INFLUENCE OF REMUNERATION FACTORS ON STAFF TURNOVER IN HUMANITARIAN SECTOR
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INFLUENCE OF REMUNERATION FACTORS ON STAFF TURNOVER IN HUMANITARIAN SECTOR

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Abstract

Purpose: The purpose of this study was to determine the influence of remuneration factors on staff turnover in humanitarian sector

Methodology: The study adopted descriptive survey design. The population of this study was drawn from the employees of various NGOs registered with the 4 NGO coordinating bodies. Data was collected through questionnaires; it was prepared in readiness for analysis by editing, handling blank responses, coding, categorizing and keying into Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) computer software for analysis. SPSS was used to produce frequencies, descriptive and inferential statistics that were used to derive conclusions and generalizations regarding the population. Specifically, correlation and regression statistics were used.

Results: The study findings revealed that remuneration was important in explaining staff turnover. This is supported by a p value 0.000 which means that remuneration is a statistically significant predictor of staff turnover.

Policy recommendation: The study recommended that the human resource managers should establish competitive human resource practices that are meant to control staff turnover. For example it is recommended to the management of NGOs in Afghanistan to conduct a market survey in order to establish the optimal remuneration levels for NGO employee in order to control for the detriments that are associated with staff turnover.

Keywords: remuneration factors, staff turnover, humanitarian sector
1.1 Introduction

Over the past ten years, staff turnover has become a major concern for humanitarian agencies. It has sometimes been presented not only as the reality humanitarian agencies have to live with, but it has also been blamed for reducing the effectiveness of programmes as a result of discontinuity in staffing and loss of institutional memory. Yet, while much has been discussed, no one has attempted an in-depth study offering a detailed consideration of the causes and consequences of staff turnover in the humanitarian sector (HPG Report11, 2002).

There have been massive changes in the humanitarian business over the last two decades (HPG Report11, 2002). The increase in natural as well as complex emergencies around the world, the protracted nature of the conflicts, the increase in funds being channelled by humanitarian organizations and the change in the world economy that creates a social and humanitarian welfare contribute to the expansion of the existing humanitarian organizations and the birth of many new organizations (Linderberg, 1999; Reuben, 2002, Chege, 1999, HPN newsletter, 2002). As the industry expands it will face similar challenges like the private and public sector such as acquiring and retaining skilled personnel. The working environment may additionally contribute to the difficulty in acquiring and the retaining skilled personnel and further be responsible for high staff turnover rate in the humanitarian sector. The working environment in the humanitarian sector differs significantly from the public and private sectors. The more salient differences involve working: in a location far away from families and friends; under tremendous stress and in multicultural teams, in insecure environments; in situations where workers frequently witness severe human suffering and pain. Hence, this may limit the desire to work in the sector for a long time. Likewise the motivation of joining of the humanitarian sector may influence staff turnover in the sector.

According to recent surveys, “attracting and retaining key talent is considered as a key strategy to achieve financial success” (Raikes & Vernier, 2004). The impact of turnover is widely considered to have direct and indirect costs on organizations, with the bill costing anywhere between 50 and 150% of an annual salary (Mercer, 2004). In the humanitarian sector as well, the negative impact of staff turnover on the performance of relief aid agencies, and ultimately on what is delivered to beneficiaries, is mentioned as a key challenge to address (Richardson 2005; EPN 2005; Loquercio 2005), with the cost of a successful recruitment estimated at around 15’000 sterling pounds by both the ICRC and VSO (Loquercio, 2006).

Staff turnover is the rotation of workers around the labour market; between firms, jobs and occupations; and between the states of employment and unemployment (Abassi & Hollman, 2000). Organizations invest a lot on their employees in terms of induction and training, developing, maintaining and retaining them in their organization. Therefore, managers at all costs must minimize employee’s turnover. Although, there is no standard framework for understanding the employees turnover process as whole, a wide range of factors have been found useful in interpreting employee turnover (Kevin, Joan & Adrian, 2000, 2004). Therefore, there is need to develop a fuller understanding of the employee turnover, more especially, the sources- what determines employee turnover, effects and strategies that managers can put in place minimize turnover (Ongori Henry, 2007).

With globalization, which is heightening competition, organizations must continue to develop tangible products and provide services, which are based on strategies created by employees. These employees are extremely crucial to the organization since their value to the
organization is essentially intangible and not easily replicated (Meaghan & Bontis, 2002). Therefore, managers must recognize that employees are major contributors to the efficient achievement of the organization’s success (Abbasi et al. 2000). Managers should control employee turnover for the benefit of the organization success. The literature on employee turnover is divided into three groupings: sources of employee turnover, effects of turnover and the strategies to minimize turnover.

A high staff turnover rate has a lot of negative consequences. Besides the costs associated with actual separation of the employee and recruiting, hiring and training of new employees other costs may not be easy to ascertain. The indirect cost of turnover may extend to decrease quality of aid or program, loss of trust between the beneficiaries and the agency, failure of program, loss of institutional memory and a loss of skilled personnel to competition agencies, a loss of talented future leader of organizations and may contribute to other staffs tendencies to quit (Loquercio, 2006).

The NGO sector is growing globally. Statistics indicate a 400 percent increase in the number of international NGOs. From a couple of hundred in the 1960s, the number had reached 50,000 by 1993 worldwide. In 2001, the last year for which complete figures are mostly available, the size of the “non-firm, non-government” sector was estimated at 1.4 million organizations, with revenues of nearly $680 billion and an estimated 11.7 million employees. Over 15 percent of development aid is channelled through NGOs. A UN report says that the global non-profit sector with its more than $1 trillion turnover could rank as the world’s eighth largest economy. The growing NGO influence is evident in many ways. On one hand, the overall global flow of funding through NGOs increased from $200 billion in 1970 to $2,600 billion in 1997. On the other hand, the buzzword ‘civil society’ has been appropriated by the NGOs. Understandably, there has been a twenty-fold increase in citations of NGOs in the Wall Street Journal and the Financial Times in the last few years, Meaghan et al. (2002).

Many international NGOs (or INGOs in NGO lingo) have organized themselves like multinationals. The Oxfam family had a turnover of $504 million in 1999 and worked in 117 countries, World Vision had $600 million and worked in 92 countries, and Save the Children had $368 million and worked in 121 countries. Seven of the largest NGOs had a combined income of $2.5 billion in 1999. NGOs are now invited to bid for aid projects in the UK. They compete both with government and private sectors. It is hard to define an NGO, but according to the UN definition: “Any non-profit, voluntary citizens’ group which is organized on a local, national or international level. Task-oriented and driven by people with a common interest, NGOs perform a variety of services and humanitarian functions, bring citizens’ concern to governments, monitor policies and encourage political participation at the community level. They provide analysis and expertise; serve as early warning mechanisms and help monitor and implement international agreements. Some are organized around specific issues, such as human rights, the environment or health” (Sulehria, 2011).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

There may be a lot of contributing factors that can give rise to high staff turnover in the expanding humanitarian sector. However, there exists a dearth of conclusive research on the factors that influence staff turnover. It is therefore for this research gap that the study wishes to investigate the factors influencing staff turnover in humanitarian sector.

1.3 Research Objective

To determine the influence of remuneration factor on staff turnover in humanitarian sector
2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Theoretical review

2.1.1 Need Hierarchy Theory
Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of human needs theory is the most widely discussed theory of motivation. The theory can be summarized as thus: a) Human beings have wants and desires which influence their behavior; only unsatisfied needs can influence behavior, satisfied needs cannot b) Since needs are many, they are arranged in order of importance, from the basic to the complex c) The person advances to the next level of needs only after the lower level need is at least minimally satisfied d) The further the progress up the hierarchy, the more individuality, humanness and psychological health a person will show (Eugene. B, 2005)

2.1.2 Theoretical Approach to Motivation
Many contemporary authors have also defined the concept of motivation. Motivation has been defined as: the psychological process that gives behavior purpose and direction (Kreitner, 1995); a predisposition to behave in a purposive manner to achieve specific, unmet needs (Buford, Bedeian, & Lindner, 1995); an internal drive to satisfy an unsatisfied need (Higgins, 1994); and the will to achieve (Bedeian, 1993). For this paper, motivation is operationally defined as the inner force that drives individuals to accomplish personal and organizational goals.

In the advent of humanity, motivation was an element which was measured by observation as individuals observed the reaction of others as well as animals when a stimulus was introduced. Collaboration studies done by P. Moss &E. Stephens used a unit known as MOTIVA to measure the level of motivation exhibited by students. The SI unit MOTIVA was a factor of: number of classes attended, the number of assignments handed in and the punctuality of students. In business circles, managers rely on the likert scale to measure the level of motivation exhibited by employees.

2.2 Conceptual Framework

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variable</th>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Remuneration</td>
<td>Staff turnover</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 1: Conceptual Framework*
2.3 **Empirical Review**

2.3.1 **Remuneration Factors**

The research conducted on the link between dissatisfaction with pay and voluntary turnover appears to be inconclusive. (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979) concluded that results from studies on the role of pay in turnover were mixed but that often there was no relationship between pay and turnover. Other studies found no significant relationship. On the other hand Campion (1991) cited in Tang suggests that the most important reason for voluntary turnover is higher wages/career opportunity. Martin (2003) investigates the determinants of labour turnover using establishment-level survey data for the UK. Martin indicated that there is an inverse relationship between relative wages and turnover (i.e. establishments with higher relative pay had lower turnover).

Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner (2000) noted pay and pay-related variables have a modest effect on turnover. Their analysis also included studies that examined the relationship between pay, a person’s performance and turnover. They concluded that when high performers are insufficiently rewarded, they leave. They cite findings from Milkovich and Newman (1999) that where collective reward programs replace individual incentives, their introduction may lead to higher turnover among high performers.

2.3.2 **Job Related Factors**

Most researchers (Bluedorn, 1982; Kalliath and Beck, 2001; Kramer, Callister & Turban, 1995; Peters et al., 1981; Saks, 1996) have attempted to answer the question of what determines people's intention to quit by investigating possible antecedents of employees’ intentions to quit. To date, there has been little consistency in findings, which is partly due to the diversity of employed techniques included by the researchers, and the lack of consistency in their findings. Therefore, there are several reasons why people quit from one organization to another or why people leave organization. The experience of job related stress (job stress), the range factors that lead to job related stress (stressors), lack of commitment in the organization; and job dissatisfaction make employees to quit (Firth et al., 2004). This clearly indicates that these are individual decisions, which make one to quit. They are other factors like personal agency refers to concepts such as a sense of powerlessness, locus of control and personal control. Locus control refers to the extent to which people believe that the external factors such as chance and powerful others are in control of the events, which influence their lives Firth, Mellor, Moore and Loquet (2004).

Mano, Shay & Tzafrir (2004) argue that employees quit from organization due economic reasons. Using economic model they showed that people quit from organization due to economic reasons and these can be used to predict the labour turnover in the market. Good local labour market conditions improve organizational stability. Schervish (1983). Large organizations can provide employees with better chances for advancement and higher wages and hence ensure organizational attachment (Idson & Feaster 1990).

Trevor (2001) argues that local unemployment rates interact with job satisfaction to predict turnover in the market. Role stressors also lead to employees’ turnover. Role ambiguity refers to the difference between what people expect of us on the job and what we feel we should do.
This causes uncertainty about what our role should be. It can be a result of misunderstanding what is expected, how to meet the expectations, or the employee thinking the job should be different Kahn et al. Muchinsky, 1990. Insufficient information on how to perform the job adequately, unclear expectations of peers and supervisors, ambiguity of performance evaluation methods, extensive job pressures, and lack of consensus on job functions or duties may cause employees to feel less involved and less satisfied with their jobs and careers, less committed to their organizations, and eventually display a propensity to leave the organization, Tor and Owen 1997). If roles of employees were not clearly spelled out by management/ supervisors, this would accelerate the degree of employees quitting their jobs due to lack of role clarity.

Shah & Burke (2003) reviewed some of the literature on the relationship between turnover and training. In a British study examining the impact of training on mobility, Green, Felsted, Mayhew & Pack (2000) concluded that, in aggregate, training has on average no impact on mobility. However, training that is wholly sponsored by the individual (or their families) is on balance likely to be a prelude to job search. In contrast, when employers pay for training the downward effect on mobility is more likely.

Lynch (1991, 1992) concluded that both on-the-job and off-the-job training have a significant effect on job mobility. While formal on-the-job training reduces the likelihood of mobility, particularly for young women, off-the-job training increases the likelihood of mobility. In a study of six local labour markets in Britain, Elias (1994) found that women who received employer-provided and job-related training had a lower probability of changing employer or making the transition to non-employment, but for men training made no significant difference to this type of turnover.

2.3.3 Work Environment Factors

A numbers of studies have conduct to explain the work environment with different aspects such as job satisfaction (Iaffaldano&Muchinsky, 1985) and employee retention (Martin 1979), employee turnover, organizational commitment and job involvement (Sjoberg &Sverke 2000). Work environment is considered one of the most important factors in employees’ retention (Zeytinoglu&Denton, 2005). According to Hytter (2008) work environment is generally discussed as industrial perspective, focus on aspect i.e. noise, toxic substances exposure and heavy lifts etc. The interesting part of work environment is; work environment characteristics in services sector is differ from production sector, because services sector directly deal with consumers / clients (Normann 1986). The interactions depends on the kind of job or / and kind of business, it may be more or may be less. The interaction between employees and client / consumer move from physical to Psychological dimension. Psychological work environment consist of workload, decision, support, stressors, latitude and decision etc. It is much important to know and recognize the emerging needs of employees and provide good work environment as required to keep the employees committed with organization.

Extensive scientific research conducted by Roelofsen (2002) has also yielded indications suggesting that improving working environment results in a reduction in a number of complaints and absenteeism and an increase in productivity. The indoor environment has the biggest effect on productivity in relation to job stress and job dissatisfaction. As suggested by Govindarajulu (2004), in the twenty-first century, businesses are taking a more strategic approach to environmental management to enhance their productivity through improving their performance level of the employees. It is evident in the research findings of Patterson
&Ferguson, (2003) that the more satisfied workers are with their jobs the better the company is likely to perform in terms of subsequent profitability and particularly productivity. Sekar (2011) argues that the relationship between work, the work place and the tools of work, workplace becomes an integral part of work itself. The management that dictate how, exactly, to maximize employee productivity center around two major areas of focus: personal motivation and the infrastructure of the work environment. (Sekar, 2011). There are various literatures that define different factors that influence the performance of the employees. Haynes (2008) explains the behavioral office environment behavioral components of the office environment that have the greatest impact on office productivity. In all of the work patterns, it was found that interaction was perceived to be the component to have the most positive effect on productivity, and distraction was perceived to have the most negative. As people are the most valuable resource of an organization, and that the management of people makes a difference to company performance (Patterson, Malcolm, West, Lawthorn and Nickel, 1997).

According to Ramlall (2003), people strive to work and to stay in those corporations that provide good and positive work environment, where employee feels that they are valued and making difference. Proficient employees of such organizations are dragging together to push the organization forward. Research conducted by ASID find that physical & work environment play pivotal role in employee’s decision whether to leave the job or stay and consider as a major factor in employee retention. Light has been identified is a casual factor of job performance, sometime noise disturb the working environments and create a hitch in office which is harmful to employees psychological & physical welfare, encouragement and at times productivity.

2.3.4 Supervision Factors
The leadership style consider affective factor in employee retention. The relationship between supervisor and worker play pivotal role in employee turnover intention. The organization “human face” is supervisors. Leaders are the human face of the firm. Eisenberger and associates (1990) suggested that employees view regarding organization is strongly concerned to their relationship with supervisor. If supervisor support, open communication and have good relationship with employees, the employees’ turnover intention are likely less and more engaged with organization (Greenhaus, 1994). Leaders interact as a bond to perform application between expectations and stated goals. By harmonizing the rivaling demands supervisor support and manage the inside / outside work environment. If the relationship among workers and supervisor is exceeding / strong the worker will never seek to any other new employment opportunity but stay in the organization and vice versa. Employees leave the leaders not jobs so leader support is also essential in this regard (Ontario, 2004).

Employees who are valued and they feel esteemed will take active part in the organization goals, show productive behavior, workplace and increased job involvements, which decrease absenteeism and turnover intention rates. The effective leadership style can be revealed by formal and informal acknowledgment. In organization employees responds to admire, support and encouragement, no matter the environment is profession or personal (Silbert, 2005). To ensure accurate performance appraisal management leader must discusses the progress with employees outside the time of formal evaluation process. They assist workers to find the right place in the firm, not only move in the hierarchy next position (Freyermuth, 2007).
According to Silbert (2005), well skilled and talented workers may easily find good job, position and workplace elsewhere however the effective way for retention these talented employees is to enhance friendly and close working environment and to promote leader support. Freyermuth (2007) recommended that organization must groom leader to support the employees and to well build the work environment where workers want to stay. Providing opportunities test their abilities and providing level of performance can enhance employees capabilities and want to stay in the organization.

It has been suggested that emotional support at work helps balance work and family roles because it contributes to the employee’s energy level (Daalen, Willemsen& Sanders, 2006). A supportive supervisor may help boost an employee’s energy level by discussing family-related problems, reinforce the employee’s positive self-image by giving feedback, and reduce stress by showing understanding for the employee’s family life (Halbesleben, 2006; Lapierre & Allen, 2006). Using insights from the enrichment approach (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Lapierre & Allen, 2006), Greenhaus and Powell (2006), we expect that such emotional resources help boost employees’ work outcomes most when they replace resources that employees lack at home. On the basis of the conflict approach (Friedman, Christensen, & DeGroot, 1998), one could argue that employees have more need for supervisor support because they have heavier family demands. Supervisor support, however, is not aimed primarily at combining work and family tasks. Instead, it helps employees in general function better at work and find a work life fit (Anderson, Coffey & Byerly, 2002). We therefore expect that employees with the fewest resources at home profit most from supervisor support.

3.0 METHODOLOGY
The study adopted descriptive survey design. The population of this study was drawn from the employees of various NGOs registered with the 4 NGO coordinating bodies.

Data was collected through questionnaires; it was prepared in readiness for analysis by editing, handling blank responses, coding, categorizing and keying into Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) computer software for analysis. SPSS was used to produce frequencies, descriptive and inferential statistics that were used to derive conclusions and generalizations regarding the population. Specifically, correlation and regression statistics were used.

4.0 RESULTS FINDINGS

4.1 Response Rate

The target sample for the study was 384 respondents from various NGOs operating within Afghanistan. Three Hundred and eight four questionnaires were circulated both through electronic means and also physical hard copies. Out of 384 self-administered questionnaires, 201 were duly completed and returned. This represents a response rate of 52%. According to Borg, Gall and Gall (2004) and Creswell (2009) a response rate of 50% is adequate for a survey study. Arising from this recommendation from renowned research scholar, it can therefore be concluded that 52% responses rate is adequate for this current study. The response rate is presented on Figure 2.
The study had one dependent variable (employee turnover) and four predictor variables. The statements were put in such a way that they measured the intention to stay. Table 1 displays results of responses regarding employee turnover. Ninety four percent of the study participants said that they did not have a strong desire to continue working at Afghanistan while 95% felt that Afghanistan was not a great place to work and have great opportunities. The respondents who amounted to 93% agreed that they were bothered when someone criticized their organizations. Ninety two percent agreed that they felt responsible when companies were successful and 84% agreed that they were happy to work with their employers. The NGOs were responsive to most employee needs as agreed by 83% of the study participants. The mean score of the responses was 2.72, which mean that there was more disagreement with the statement on the questionnaire regarding employee turnover. The responses were spread within 0.75 standard deviation. These results indicate that most of the study participants had concerns with their jobs and their employers. This is quite common in Afghanistan due to the hardships prevailing in most working environments.

The findings are consistent with those of Loquercio (2006) who asserts that a high staff turnover rate has a lot of negative consequences. Besides the costs associated with actual separation of the employee and recruiting, hiring and training of new employees other costs may not be easy to measure. The indirect cost of turnover may extends to decrease quality of aid or program, loss of trust between the beneficiaries and the agency, failure of program, loss of institutional memory and a loss of skilled personnel to competition agencies, a loss of talented future leader of organizations and may contribute to other staffs tendencies to quit.

Table 1: Staff Turnover (Retention)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have strong desire to continue working here</td>
<td>90.0%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This is a great place to work and have great opportunities</td>
<td>88.1%</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel bothered when someone criticizes this organization</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>90.5%</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel responsible when the company is successful</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>79.1%</td>
<td>13.9%</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am happy to work with my employer</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>11.9%</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>71.1%</td>
<td>13.4%</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The organization is responsive to most of my needs</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
<td>83.1%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>31.9%</td>
<td>18.9%</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>41.8%</td>
<td>6.4%</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.3 Remuneration and Turnover

The first objective of the study was to establish whether remuneration influenced employee turnover. Results on Table 2 show that 85% of the respondents felt that their salaries were not adequate and 81% felt that they reviewed salary that was not commensurate with experience and qualifications. Eighty three percent felt that they received a salary that was not comparable with other agencies, 83% disagreed that they received a risk allowance salary that was adequate and 80% disagreed that they received adequate health insurance allowance. Seventy nine percent felt that they were not receiving adequate life insurance allowance. Majority (82%) of the study participants disagreed with the statements on the questionnaire, which is supported by a mean score of 2.33 and a standard deviation of 1.01. These results indicate that the sampled employees valued remuneration as a factor for them to remain in their current jobs and therefore remuneration is a key determinant of employee turnover.

The findings concur with those of Griffeth et al (2000) who noted that pay and pay-related variables have a modest effect on turnover. Their analysis also included studies that examined the relationship between pay, a person’s performance and turnover. They concluded that when high performers are insufficiently rewarded, they leave. They cite findings from Milkovich and Newman (1999) that where collective reward programs replace individual incentives, their introduction may lead to higher turnover among high performers.

The findings are consistent with those of Martin (2003) who investigates the determinants of labor turnover using establishment-level survey data for the UK. Martin indicated that there is
an inverse relationship between relative wages and turnover (establishments with higher relative pay had lower turnover).

Table 2: Remuneration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I receive an adequate basic salary</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>82.1%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I receive a salary that is commensurate with experience and qualifications</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>79.1%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>9.5%</td>
<td>9.0%</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>1.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I receive a salary that is comparable with other agencies</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
<td>76.1%</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>9.5%</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I receive a risk allowance salary that is adequate</td>
<td>7.0%</td>
<td>76.6%</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>9.5%</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I receive an adequate health insurance allowance</td>
<td>17.4%</td>
<td>63.2%</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>10.9%</td>
<td>7.0%</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I receive an adequate life insurance allowance</td>
<td>14.9%</td>
<td>64.7%</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
<td>9.0%</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average</strong></td>
<td><strong>8.7%</strong></td>
<td><strong>73.6%</strong></td>
<td><strong>1.0%</strong></td>
<td><strong>9.5%</strong></td>
<td><strong>7.3%</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.33</strong></td>
<td><strong>1.01</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4 Pearson’s Bivariate Correlation

Bivariate correlation indicates the relationship between two variables. It ranges from 1 to -1 where 1 indicates a strong positive correlation and a -1 indicates a strong negative correlation and a zero indicates lack of relationship between the two variables. The closer the correlation tends to zero the weaker it becomes. The correlation between staff turnover and remuneration was weak and positive (0.353) and significant (0.000). This shows that a change in remuneration and staff turnover changed in the same direction though the relationship was not very strong (0.353). However the relationship is statistically significant at a p value of 0.000. The correlation between staff turnover and work environment, job specific factors and
supervision was 0.712, 0.570 and 0.471 respectively and all had statistically significant relationships.

Table 3: Pearson’s Correlation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Staff Turnover</th>
<th>Remuneration</th>
<th>Work Environment</th>
<th>Job Factors</th>
<th>Supervision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Staff Turnover</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remuneration</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>0.353</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5 Regression Analysis

The study employed multiple linear regression analysis in testing the influence of the predictor variables on the dependent variable. Table 4 shows the results for testing the robustness of the regression model. The results indicate that the regression model best fits in explain staff turnover. This is supported by a composite strong and positive correlation of 0.779 and a coefficient of determination (R Square) of 0.606. This means that the predictor variables of the study can explain at least 60.6% of the variation in staff turnover. The standard error of estimate (0.29129) is negligible which shows that the sample is close representative of the study population.

Table 4: Regression Model Fitness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>0.779</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R Square</td>
<td>0.606</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Error of the Estimate</td>
<td>0.29129</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 shows the results on analysis of variance which indicate that the combined effect of the predictor variables is significant in explaining staff turnover with an F statistic of 75.472 and a p value of 0.000
Table 5: Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>25.616</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.404</td>
<td>75.472</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>16.631</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>0.085</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>42.247</td>
<td>200</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 displays the regression output of the predictor variables. Results indicate that remuneration and work environment are statistically significant factors in influencing staff turnover while job specific factors and supervision were not. The beta coefficient indicates the direction and degree of influence of the predictor variable on the dependent variable. For example, a beta coefficient of 0.153 of remuneration means that a unit change in remuneration causes or leads to a 0.153 positive unit change in staff turnover. This could further mean that if a competing NGO increased its salaries, employees from other NGOs were likely to take a move, which translates to staff turnover.

Table 6: Regression Coefficients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>0.575</td>
<td>0.128</td>
<td>4.492</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remuneration</td>
<td>0.153</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td>5.251</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.0 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary of Findings

The objective of the study was to determine the influence of remuneration factors on staff turnover in humanitarian sector

Data analysis revealed that remuneration was important in explaining staff turnover. This is supported by a p value 0.000 which means that remuneration is a statistically significant predictor of staff turnover.

5.2 Conclusion

Based on the findings of the study, the following conclusions are arrived at. Remuneration is a key determinant of staff turnover. On average many employees become sticky to their jobs due to pay related factors and hence the reason for similar conclusion in this current study.

5.3 Recommendations of the Study

The study recommended that the management of NGOs should appreciate the importance of remuneration and work environment in retention of employees. The human resource
managers should establish competitive human resource practices that are meant to control staff turnover. For example it is recommended to the management of NGOs in Afghanistan to conduct a market survey in order to establish the optimal remuneration levels for NGO employee in order to control for the detriments that are associated with staff turnover.

5.4 Areas for Further Research

This study was not exhaustive by any means and therefore it is recommended that another study be conducted in Afghanistan and include other variables like work life balance practices on job satisfaction. For instance, it may important to investigate whether work life balance policies alleviate staff turnover.

It may also be important to compare the level of turnover across different categories of humanitarian organizations. The studies may lead to an understanding of whether different NGOs categories. The same study can be conducted in another sector to test whether the findings of this study will hold true in a different context.
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