v disertaciji. Ta večnivojska tipologija determinant in učinkov mobilnosti povzema vse dosedanje ugotovitve raziskav v različnih sektorjih in panogah ter tako obogati obstoječo literaturo o mobilnosti.

Odkrivanje ključnih ekonomskih dejavnikov in učinkov mobilnosti zaposlenih v različnih sektorjih in panogah prispeva k literaturi o ekonomiji dela s širitvijo znanja o ekonomskih dejavnikih, ki vodijo do odločitev posameznikov za prehod med dvema organizacijama. Ker se je izkazalo, da je mobilnost zaposlenih med različnimi državami posledica nekaterih od teh ekonomskih dejavnikov, odkrivanje dejavnikov in učinkov mobilnosti na ekonomski ravni prispeva tudi k literaturi o migracijah. Nasprotno pa odkrivanje kritičnih dejavnikov in učinkov mobilnosti zaposlenih na organizacijski in individualni ravni prispeva k literaturi o kariernem razvoju, ki je teoretično razdeljena na individualno in organizacijsko raven upravljanja kariere (Baruch, 2022). Zato poudarjanje osebnih in organizacijskih dejavnikov, ki vodijo do odločitve posameznikov za prehod med dvema organizacijama, obogati razumevanje celotnega procesa kariernega razvoja ter pozitivnih in negativnih vidikov, ki jih lahko ima tako za mobilnega posameznika kot za organizacije, v katerih dela. Sistematični pregled literature prispeva tudi k literaturi o mobilnosti zaposlenih, saj osvetljuje kompleksno naravo pojava medorganizacijske mobilnosti. Ta odraža dejstvo, da nekateri učinki mobilnosti delujejo hkrati kot dejavniki mobilnosti in da se lahko isti

dejavniki nahajajo na različnih ravneh analize. Poleg tega bogati in razširja literaturo o mobilnosti zaposlenih z razlikovanjem med štirimi vrstami medorganizacijske mobilnosti.

Glede na pomanjkanje kvalitativnih raziskovalnih pristopov v literaturi o mobilnosti zaposlenih (Mawdsley & Somaya, 2016) poglobljeni in polstrukturirani intervjuji z zaposlenimi v visokem šolstvu, ki so v kvalitativni študiji doživeli medorganizacijsko mobilnost, omogočajo identifikacijo pomembnih vzrokov za odločitve o mobilnosti zaposlenih v znanjskem sektorju, česar pa le z obsežno kvantitativno raziskavo ni bilo mogoče opaziti. Ta kvalitativna raziskava poleg tega zagotavlja empirične dokaze, da je medorganizacijska mobilnost res večnivojski pojav. To prispeva k socialni kognitivni teoriji, saj potrjuje njeno osnovno predpostavko, da je človeško vedenje, kar velja tudi za odločitve in dejanja glede mobilnosti, posledica dinamične interakcije med posameznimi dejavniki osebe in njihovim predhodnim vedenjem ter okoljskimi dejavniki (Bandura, 1986), kar pa je mogoče zaznati na različnih ravneh. Nadaljnje prilagajanje splošne ali na teoriji temelječe večnivojske tipologije dejavnikov mobilnosti visokemu šolstvu kot znanjskemu sektorju in ustvarjanje na podatkih temelječe tipologije, ki določa natančne dejavnike, ki vplivajo na štiri različne vrste mobilnosti, je še en pomemben prispevek k splošnemu znanju na tem področju. Kolikor vemo, ni nobene raziskave, ki bi preučevala dejavnike mobilnosti za štiri različne vrste medorganizacijske mobilnosti oziroma namenila posebno pozornost znanjskemu sektorju, kot je visokošolsko izobraževanje.

Kvalitativna študija zagotavlja tudi empirične dokaze, da lahko dejavniki medorganizacijske mobilnosti zaposlenih znotraj vsake od predlaganih ravni razdelimo v dodatne skupine – potisne in vlečne dejavnike ter sidra in ovire – z uporabo pristopov iz literature o migracijah (E. S. Lee, 1966; Passaris, 1989; de Haas, 2010; Van Hear et al., 2018, 2019; Grzymala-Kazłowska & Ryan, 2022; Urbański, 2022; Bargłowski & Bonfert, 2023), s čimer povežemo področji mobilnosti in migracij. Kot je bilo že pojasnjeno, so potisni dejavniki in sidra povezani z izvirnim kontekstom mobilnega zaposlenega, medtem ko so vlečni dejavniki in ovire povezane z ciljnim kontekstom mobilnega zaposlenega (Sokolic et al., 2024), kar je nadaljnji empirični dokaz o glavni razliki med konstruktoma medorganizacijske mobilnosti zaposlenih in fluktuacije zaposlenih. Fluktuacija zaposlenih se nanaša le na izvirni kontekst, ne da bi upoštevali, kaj pozitivno ali negativno vpliva na odhod zaposlenega iz ciljnega konteksta. Po drugi strani pa gre pri medorganizacijski mobilnosti, kot je bilo poudarjeno, za izvirni in ciljni kontekst, ki ju povezuje mobilna oseba, kot kažejo glavne ugotovitve kvalitativne raziskave v visokošolskem sektorju, kjer so vse vrste mobilnosti zaposlenih v visokem šolstvu določali tako izvirni kot ciljni kontekst. Kolikor vem, je to prvi poskus vključitve kombinacije različnih kontekstov (tj. izvirnih in ciljnih kontekstov) za različne vrste glavnih pojavov (tj. štiri vrste medorganizacijske mobilnosti) v večnivojsko analizo predhodnikov pojava. Zato je to še en dragocen prispevek te disertacije k področju mobilnosti, pa tudi k vsem sorodnim področjem in njihovim teoretičnim konstruktom (npr. migracije, demografija, geografija itd.).

Kvantitativna študija, izvedena v visokošolskem sektorju, nudi dodatne dokaze za nekatere predpostavke, ki temeljijo na rezultatih predhodnih študij mobilnosti in na rezultatih kvalitativne študije, izvedene v okviru te doktorske disertacije. Ta celovit raziskovalni pristop postopnih mešanih metod, uporabljen v tej raziskavi, ki združuje kvalitativno in kvantitativno študijo, predstavlja dragocen metodološki prispevek na področju mobilnosti. Kolikor nam je znano, raziskovalni načrt z mešanimi metodami doslej še ni bil uporabljen za identifikacijo dejavnikov medorganizacijske mobilnosti ali akademske mobilnosti v visokošolskem sektorju.

Ker kvantitativne raziskave na splošno omogočajo napovedi in posplošitve za večjo populacijo, 625 veljavnih odgovorov, zbranih v tej kvantitativni študiji, omogoča podobna posploševanja na področju mobilnosti. Statistične analize kvantitativnih podatkov osvetljujejo (ne)pomembnost nekaterih rezultatov prejšnjih raziskav in kvalitativne raziskave iz te disertacije. Glavni prispevek te kvantitativne raziskave je tako utrditev modelov medorganizacijske mobilnosti, zlasti s poudarkom na spremenljivkah, ki bi jih bilo treba vključiti v te modele.

Natančneje, rezultati kažejo, da notranje socialne vezi, ki jih zaposleni v visokem šolstvu delijo z drugimi na izvorni visokošolski instituciji, delovno okolje in organizacijska kultura ter plača na izvorni ustanovi niso bistveno povezani z nameravano mobilnostjo zaposlenih na drugo visokošolsko ustanovo. Prav tako specifične akademske dejavnosti, pomen akademskega dela in njegova fleksibilnost niso pomembno povezani z nameravano odločitvijo zaposlenih v visokem šolstvu, da ostanejo v visokošolskem sektorju in ne odidejo v drug sektor. Po drugi strani kvantitativni rezultati kažejo, da imajo zunanje socialne vezi, družinske vezi, zadovoljstvo pri delu, zahtevnost dela, organizacijska lokacija in možnosti za karierni razvoj na izvorni visokošolski ustanovi pomembno vlogo pri nameravani trajni mobilnosti zaposlenih na drugo visokošolsko ustanovo. Morda je najpomembnejša ugotovitev povezanost zadovoljstva pri delu z mobilnostjo. V nasprotju z ugotovitvami prejšnjih študij in kvalitativne raziskave, opravljene v okviru te disertacije, smo ugotovili, da je zadovoljstvo pri delu na izvorni visokošolski ustanovi pozitivno povezano z nameravano mobilnostjo zaposlenih na drugo visokošolsko ustanovo. To presenetljivo odkritje odpira nova vprašanja za preučevanje zadovoljstva pri delu v povezavi z mobilnostjo. Ena od možnih razlag je, da je zadovoljstvo pri delu povezano s številnimi drugimi individualnimi, organizacijskimi ali celo sektorskimi dejavniki, ki skupaj vodijo do takšnih rezultatov. To še dodatno potrjuje, da dejavniki mobilnosti delujejo skupaj in medsebojno vplivajo na namere mobilnosti.

Druge pomembne ugotovitve, ki prispevajo k modelom mobilnosti v visokošolskem sektorju, se nanašajo na determinante na sektorski ravni. Ugotovili smo, da prevelike zahteve akademskega dela odvrčajo profesorje od dela v visokošolskem sektorju, medtem ko jih priložnosti za razvoj znanja in veščin, ki jih ta sektor ponuja, zadržujejo v njem. Poleg tega možnosti in celo dolžnosti začasne mobilnosti znotraj visokošolskega sektorja ali v druge sektorje, ki jih nudi zaposlenim visokošolski izobraževalni sektor, prav tako vplivajo na

odločitev zaposlenih v visokem šolstvu za mobilnost. Pokaže se, da je ta dejavnik pomemben zgolj samo za medsektorsko mobilnost zaposlenih v visokem šolstvu oziroma njihovo nameravano mobilnost izven akademskega sveta. V nasprotju s predpostavko, da je negativno povezan z namerami za mobilnost in tako zadržuje zaposlene v visokošolskem sektorju, se je pokazalo nasprotno. Izkazalo se je, da možnosti začasne mobilnosti na sektorski ravni zaposlenih ne zadržijo v visokošolskem sektorju, ampak jih spodbujajo, da ga zapustijo. To je izjemna ugotovitev, ki dopolnjuje razumevanje mobilnosti na splošno in odnosa med začasno mobilnostjo kot sektorskim dejavnikom in trajno mobilnostjo zaposlenih v visokem šolstvu. Poleg tega so predhodne izkušnje s trajno mobilnostjo pomembno povezane s prihodnjimi namerami trajne mobilnosti, tako znotraj visokošolskega sektorja kot z mobilnostjo v druge sektorje. Ta ugotovitev je dodaten prispevek tako na področju mobilnosti kot k socialno-kognitivni teoriji, saj potrjuje, da je preteklo vedenje posameznika pomemben napovedovalec njegovega prihodnjega vedenja.

Končni pomemben prispevek te disertacije k literaturi o mobilnosti in fluktuaciji je razvoj večnivojske tipologije dejavnikov, ki olajšajo sodelovanje med izvornimi in ciljnim organizacijami mobilnih zaposlenih v znanjskih sektorjih. Kolikor nam je znano, je to prvi poskus preučevanje teh dejavnikov iz večnivojskega vidika, pri čemer delo ponuja rešitve, kako lahko izvirne organizacije nadomestijo izgubo ključnih zaposlenih. Posebej pomembna je ugotovitev, da možnost začasne mobilnosti, ki jo izvirna organizacija ponuja svojim nekdanjim zaposlenim, deluje kot dejavnik potencialnega medorganizacijskega sodelovanja med izvirno in ciljno organizacijo nekdanjega zaposlenega. Ta ugotovitev bogati in integrira teoretično razumevanje fenomena mobilnosti zaposlenih ter prispeva k literaturi o medorganizacijskih odnosih. Poudarja pogoje, ki jih mora mobilni zaposleni izpolnjevati za učinkovito posredniško vlogo pri vzpostavljanju sodelovanja med dvema konkurenčnima organizacijama znotraj istega sektorja. Poleg tega prispeva k literaturi o strateškem upravljanju človeških virov, saj organizacijski dejavniki iz tipologije nudijo organizacijam v sektorjih, ki temeljijo na znanju, jasne smernice za ublažitev negativnih učinkov trajne mobilnosti ključnih zaposlenih. Čeprav je visokošolski sektor specifičen, je veliko ugotovitev te disertacije mogoče prenesti in uporabiti v drugih znanjskih sektorjih.

Appendix 2: Most productive countries in the field of interorganizational employee mobility (Chapter 2)

Country/region	No. of affiliations	No. of publications	% of sample (240 publications)
USA	73	62	26
England	27	24	10.1
Netherlands	14	19	8.1
Germany	19	17	6.9
Italy	17	10	4.3
France	9	10	4
Sweden	11	8	3.5
Canada	15	8	3.2
China	12	8	3.2
Spain	10	6	2.6

Source: ISI Web of Knowledge Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI), own work

Appendix 3: Most influential countries in the field of interorganizational employee mobility (Chapter 2)

Country/region	No. of affiliations	No. of citations	% of total no. (13,874 citations)
USA	73	8,076	58.2
England	27	1,952	14.1
Netherlands	14	1,692	12.2
Germany	19	761	5.5
South Korea	7	597	4.3
Sweden	11	505	3.6
France	9	406	2.9
Canada	15	370	2.7
Italy	17	332	2.4
Norway	8	298	2.1

Source: ISI Web of Knowledge Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI), own work

Appendix 4: Most productive affiliations in the field of interorganizational employee mobility (Chapter 2)

Affiliation	Country	No. of publications	% of sample (240 publications)
University of California	USA	13	5.4
University of Pennsylvania	USA	10	4.2
University of Illinois	USA	10	4.2
University of Michigan	USA	8	3.3
University of Texas	USA	8	3.3
University of London	England	8	3.3
Copenhagen Business School	Denmark	7	2.9
Lund University	Sweden	6	2.5
University of Reading	England	6	2.5
Utrecht University	Netherlands	6	2.5

Source: ISI Web of Knowledge Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI), own work

Appendix 5: Most influential affiliations in the field of interorganizational employee mobility (Chapter 2)

Affiliation	Country	No. of citations	% of total no. (13,874 citations)
University of Pennsylvania	USA	2,962	21.3
Georgetown University	USA	2,869	20.7
Loughborough University	England	1,216	8.8
University of Maryland	USA	1,094	7.9
Columbia University	USA	699	5
Suffolk University	USA	646	4.7
Utrecht University	Netherlands	636	4.6
University of Twente	Netherlands	628	4.5
Yonsei University	South Korea	569	4.1
Lund University	Sweden	400	2.9

Source: ISI Web of Knowledge Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI), own work

Appendix 6: Most productive journals in the field of interorganizational employee mobility (Chapter 2)

Journal	No. of publications	% of sample (240 papers)	Publisher	Scimago Journal & Country Rank (2021)
Organization Science	14	5.8	Informa	Organizational Behavior & Human Resource Management Q1
Strategic Management Journal	10	4.2	Wiley	Strategy & Management Q1
Research Policy	8	3.3	Elsevier	Strategy & Management Q1
Administrative Science Quarterly	7	2.9	Sage	Public Administration Q1
Academy of Management Journal	6	2.5	Academy of Management	Strategy & Management Q1
International Journal of Human Resource Management	6	2.5	Taylor & Francis	Organizational Behavior & Human Resource Management Q1
Journal of Vocational Behavior	6	2.5	Elsevier	Organizational Behavior & Human Resource Management Q1
Advances in strategic Management	5	2.1	Emerald Group Publishing	Strategy & Management Q1
Journal of Management Studies	5	2.1	Wiley	Strategy & Management Q1
Industrial and Corporate Change	4	1.7	Oxford University Press	Economics and Econometrics Q1

Source: ISI Web of Knowledge Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI), own work

Appendix 7: Most influential journals in the field of interorganizational employee mobility (Chapter 2)

Journal	No. of citations	% of total no. (13,874)	Publisher	Scimago Journal & Country Rank (2021)
Management Science	2,853	20.6	Informa	Strategy & Management Q1
Academy of Management Journal	1,104	8	Academy of Management	Strategy & Management Q1
Academy of Management Review	865	6.2	Academy of Management	Strategy & Management Q1
International Journal of Management Reviews	720	5.2	Wiley	Strategy & Management Q1
Organization Science	678	4.9	Informa	Organizational Behavior & Human Resource Management Q1
Journal of Organizational Behavior	646	4.7	Wiley	Organizational Behavior & Human Resource Management Q1
Administrative Science Quarterly	643	4.6	Sage	Public Administration Q1
Strategic Management Journal	597	4.3	Wiley	Strategy & Management Q1
Research Policy	565	4.1	Elsevier	Strategy & Management Q1
Regional Studies	369	2.7	Routledge	Social and Environmental Sciences Q1

Source: ISI Web of Knowledge Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI), own work

Appendix 8: Most productive publishers in the field of interorganizational employee mobility (Chapter 2)

Publisher	No. of citations	% of total no. (13,874 citations)
Elsevier	45	18.8
Wiley	40	16.7
Sage	26	10.8
Taylor & Francis	25	10.4
Springer Nature	21	8.8
Informs	17	7.1
Emerald Group Publishing	15	6.3
Oxford University Press	10	4.2
Academy of Management	8	3.3
University of Chicago Press	4	1.7

Source: ISI Web of Knowledge Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI), own work

Appendix 9: Most productive research fields (Chapter 2)

Research field	No. of publications	% of sample (240 papers)
Business & Economics	178	74.2
Psychology	22	9.2
Environmental Sciences & Ecology	19	7.9
Geography	19	7.9
Sociology	18	7.5
Public Administration	16	6.7
Information Science	10	4.2
Engineering	6	2.5
Transportation	6	2.5
Computer Science	5	2.1

Source: ISI Web of Knowledge Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI), own work

Appendix 10: Most occurring keywords in the field of interorganizational employee mobility (Chapter 2)

Keyword	No. of occurrences	Keyword	No. of occurrences
Mobility	154	Spillovers	23
Performance	70	Dynamics	22
Knowledge	70	Industry	21
Innovation	57	Technology	21
Network	55	(Un)Employment	18
Organization/Firm	55	Model	18
Collaboration/Cooperation	47	Gender	15
Capability	26	Embeddedness	14
Market	26	Growth	14
Research & Development	25	Determinants	13

Source: ISI Web of Knowledge Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI), own work

Appendix 11: Interview guide (Chapter 4)

INFORMATION PHASE

- Introduction of the researcher and the main research topic.
- Definition of the main phenomenon to be studied – interorganizational employee mobility – and its types (temporary and permanent, intra- and inter-sector).
- Introduction to the purpose of the research and the subsequent data processing, explicitly emphasizing the anonymity and confidentiality of the respondents.
- Obtaining the respondent's consent to record the interview and agreeing to send the written interview once it has been transcribed.
- Leaving room for additional questions from the respondent before the interview begins.

WARM-UP PHASE

1) SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS

- What is your gender?
- How old are you?
- Where were you born?
- Where have you spent most of your life?
- Where do you currently live?
- Where did you study (at which HEI, in which city, in which country)?
- Did you change your place of residence because of the location of the HEI where you studied?
- What did you major in? Did you study something else?
- For respondents with a doctorate: Did you earn your doctorate from a different HEI than your master's degree?

2) FAMILY-RELATED QUESTIONS

- Are you married/in a relationship?
- Do you have children? How old are they?
- Are there other members in your household?
- Are you the only person in your household who brings home the income, or do some of your family members also contribute?
- Who contributes more to the household income – you or another member of your household?

3) EMPLOYMENT-RELATED QUESTIONS

- How long have you been working in total? How long have you been working in HE sector?
- Where are you currently employed?

- Is it a private or public company? How many employees does your current organization have? How long has this organization been in business – is it a newly established company or an established, long-standing organization?
- How long have you worked there?
- What type of employment do you have: full-time, part-time, temporary or permanent?
- What is your current position? Do you hold any other special position – e.g., director or secretary of an academic unit or a committee member?
- Do you have a non-compete or similar agreement with your current employer?
- Do you have your own business as an additional source of income?

MAIN PHASE

1) QUESTIONS ABOUT THE RESPONDENT'S CAREER PATH AND THE TYPES OF INTERORGANIZATIONAL MOBILITY THEY HAVE EXPERIENCED

- Can you describe in detail the experiences you have had with interorganizational mobility so far?
- How often have you experienced it? When was the last time you experienced it?
- How long did you stay with the organization(s) before moving on to another? Did you have any time off between the two jobs in different organizations?
- What position did you hold in the previous organization(s)? What was the nature of your employment? Did you hold any other special position? Did you have a non-compete or similar agreement with your previous employer?
- Have you been mobile within a sector or between sectors?
- Have you moved between two HEIs? Were these HEIs in the same field?
- Have you ever worked outside the HE sector? For how long? How does this sector relate to your research field and your academic unit?
- Have you ever had experience of temporary interorganizational mobility?

2) QUESTIONS ABOUT THE MAIN REASONS FOR THE RESPONDENT'S INTERORGANIZATIONAL MOBILITY(IES)

- Why did you change organizations, what were the main reasons for this decision?

A. QUESTIONS ABOUT INDIVIDUAL DETERMINANTS OF THE RESPONDENT'S INTERORGANIZATIONAL MOBILITY(IES)

- What were the most important personal factors that led to your decision for interorganizational mobility?
- Can you perhaps list and explain these factors in order from the most important to the least important, but still significant?

- Can you say more about career advancement and improving your skills and competencies - how does this relate to your experience of interorganizational mobility?
- How satisfied were you with your job in the organization you left? What are your general expectations of an employer? How do these expectations relate to your work-life balance? What expectations do you have of the job itself?
- Can you tell me more about your social ties/connections with others in your previous organization? How did these connections influence your mobility decision? Did they make you more attractive to your next employer? How did your relationships with others outside your previous organization affect your mobility decision? Did your social ties determine the organization you moved to?
- Which 5 characteristics/traits best describe you? How have these characteristics influenced your mobility decisions?
- What would you say about the skills you possess? How have your skills influenced your interorganizational mobility decisions? Were you able to transfer your skills between organizations, or were they more organization-specific? To what extent were your skills transferable when you moved between two different sectors?

B. QUESTIONS ABOUT ORGANIZATIONAL DETERMINANTS OF THE RESPONDENT'S INTERORGANIZATIONAL MOBILITY(IES)

- What were the most important organizational factors that led to your decision for interorganizational mobility?
- Can you perhaps list and explain the most important factors related to the organization you moved from and the most important factors related to the organization you moved to that led to your mobility decision?
- How did the size and location of the organization you moved from/to influence your mobility decision?
- What influence did the structure of the organization you left/moved to have on your mobility decision?
- What are the specific characteristics of the HE sector? How did these characteristics influence your mobility decision(s)?
- What is the status or rank of the organization you left/moved to and how did this influence your mobility decision?
- How did the salary in the organization you left influence your mobility decision? Were there differences between the salaries of employees at the same hierarchical level? Were there differences between the salaries of employees at different hierarchical levels? How did these salary differences influence your mobility decision? How big are the differences between your salary in previous and current organizations?

- Can you tell me more about your former employer's interorganizational network or connections/ties to other organizations in the same or other sectors? How did these connections influence your mobility decision?
- Did the lack or richness of your former employer's connections influence your decision to move? Did you move to the cooperating/partnering organization or the competing organization or neither?
- What is the interorganizational network of your current employer?
- Is your current employer in any way connected to your former employer? What are the most important factors that could affect a possible cooperation between your former and your new employer?
- Can you tell me more about the opportunities your previous employer offered you in terms of skills development, new learning and research, on-the-job training, etc.? How did they influence your mobility decision? What differences are there in these opportunities between your previous and current organizations?
- How fast and how good were the promotion opportunities in the organization you left? How did this influence your mobility decision? What are the differences in promotion opportunities between your previous and current organizations?
- Can you tell me more about the organizational support? What does this support mean to you and how supportive was the organization you left? What are the differences in organizational support between your previous and current organizations?

C. QUESTIONS ABOUT ECONOMIC DETERMINANTS OF THE RESPONDENT'S INTERORGANIZATIONAL MOBILITY(IES)

- Can you tell me about the general economic situation and perhaps some characteristics of the labor market at the time of your interorganizational mobility? How this influenced your mobility decision?

FINAL PHASE AND END OF THE INTERVIEW

1) QUESTIONS ABOUT EXPERIENCED OBSTACLES TO INTERORGANIZATIONAL MOBILITY(IES)

- Can you tell me about some of the obstacles you have faced in your mobility experience?

2) ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS, COMMENTS AND SUGGESTIONS FROM THE RESPONDENT BEFORE THE END OF THE INTERVIEW

Appendix 12: The invitation letter (Chapter 4)

Researcher: Iva Zdrilić, MEcon
Contact/e-mail: iva.zdrilic@efri.hr
Contact/mobile phone: 00385 (0) 91 792 2119

Participation in a PhD research project

Dear Prof. _____,

I am a 4th year PhD student at the School of Economics and Business, University of Ljubljana, Slovenia, currently working as a teaching and research assistant at the Faculty of Economics and Business, University of Rijeka, Croatia. My doctoral dissertation, supervised by Prof. Došenović Bonča and Prof. Aleksić, focuses on the various determinants and effects of interorganizational employee mobility, with an emphasis on the motivations and perceptions of mobile employees in the higher education sector.

Since you have personal experience with interorganizational mobility, I kindly invite you to participate in my research in which you will answer open-ended questions about the key factors that have driven your mobility decisions. The interview will be conducted online via one of the video conferencing platforms (e.g. Zoom, Google Meet, etc.) and will last no longer than 60 minutes.

Participation is completely voluntary and you can withdraw at any time. All information you provide will be kept absolutely confidential and will be analyzed, summarized and interpreted in combination with the responses of the other participants. The entire process will be conducted in accordance with the required ethical standards and the transcript of the interview will be sent to you for approval. The results are expected in the next few months and we would be happy to share them with you.

If you are willing to participate in the interview, please let me know so we can schedule a time that works best for you. If you have any further questions, please do not hesitate to contact me by email or mobile phone.

Thank you very much for your attention. I look forward to working with you.

Kind regards.

Iva Zdrilić



Appendix 13: The informed consent document (Chapter 4)

No. of informed consent form: _____

Consent to participate in a PhD research project

Title of PhD research project: *The interplay of determinants and types of interorganizational employee mobility in higher education*

Researcher: Iva Zdrilić, MEcon

By signing this consent form, you agree to voluntarily participate in a research project conducted by Iva Zdrilić, PhD student at the School of Economics and Business, University of Ljubljana and teaching and research assistant at the Faculty of Economics and Business, University of Rijeka.

Participation in a research project is completely voluntary, without financial compensation and can be revoked at any time. Participation in a research project means that you will be interviewed by me personally. The interview is expected to last up to 60 minutes. If you agree, I will record the interview, take notes during the interview, and then transcribe your responses. The transcript of the interview will then be sent to you for your approval.

Your anonymity is guaranteed throughout the process. I will only use fictitious names in the documents and reports, so your information and data collected will be completely anonymized and protected. All research data and information collected will be used for academic purposes only. If for any reason you are uncomfortable answering the questions or feel they are inappropriate, you have the right to refuse to answer.

By signing below, you acknowledge that you have read and understood the above terms and conditions, and you are giving your consent to participate in a PhD research project. All procedures in this research project are conducted in accordance with the guidelines of the Declaration of Helsinki and the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR). Behavioral perception studies that are non-invasive, fully anonymized and confidential are exempt from evaluation by the Ethics Committee of the School of Economics and Business, University of Ljubljana (SEB LU).

If you have any further questions, please do not hesitate to contact me at iva.zdrilic@efri.hr or 00385 (0) 91 792 2119.

PARTICIPANT

RESEARCHER

Iva Zdrilić



Place and date:

Appendix 14: Push and pull determinants, anchors and barriers of temporary intra-sector mobility of academics (Chapter 4)

PUSH DETERMINANTS

Individual level	No. of occur.	Organizational level	No. of occur.	Sector level	No. of occur.	Economic level	No. of occur.
Social ties	14	Organizational support	4	Competitive academic environment	1	Labor market characteristics	1
Permanent mobility experience	5	Work demands	3	Σ: 1 determinant	1	Σ: 1 determinant	1
Orientation to professional & personal development	4	Type of employment	3				
Job position	4	Work environment & organizational culture	1				
Personal characteristics	3	Σ: 4 determinants	11				
Job satisfaction	3						
Personal skills & competence	2						
Nature of the research field	2						
Additional income	1						
Academic visibility	1						
Σ: 10 determinants	39						

ANCHORS

Organizational level	No. of occur.	Sector level	No. of occur.
Organizational support	2	Academic specific conditions & requirements	1
Type of employment	1	Academic flexibility	1
Work environment & organizational culture	1	Σ: 2 determinants	2
Σ: 3 determinants	4		

PULL DETERMINANTS

Organizational level	No. of occur.	Sector level	No. of occur.	Economic level	No. of occur.
Opportunities to develop new knowledge & skills	8	Structural characteristics	1	National culture	3
Interorganizational ties	7	Status of HE sector	1	Σ: 1 determinant	3
Establishment of the research field	7	Σ: 2 determinants	2		
Organizational support	4				
Organizational status	4				
Organizational location	3				
Work demands	1				
Σ: 7 determinants	34				

BARRIERS

Organizational level	No of. occur.	Economic level	No of. occur.
Organizational structure	1	Economic development	3
Σ: 1 determinant	1	Government policies & public services	1
		Σ: 2 determinants	4

Notes: The determinants colored orange were identified in two groups. The determinant colored green was identified in three groups.

Source: own work

Appendix 15: Push and pull determinants of temporary inter-sector mobility of academics (Chapter 4)

PUSH DETERMINANTS

Individual level	No. of occur.	Sector level	No. of occur.
Orientation to professional & personal development	3	Academic salary	1
Social ties	3	Σ: 1 determinant	1
Additional income	2		
Personal characteristics	1		
Temporary mobility experience	1		
Permanent mobility experience	1		
Personal skills & competence	1		
Σ: 7 determinants	12		

PULL DETERMINANTS

Organizational level	No. of occur.	Economic level	No. of occur.
Opportunities to develop new knowledge & skills	3	National culture	1
Establishment of the research field	1	Σ: 1 determinant	1
Interorganizational ties	1		
Σ: 3 determinants	5		

Source: own work

Appendix 16: Push and pull determinants, anchors and barriers of permanent intra-sector mobility of academics (Chapter 4)

PUSH DETERMINANTS							
Individual level	No. of occur.	Organizational level	No. of occur.	Sector level	No. of occur.	Economic level	No. of occur.
Social ties	28	Type of employment	10	Academic labor market characteristics	7	Government policies & public services	8
Family ties	18	Work environment & organizational culture	10	Academic specific conditions & requirements	2	National culture	3
Orientation to professional & personal development	9	Organizational support	9	Σ: 2 determinants	9	Economic development	2
Personal characteristics	7	Work demands	9			COVID-19 pandemic	2
Personal skills & competence	7	Organizational location	7			Σ: 4 determinants	15
Academic visibility	7	Establishment of the research field	3				
Temporary mobility experience	6	Career opportunities	2				
Job satisfaction	3	Salary	1				
Age	2	Σ: 8 determinants	51				
Permanent mobility experience	2						
Education	1						
Nature of the research field	1						
Individual interests & preferences	1						
Σ: 13 determinants	92						
ANCHORS							
Individual level	No. of occur.	Organizational level	No. of occur.	Sector level	No. of occur.	Economic level	No. of occur.
Social ties	7	Organizational location	4	Academic specific conditions & requirements	1	National culture	2
Family ties	7	Organizational support	1	Σ: 1 determinant	1	Government policies & public services	1
Age	2	Work environment & organizational culture	1			Σ: 2 determinants	3
Household characteristics	2	Σ: 3 determinants	6				
Job satisfaction	2						
Comfort zone	1						
Personal characteristics	1						
Organization-specific skills	1						
Established career	1						
Σ: 9 determinants	24						
PULL DETERMINANTS							
Organizational level	No. of occur.	Sector level	No. of occur.	Economic level	No. of occur.		
Organizational location	21	Structural characteristics	6	Government policies & public services	7		
Organizational status	16	Academic labor market characteristics	3	National culture	6		
Opportunities to develop new knowledge & skills	17	Academic specific conditions & requirements	1	Economic development	4		
Organizational support	14	Work-life balance conditions	1	Labor market characteristics	3		
Establishment of the research field	13	Opportunities to develop new knowledge & skills	1	Σ: 4 determinants	20		
Salary	10	Σ: 5 determinants	12				
Work demands	8						
Job position	7						
Work environment & organizational culture	6						
Work-life balance conditions	5						
Interorganizational ties	4						
Type of employment	4						
Organizational structure	2						
Career opportunities	2						
Research mentor	1						
Organizational size	1						
Temporary mobility	1						
Σ: 17 determinants	132						
BARRIERS							
Organizational level	No. of occur.	Sector level	No. of occur.	Economic level	No. of occur.		
Establishment of the research field	2	Academic competitive environment	8	Government policies & public services	6		
Organizational location	1	Structural characteristics	3	National culture	5		
Work demands	1	Academic salary	2	Economic development	1		
Opportunities to develop new knowledge & skills	1	Academic specific conditions & requirements	2	Σ: 3 determinants	12		
Σ: 4 determinants	5	Academic labor market characteristics	1				
		Σ: 5 determinants	16				

Notes: The determinants colored orange were identified in two groups. The determinants colored green were identified in three groups. The determinants colored red were identified in all four groups. The determinants colored blue were identified in one or more groups at different levels of analysis.

Source: own work

Appendix 17: Push and pull determinants, anchors and barriers of permanent inter-sector mobility of academics (Chapter 4)

PUSH DETERMINANTS

Individual level	No. of occur.	Organizational level	No. of occur.	Sector level	No. of occur.	Economic level	No. of occur.		
Individual interests & preferences	11	Organizational support	3	Academic job demands	4	COVID-19 pandemic	1		
Personal skills & competences	11	Organizational location	2	Academic flexibility	2	Σ: 1 determinant	1		
Family ties	9	Work demands	2	Structural characteristics	2				
Personal characteristics	8	Temporary mobility	1	Academic activities	1				
Social ties	7	Work environment & organizational culture	1	Academic job significance	1				
Orientation to professional & personal development	5	Organizational size	1	Academic specific conditions & requirements	1				
Organization-specific skills	3	Σ: 6 determinants	10	Σ: 6 determinants	11				
Temporary mobility experience	2	ANCHORS							
Permanent mobility experience	2								
Job satisfaction	1	Individual level	No. of occur.	Organizational level	No. of occur.	Sector level	No. of occur.		
Age	1	Social ties	3	Salary	1	Academic flexibility	4		
Health problems	1	Family ties	1	Organizational support	1	Academic specific conditions & requirements	2		
Σ: 12 determinants	61	Personal				Opportunities to develop			

PULL DETERMINANTS

Organizational level	No. of occur.	Sector level	No. of occur.
Organizational location	5	Academic flexibility	11
Establishment of the research field	4	Opportunities to new knowledge & skills	7
Organizational support	3	Academic activities	7
Interorganizational	2	Academic job significance	2
Organizational status	3	Academic specific conditions & requirements	2
Opportunities to new knowledge & skills	1	Structural characteristics	1
Research mentor	1	Σ: 6 determinants	30
Work environment & organizational culture	1		
Job position	1		
Σ: 9 determinants	21		

BARRIERS

Organizational level	No. of occur.	Sector level	No. of occur.
Organizational location	1	Academic specific conditions & requirements	1
Σ: 1 determinant	1	Structural characteristics	1
		Academic competitive environment	1
		Σ: 3 determinants	3

Notes: The determinants colored orange were identified in two groups. The determinants colored green were identified in three groups. The determinants colored red were identified in all four groups. The determinants colored blue were identified in one or more groups at different levels of analysis.

Source: own work

Appendix 18: Original versions of the measurement scales used in the online questionnaire (Chapter 5)

Measurement scale for permanent intra-sector mobility intention

Source: Mowday et al., 1982; McGinley et al., 2019

Item	Original statement	Adapted statement
1	I think a lot about leaving the company.	I think about leaving my current organization and moving to another higher education institution.
2	I am actively searching for an alternative to this company.	I am actively searching for an alternative higher education institution.
3	As soon as it is possible, I will leave this company.	As soon as it is possible, I will leave this organization and move to another higher education institution.

Measurement scale for permanent inter-sector mobility intention

Source: Mowday et al., 1982; McGinley et al., 2019

Item	Original statement	Adapted statement
1	I think a lot about leaving the hotel industry.	I think a lot about leaving the higher education sector/academia.
2	I am actively searching for an alternative to the hotel industry.	I am actively searching for an alternative permanent job outside of academia.
3	As soon as it is possible, I will leave the hotel industry.	As soon as it is possible, I will leave the academia and move to another sector.

Measurement scale for internal social ties

Source: Al Rubiash et al., 2011

Item	Original statement	Adapted statement
1	I have a sense of friendship and team spirit with colleagues.	In my current organization, I have a strong sense of friendship and team spirit with my colleagues.
2	Work relations are satisfactory.	In my current organization, my relations with colleagues are satisfactory.
3	I have good interpersonal communication and cooperation.	I have good interpersonal communication and cooperation in my current organization.
4	Activities are coordinated and integrated.*	
5	I have chances for socialization with colleagues during work.*	

Measurement scale for external social ties

Source: Wolff & Moser, 2006

Item	Original statement	Adapted statement
1	I keep in touch with former colleagues for professional interests.	I keep in touch with my former colleagues for professional interests.
2	If I get to know a person from another organization who could be important	If I get to know a person from another organization who could be important to me

	to me professionally, I talk to them about our areas of work.	professionally, I talk to them about our areas of work.
3	I establish unofficial contacts with people outside my company in order to have personal contacts there.	I establish personal contacts with people from other organizations.
4	I use business trips or training events to make new contacts.	I use business trips and training events (e.g., conferences, workshops, seminars, etc.) to make new contacts.
5	I use my contacts with acquaintances outside my company to get advice on professional issues.	I use my contacts outside my organization to get advice on professional issues.
6	I meet with professional acquaintances from other organizations outside of actual working hours.*	
7	If I receive information unofficially that is professionally important to friends from other organizations, I pass this information on to them.*	
8	I send greetings to professional acquaintances outside of our company.*	

Measurement scale for family ties

Source: Bertrand & Schoar, 2006; Alesina & Giuliano, 2010, 2011, 2015

Item	Original statement	Adapted statement
1	Family is the most important thing in my life.	Family is the most important thing in my life.
2	It is the parents' duty to do their best for their children even at the expense of their own well-being.	It is the parents' duty to do their best for their children even at the expense of their own well-being.
3	Regardless of what the qualities and faults of one's parents are, one must always love and respect them.*	
4	One does not have the duty to respect and love parents who have not earned it.*	
5	Parents have a life of their own and should not be asked to sacrifice their own well-being for the sake of their children.*	

Measurement scale for job satisfaction

Source: Korea Labor Institute, 1998; Raffiee & Coff, 2016

Item	Original statement	Adapted statement
1	I am satisfied with the job I am currently doing.	I am dissatisfied with the job in my current organization.
2	I am glad to have joined this company.	I am glad I have joined my current organization.
3	I feel this job to a be personally rewarding.	I feel the job in my current organization to be personally rewarding.

- 4 I enjoy this job. I enjoy the job in my current organization.
- 5 I want to continue this job if other things remain the same.*

Measurement scale for work demands

Source: Boyd et al., 2011

Item	Original statement	Adapted statement
1	I do not have enough time to perform quality research.	I have enough time to perform good quality academic research.
2	The number of hours I am expected to teach has increased in recent years.	The number of hours I have to teach in my current organization is feasible.
3	The amount of administration I am expected to do is manageable, given my other responsibilities.	The amount of administration I am expected to do in in my current organization is manageable, given my other responsibilities.

Measurement scale for work environment & organizational culture

Source: Bendaraviciene et al., 2014

Item	Original statement	Adapted statement
1	Work environment is collegial.	Work environment in my current organization is collegial.
2	Openness and sincerity is encouraged in University.	Openness and sincerity are encouraged in my current organization.
3	Conflicts are harmonized and resolved effectively in University	Conflicts are resolved effectively in my current organization.
4	Constructive criticism is appreciated.	Constructive criticism is appreciated in my current organization.
5	Ethical standards are followed.	Ethical standards are followed in my current organization.
6	Good atmosphere prevails in University.	Good atmosphere prevails in my current organization.
7	High quality performance culture is being created in University.	High quality performance culture is being created in my current organization.
8	Creativeness and initiative is fostered in University.	Creativeness and initiative are fostered in my current organization.
9	Academic freedom is valued.	Academic freedom is valued in my current organization.
10	I felt like my organization is very supportive of me.	I feel like my current organization is very supportive of me.
11	Environment is community-friendly.*	

Measurement scale for salary

Source: Bendaraviciene et al., 2014

Item	Original statement	Adapted statement
1	Effective employee incentive scheme is functioning in University (for loyalty, achievement, etc.).	Employee incentive system (for loyalty, achievement, etc.) is effective in my current organization.
2	Additional benefits are offered to motivate employees.	My current organization offers additional benefits to motivate its academic staff.

3	I am getting paid enough for my job.	I am paid enough for my job in my current organization.
4	Best employees are appreciated in University.	My current organization appreciates its best academics.
5	Employee's performance results and competencies are recognized and rewarded.	My current organization rewards performance results of its academics.

Measurement scale for attractiveness of organizational location

Source: Puri, 2018

Item	Original statement	Adapted statement
1	The location of the organization has a greater value if it is close to home.	The location of my current organization is good because I don't have to spend a lot of time commuting.
2	The location of the organization has a greater value if it is close to home town.	The location of my current organization is good because it is located in or near my home town.
3	The location of the organization has a greater value if it is located in metropolitan (major) city.	The location of my current organization is good because it is located in metropolis or large city.
4		The location of my current organization is good because it is close to facilities that I use every day.

Measurement scale for career opportunities

Source: Balfour & Wechsler, 1996; Kim, 2005

Item	Original statement	Adapted statement
1	This organization provides me with a fair opportunity for advancement or promotion.	My current organization provides me with a fair opportunity for promotion.
2	Promotion speed in this organization is fast.	Promotion speed in my current organization is fast.
3	I can see opportunities for advancement in this organization.	The probability of being promoted in my current organization is high.

Measurement scale for academic job demands

Source: Kahn et al., 1964; Caplan et al., 1975; Kirmeyer & Dougherty, 1988; Moore, 2000

Item	Original statement	Adapted statement
1	I feel that the number of requests, problems or complaints I deal with is more than expected.	I feel that the number of teaching hours and research requirements in my academic job is more than expected.
2	I feel pressured.	I feel pressured on the academic job.
3	I feel that the amount of work I do interferes with how well it is done.	I feel that the amount of work I do (teaching hours and research requirements) interferes with how well it is done.
4	I feel busy or rushed.	I feel rushed on the job in academia.

Measurement scale for academic activities

Source: Bendaraviciene et al., 2014

Item	Original statement	Adapted statement
1	I like my job and find it interesting.	I like the teaching and research aspects of the academic job and find them interesting.
2	My job feels meaningful.	All aspects of the academic job feel meaningful.
3	My job is intellectually challenging.	All aspects of the academic job are intellectually challenging.
4	I can realize my ideas and potential.	I can realize my ideas and potential in all aspects of the academic profession.
5	My job meets my experience and abilities.	The academic job meets my abilities.
6	I know what is expected of me at work.*	
7	I feel that I and my efforts are valued.*	
8	I have career opportunities in my University.*	

Measurement scale for academic job significance

Source: Hackman & Oldham, 1974

Item	Original statement	Adapted statement
1	The job itself is not very significant or important in the broader scheme of things.	My academic job is very important for practice.
2	This job is one where a lot of other people can be affected by how well the work gets done.	My academic job is one where a lot of people from other industries and sectors can be affected by how well the work is done.
3	My job is significant – i.e, results of my work are likely to significantly affect the lives or well-being of other people.	My academic job is very significant for society in general.

Measurement scale for academic flexibility

Source: Al-Rubaish et al., 2011

Item	Original statement	Adapted statement
1	I have freedom of decision how to accomplish my assigned work.	The academic job gives me the freedom to decide how I do the work assigned to me.
2	I have clear idea about my job position, scope of my work and my responsibilities.	In the academic job, I have a clear idea of the scope of my work and my responsibilities.
3	I have flexible work procedures at my job.	The academic job allows flexible work procedures.
4	I have freedom of choice when performing my duties.	In the academic job, I have the freedom to choose how I perform my duties.
5	I have sufficient professional authority and autonomy at work.	I have sufficient professional authority and autonomy in the academic job.

Measurement scale for academic opportunities

Source: Moynihan & Landuyt, 2008

Item	Original statement	Adapted statement
1	Training is made available to us for personal growth and development.	Higher education sector offers me training for my professional growth and development
2	We have access to information about job opportunities, conferences, workshops, and training.	Higher education sector offers me access to information about job opportunities, conferences, workshops and trainings.

Measurement scale for academic specific conditions & requirements

Source: own work based on the results of a qualitative study

Item	Original statement	Adapted statement
1	Temporary mobility to another higher education institution is one of the mandatory prerequisites for my academic advancement.	
2	Working in the higher education sector offers me many opportunities to temporarily move to another higher education institution and experience what it would be like to work there.	
3	Working in the higher education sector offers me many opportunities to temporarily move to an organization in a different sector or industry and experience what it would be like to work there.	

Notes: The items marked with an asterisk from the original scales were omitted from the adapted scales used in the online questionnaire.

Source: own work