# A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THINKING STYLES AND JOB EMBEDDEDNESS AMONG PUBLIC AND PRIVATE UNIVERSITY TEACHERS

**By**

**SHAZIA QUMMER**

**NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF MODERN LANGUAGES**
**ISLAMABAD**

**April, 2022**

# A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THINKING STYLES AND JOB EMBEDDEDNESS AMONG PUBLIC AND PRIVATE UNIVERSITY TEACHERS

By

**Shazia Qummer**

M.Phil. Education, National University of Modern Languages, 2015

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF
THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

**In Education**

To

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES


NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF MODERN LANGUAGES, ISLAMABAD

NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF MODERN LANGUAGES FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

# THESIS AND DEFENCE APPROVAL FORM

**The undersigned certify that they have read the following thesis, examined the defense, are satisfied with the overall exam performance, and recommend the thesis to the Faculty of Social Sciences for acceptance.**

**Thesis Title:** A Comparative Study of Thinking Styles and Job Embeddedness among Public and Private University Teachers

**Submitted By: Shazia Qummer** **Registration #: 587-PhD/Edu /S-16**

Doctor of Philosophy
Degree name in full

Education
Name of Discipline

Dr. Shazia Zamir
Name of Research Supervisor _____
Signature of Research Supervisor

Prof. Dr. Mustafeez Ahmad Alvi
Name of Dean (FSS) _____
Signature of Dean (FSS)

Prof. Dr Muhammad Safeer Awan
Name of Pro-Rector Academics _____
Signature of Pro-Rector Academics

Maj Gen Muhammad Jaffar HI (M) (Retd)
Name of The Rector _____
Signature of the Rector

_____
Date

# AUTHOR'S DECLARATION FORM

I, Shazia Qummer

Daughter of Muhammad Yousaf

Registration # 587-PhD/Edu /S-16

Discipline Education

Candidate of **Doctor of Philosophy** at the National University of Modern Languages do hereby declare that the thesis (Title) "A Comparative Study of Thinking Styles and Job Embeddedness among Public and Private University Teachers" submitted by me in partial fulfillment of PhD degree, is my original work, and has not been submitted or published earlier. I also solemnly declare that it shall not, in future, be submitted by me for obtaining any other degree from this or any other university or institution.

I also understand that if evidence of plagiarism is found in my thesis/dissertation at any stage, even after the award of a degree, the work may be cancelled and the degree revoked.

_____

Signature of Candidate

Shazia Qummer

Name of Candidate

_____

Date:

# PLAGIARISM UNDERTAKING

I solemnly declare that research work presented in the thesis titled " **A Comparative Study of Thinking Styles and Job Embeddedness among Public and Private University Teachers**" is solely my research work with no significant contribution from any other person. Small contribution/help wherever taken has been duly acknowledged and that complete thesis has been written by me.

I understand the zero-tolerance policy of the HEC and university

NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF MODERN LANGUAGES

towards plagiarism. Therefore, I as an Author of the above titled thesis declare that no portion of my thesis has been plagiarized and any material used as reference is properly referred/cited.

I undertake that if I am found guilty of any formal plagiarism in the above titled thesis even after award of PhD degree, the University reserves the rights to withdraw/revoke my PhD degree and that HEC and the University has the right to publish my name on the HEC/University Website on which names of students are placed who submitted plagiarized thesis.

Student / Author Signature: _____

Name: Shazia Qummer

# ABSTRACT

**Thesis Title: A Comparative Study of Thinking Styles and Job Embeddedness among Public and Private University Teachers**

Thinking styles play significant roles in job embeddedness. Eight objectives were designed for this study. The current study aimed to make a demographic comparison of gender, sector, departments, qualification, and teaching experience with reference to thinking styles and job embeddedness of university teachers. The theoretical framework of this study was based on two theories, Mental self-development theory by Robert Sternberg (2007) and theory of job embeddedness by Mitchell et al. (2001). The study population consisted of 1369 faculty members teaching in selected departments of five public and four private universities of Islamabad. A proportionate stratified random sampling technique was used. A total of four hundred and eighty (480) university teachers were selected from the population. Two standardized questionnaires, were used for data collection. The reliability of the thinking style scale was .945, and the reliability of the job embeddedness scale was .900. t-test statistics revealed no significant differences in thinking styles among male and female university teachers except local thinking styles. The results related to job embeddedness also illustrated no significant differences related to subscales of job embeddedness among male and female university teachers except organizational links. Significant differences were found related to these (legislative, executive, judicial, hierarchical, oligarchic, anarchic, local, and external) subscales of thinking styles among university teachers in public and private sector except monarchic, global, internal, liberal, and conservative thinking style. Analysis of variance also explored the significant difference in opinion of teachers based on qualification about functions, forms, and learnings of thinking styles. In contrast, no difference was found in levels and scope of thinking styles. Based on findings, it was recommended that the management of the private sector universities may provide proper training about different thinking styles through collaboration with public sector universities so that they can understand the thinking styles of their employees. This knowledge will help them select the right person for the right job.

*Keywords*: Thinking style, legislative, executive, hierarchical, job embeddedness, fit, links, sacrifice

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

# LIST OF APPENDICES

# LIST OF TABLES

# LIST OF FIGURES

# LIST OF ABBVRIATIONS

| | |
|---|---|
| TMSG | Theory Of Mental Self Government |
| TSI | Thinking Styles Inventory |
| JE | Job Embeddedness |
| LGTS | Legislative Thinking Style |
| EXTS | Executive thinking style |
| JUTS | judicial thinking style |
| MNTS | Monarchic thinking style |
| HRTS | Hierarchic thinking style |
| OLTS | Oligarchic thinking style |
| ANTS | Anarchic thinking style |
| GLBTS | Global thinking style |
| LCLTS | Local thinking style |
| EXTS | External thinking style |
| INTTS | Internal thinking style |
| LIBTS | Liberal thinking style |
| CNSTS | Conservative thinking style |
| Org | Organizational |
| Comity | Community |
| Ft | Fit |
| Lnks | Links |
| Sarfc | Sacrifice |
| OL | Organizational links |
| CL | Community links |
| OF | Organizational fit |
| CF | Community fit |
| OS | Organizational Sacrifice |

| | |
|---|---|
| CS | Community Sacrifice |
| Socl sci | Social sciences |
| Mang sci | Management sciences |
| Comp sci | Computer science |
| Engnrg | Engineering |
| NT | Never true |
| OT | Occasionally true |
| OFT | Often true |
| UT | Usually true |
| MT | Mostly true |
| Embed | Embeddedness |
| Govt | Government |
| Non-govt | None govt (private) |
| Dept | Department |
| t- v | t- value |
| MS | Mean score |
| Indep smpl | Independent sample |
| p-correlation | Pearson correlation |
| Tech | Technology |
| LS | Learning style |
| CT | Critical thinking |
| AP | Academic performance |
| S | Section |
| NUST | National University Science & Technology |
| NUML | National University of Modern Languages |
| CUST | National university of science and technology |

# ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Allah Almighty is the only one who is most gracious and compassionate and admirable of all the admirations and praises. I am greatly obliged to my Almighty Allah for His continuous direction, provision, assistance, and love in every aspect of life. It is merely the consecration of the All-knowing being to give His Holy Prophet (S.A.W) the last human appearance of his complete information, who has deposited all ground of knowledge and will continue the source of all intelligence that is to transpire in the forthcoming.

Here, I would like to acknowledge the professional judgment of Dr. Wajeeha Shahid, Head Department of Education, who gave me a thought provoking chance to conduct this research study. I would also like to oblige my sincere gratitude to my supervisor, **Dr. Shazia Zamir's** excellent supervision merged with her affection, obligation, and sweet beam; without her, I would not have been capable of undertaking this research study. I am thankful to all those who participated in any context or any capacity in this study, especially all respondent teachers. I would like to thank the library staff of the national university of modern languages, Allama Iqbal Open University, and Islamic international university

This acknowledgment would be incomplete without mentioning the love, patience, and supportive role of my children that they have played in my life. They suffered a lot due to my busy routines, but they proved to be a source of motivation for me. I would be thankful to them for giving me their most precious time for my thesis. I would like to thank my loving, caring, and resourceful husband, Ahmed Nawaz, for his never-ending support, encouragement, and practical help during this research work. He was always there to help me out in difficulties and hardships, especially in data collection and at every step of this thesis. He had managed hundreds of things without me and for me and gave me space to do justice to my work. This thesis would not have been possible without the prayers and support of my family and my dearest parents. I thank ALLAH, who blessed me with a loving, caring, and supportive family. May they live long (Ameen).

**Shazia Qummer**

# DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this thesis to my loving husband, Ahmed Nawaz, whose love, encouragement and prayers motivated me to go ahead for higher study, and my dearest children, Asad Nawaz, Rabia Kanwal, and Aaqib Nawaz, whose affection, love, and encouragement made me able to get success.

# CHAPTER 1

# INTRODUCTION

## 1.1 Background of the Study

Education provides the basis for socio-economic development for any country. The importance of education is realized everywhere. In the development of society, higher education plays a vital role. Education is a powerful tool to transform society. Higher education broadens the vision and explores the doors of awareness. Universities are where one acquires intellectual, social, and economic benefits in life (Nasir, 2019). Teachers are the essential components of the higher education system. Teachers' academic development is crucial and necessary for the higher education system's success because teachers are the prime movers and catalysts for students' overall development. Teachers play a significant role in improving the quality of higher education and maintaining it; teachers' professional competency has to be of such a high level to impart quality knowledge to the students (Nagoba & Mantri, 2015). In universities, teachers are facing a higher stress level than nonacademic staff. Insufficient resources, poor management practices, work overload, insufficient recognition, and job insecurity are causing stress among university teachers. Stress in university teachers harms their behavior, ways of thinking, and professional work (Greenberg et al., 2016). Thinking is the fundamental characteristic of individuals

separating them from other beings, and it is a process aiming at individuals to reach the most accurate result. Thinking is the way to discipline analysis and evaluate the information obtained from observation, experience, and reasoning (Cardoza, 2018). People use different thinking styles in their professional and personal lives. Experiences they have learned through formal and informal ways have significantly shaped how they think. This study is comparative. Thinking is defined as the procedure for exercising conception and power of judgment. An individual thinking style can be defined as how he gathers and processes information and uses that information to make a decision. These styles reflected the ways of processing information (Smith & Armstrong, 2004). The ways of thinking are good conduct. Individuals use these behaviors to accomplish their daily activities. Thinking styles talk about the specific approach of the individual in evaluating and processing information, making a decision, and solving problems (Armstrong& cools, 2012). In dealing with our everyday activities, we pick out styles with which we feel comfortable Aljojo. N (2017) conducted a gender-based study and discovered three local, external, and hierarchical thinking styles.

Sofo describes Styles of thinking as a person's comfortable way of reacting to a situation that influences people’s emotions and cognition, indicating specific habitual styles that control and guide individuals' daily activities (Sofo, 2011). Writers used these styles, for example, cognitive style, learning style, and thinking style, to illustrate habitual strategies, constant attitudes, and preferences that determine how people solve their problems, remember information, observe, and think. Thinking styles develop through interaction with society and often work unconsciously. These thinking styles lead an individual to understand the environment and perceive the situation differently

(Budijanto, 2013)). Mental well-being, intellectual, physical, emotional, and environmental factors also strongly influence the thinking styles of individuals (Sofo, 2008, L.Zhang &Sternberg, 2006). Every individual behaves and thinks in their preferred ways that vary from person to person. Styles of thinking are significant. Every individual approach to creativity, problem-solving, decision-making, and communication are characterized by their thinking preferences (Hughes, 2000). Social, cultural, interpersonal, and emotional thinking styles play a significant role in all human activities. These thinking styles help a person understand the situation and use their ability according to the need of the problem. People may act differently in different situations to the requirement of the tasks (Zhang & Chen, 2018). Thinking styles develop through interaction with society and, most of the time, work unconsciously (Blahnik & Lucas, 2007). Environment plays a significant role because people accommodate their ways of thinking through interaction with their surroundings. The atmosphere sometimes influences preferences of style. Such as, a person may use a very detailed and step-by-step procedure in one situation, and in any other case, he may critically analyze the situation before making rational and logical decisions based on available information. Individuals might accommodate their ways of thinking through interaction with the environment (Zhang & Sternberg, 2005). Individuals working in a favorable environment are more productive and satisfied. They are happy workers and more willing to sacrifice for their organization. They are innovative in trying different methods to solve an organization's internal and external problems. They use an extensive range of thinking styles and tend to think more creatively workplace or organizational environment-can-influence employees' decision-making power and thinking styles (Zhu & Zhang, 2011). We cannot group thinking styles as fortunate or unfortunate; it may be said that some thinking styles can be more potent than others.

In the teaching and learning process, thinking plays an important role. People also used their abilities in different ways in changed situations. One individual may think in more than one way. He may use other thinking methods in different positions according to the demand of the tasks and projects. These various techniques individuals use to manage their tasks and activities are considered thinking styles. Sternberg introduced a theory in the year 1988. That theory was based on thinking styles. According to him thinking styles work like government work in society. The name of his approach was mental self-government. When he used the word government metaphorically, he illustrated that government plays many roles. There are many governing methods, e.g., legislative, executive, judicial, internal, or foreign affairs. It is a very significant feature of this theory. For example, an individual proficient in judicial thinking style may be externally competent in executive or legislative (Sternberg & Grigorenko, 1997).

The thinking process is always considered a highly complex process. This process has been studied since ancient times. Thinking is when individuals are in an active, goal-oriented, organized mental process (Chelst & Canbolat, 2011). Several theories and models have been proposed about how people think differently in different situations and how the human brain works. These theories and models are considered traditional and are limited to one-dimensional styles, for instance, reflective versus impulsive styles. Many thinking styles theories have explored individual thinking styles and intellectual functioning (Kolb, 1999; Entwistle, 1986; Biggs, 1987; Sternberg, 1988; Riding, 1991). Sternberg's thinking style theory is different from others. His theory of mental government explained thirteen different thinking styles. He provides thinking styles for each person instead of some specific individuals (Zhang, 2010).

After reviewing some alternative theories of style, Sternberg presented his view. In his theory, he used the word government as a metaphor to reflect the human mind system. We can govern society and deal with our daily activities in many ways. Sternberg (1988, 1997) used word thinking styles to explain these phenomena. Thinking style theory is based on five dimensions: functions, forms, levels, scope, and learnings. Under these five dimensions, he had adjusted thirteen different ways of thinking. These thirteen ways of thinking styles fall along with five dimensions. Thinking styles can be measured as functions, forms, levels, scope, and learnings.

The author had adjusted these ways of thinking under these measurements. First of all, he explained the functions thinking styles. There are three functions of thinking style. The first function is legislative, the same as the government's legislative branch. The main tasks of this branch are to decide what is better for the organization and decide the right time for that action. These people also like the lessons and situations that require planning strategies and procedures. They also want to determine what to do and when to perform any action. Individuals have executive thinking styles like projects and situations where rules are already decided. They follow those procedures. The third function of thinking was judicial. They like situations and tasks that require evaluation. They like to pass their judgment against the existing strategies and ideas. Four different forms of thinking styles were also essential. The first form was a monarchic, single-minded person. The second form of thinking was hierarchic; these individuals like to handle many tasks in a specified framework.

The third form is oligarchic; these individuals also like numerous things in a specific time frame but cannot set priorities. Forth form is anarchic, and these individuals tend to be motivated toward flexible tasks and situations to solve any

problem. There are two basic levels (local and global) of thinking styles. These levels suggest that individuals vary in their degree of concern. Scopes of mental self-government can be either internal or external. Sternberg thinking style theory is very famous in various countries worldwide. This theory contains the most features of thinking styles and structures that resemble Eastern and Western perspectives (Stephen, 2008; Zhang, 2006). Learnings of this theory are based on conservative and liberal ways of thinking.

Job retention and commitment to the organization are essential for all academic institutions. Moreover, the faculty members' job embeddedness results in a healthy and favorable university climate. Positive climate such as healthy working conditions, relationships with colleagues, support of research and teaching, promotion opportunities of the university, teachers boost the staff's job embeddedness, and the educational institute's overall productivity fosters. Many essential concepts in the work environment help the workers to do their work efficiently and effectively. Many types of research have been done on this topic because any organization's productivity depends on its employees' job embeddedness (Saba &Zafar, 2013).

Occupational embeddedness is very significant for the progress of any organization. Michell et al. (2001) introduced a theory of occupation embeddedness. This theory was designed to explain why personnel remains in their organization? There are three main components in the theory of job embeddedness. These components are equally important in the workplace and the living place. The author of this theory used two terms; on and off the job. On the job for institute or workplace and off the job means in the community. An employee may have three types of connections in organizations and the community. These attachments are links, fit and sacrifice. So with

two components and three connections, the job embeddedness model has six measurements. These dimensions are associated with community and organization. Links with organization mean formal association with workplace links with community or informal links, fit or feel comfortable in the organization, fit in or the place where a person is living. Sacrifice for organization, and sacrifice for the community. These sacrifices are related to the personnel's commitments to the workplace and where he is living. This dimension indicates how much a person can sacrifice if he changes his present job (Holton et al., 2004). Links with an organization means financial, psychological, and social connections between his or her work organization.

Family and friends have a significant place in a person's life. Links with family also make a person embedded with the job. Community links mean links with friends living in the same local community. Links with family members and relatives are also discussed under community links (Holtem & Mitchell, 2001). Organizational fit means a person feels comfortable in the workplace. He has good relationships with other people in the organization. Community fit defines the person's comfort zone in the society where he is living. The third element of job embeddedness is sacrifice. It is the apparent costs of departure of an organization, job, or community. Community sacrifice includes financial losses, such as losses on the sale of the house and giving up all facilities and memberships (Mitchell & Lee, 2001).

Numerous studies were directed toward the ways of thinking. The focus of those studies was on the ways of thinking of administrators, educators, and learners (Grigorenko & Sternberg, 1993). For the advancement of society, education plays a very significant role. Advanced education assumes an indispensable job in the improvement of society. Education is necessary for the personality grooming of the

individual. We can analyze the situation by comparing the behaviors of an educated person with an uneducated. Higher education plays a significant role, and it widens the vision and opens new opportunities for the young generation. Higher education institutions are where one acquires social, intellectual, and economic benefits in life. Talent acknowledgment largely depends on idealized and entrenched-perception of academic achievement and job performance. In Pakistan, universities are classified as public and private sectors. The nature of administration is different in both types of universities. The same is true with employees' attitudes towards their jobs also differ in both sectors. Employees' attitude is based on their thinking styles. As we know, every individual is unique (Zhang, 2010). The current research study depends on the investigation of the thinking styles of university instructors with connection to job embeddedness.

The current study is designed to make a demographic comparison of gender sector qualification experience concerning university teachers' thinking styles and job embeddedness. Compare means to find the similarities or differences in variables. Current research compare teachers' point of view on different demographic variables such as university location (public and private), gender, departments, qualification, and teaching experience of faculty members regarding their thinking styles and job embeddedness

## 1.2 The Rationale of the Study

Higher education is a significant national investment in social and economic progress. Universities' primary function is to preserve, enhance, criticize-and diffuse knowledge and foster creative abilities. Retaining talented employees at the university level is becoming more challenging than ever. An environment suitable for career

development pushes organizations to evaluate their worker-keeping strategies. The challenge of holding personnel for a long time needs organizations to create an environment where employees are engaged and have a sense of job satisfaction and career security. The rationale behind this study was to make the demographic comparison of gender, sector, experience, qualification, and departments regarding thinking styles and job embeddedness of university teachers. Every individual used their preferred ways to approach the tasks, solve problems, and organize their daily activities. The main idea behind this research was that thinking styles helped individuals understand themselves. The awareness of their thinking styles allows them to adjust to the working environment. Numerous research studies were conducted on thinking styles and job embeddedness separately. The literature review revealed that several types of research were conducted internationally, but no demographic-based study was conducted in Pakistan using these two constructs together at the university level. To fill this gap in the literature, the current study was initiated to make a demographic comparison regarding university teachers' thinking styles and job embeddedness. Teachers' commitment to work organizations is the manifestation of their job satisfaction. This satisfaction may enhance their level of job embeddedness. Job embeddedness improves and enhances the organization's productivity, and thinking styles help people adjust to their work environment. Therefore, it is thought that this work will be a precursor to subsequent studies.

## 1.3 The Statement of the Problem

Every individual has his/her preferred way of grasping and processing information according to his/her method. For decades, researchers have investigated the roles of styles in human performance. Retaining talented employees in the organization is becoming more challenging than ever. The ease of access to jobs with higher rewards and an environment suitable for career development pushes organizations to review their employees' retention strategies. Various theories and models of styles have been proposed. Many of the existing studies are limited to investigating the thinking styles of students and teachers. The thinking styles of university teachers and administrators are likewise vibrant if one desires to understand its underlying culture. All professional fields are inclusive and interrelated in the 21$^{st}$ century, including teaching. Many studies were conducted on thinking styles and job embeddedness separately from other variables. These two constructs were not analyzed together in connection with demographic variables at the university level in Pakistan. Keeping in view the importance of the thinking styles and job embeddedness, the researcher selected this area. The current study was initiated to make the demographic comparison of gender, sector (government, private), qualification, experience, and departments concerning thinking styles and job embeddedness of university teachers.

## 1.4 Objectives of the Study

1. To assess teachers' thinking styles at the university level.
2. To assess the teachers' level of job embeddedness at the university level.
3. To find the gender-based differences in teachers' thinking styles at the university level.
4. To explore gender-based differences regarding job embeddedness of teachers at the university level.
5. To compare teachers thinking styles at the university level in the public and private sectors.
6. To compare differences in job embeddedness of teachers in the public and private sectors.
7. To identify the differences among teachers' thinking styles with demographic variables (university departments, faculty members' qualifications, and experience) at the university level.
8. To identify the differences between the teachers' level of job embeddedness with demographic variables (university departments, faculty members' qualifications, and experience) at the university level.

## 1.5 Hypotheses of the Study

*Description of Hypotheses and Statistical Analysis*

| S. No. | Hypotheses | Statistical tests used |
|---|---|---|
| $H_O$1 | There is no gender-based significant difference in teachers' thinking styles at the university level. | (independent sample t-test) |
| $H_O$ 1.1 | There is no gender-based significant difference in teachers regarding functions (including the legislative, executive, and judicial) thinking styles at the university level. | t-test |
| $H_O$ 1.2 | There is no gender-based significant difference in teachers regarding forms (hierarchical, monarchic, oligarchic, and anarchic) thinking styles at the university level. | t-test |
| $H_O$ 1.3 | There is no gender-based significant difference in university teachers regarding levels (global and local) thinking styles. | t-test |
| $H_O$ 1.4 | There is no gender-based significant difference in teachers about scope (internal and external) thinking styles at the university level. | t-test |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | $H_O$ 1.5 | There is no gender-based significant difference in teachers' learning (liberal and conservative) thinking styles at the university level. | t-test |
| $H_O$2 | | There is no gender-based significant difference in job embeddedness of teachers at the university level. | t-test |
| | $H_O$ 2.1 | There is no gender-based significant difference in teachers' fit (comfort) with organization and community at the university level. | t-test |
| | $H_O$ 2.2 | There is no gender-based significant difference in teachers' links (connections) with organizations and community at the university level. | t-test |
| | $H_O$ 2.3 | There is no gender-based significant difference in teachers' sacrifice for organization and community at the university level. | t-test |
| $H_O$3 | | There is no significant difference between public and private university teachers regarding thinking style. | t-test |
| | $H_O$ 3.1 | There is no significant difference between public and private university teachers regarding functions of thinking styles. | t-test |
| | $H_O$ 3.2 | There is no significant difference among government and private university teachers regarding forms of thinking style. | t-test |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | $H_O$ 3.3 | There is no significant difference among government and private university teachers about levels of thinking styles. | t-test |
| | $H_O$ 3.4 | There is no significant difference among government and private university teachers regarding the scope of thinking style. | t-test |
| | $H_O$ 3.5 | There is no significant difference among government and private university teachers regarding the learning of thinking styles. | t-test |
| $H_O$4 | | There is no significant difference between public and private university teachers regarding their job embeddedness. | t-test |
| | $H_O$ 4.1 | There is no significant difference between government and private university teachers related to fit (comfort) with organization and community. | t-test |
| | $H_O$ 4.2 | There is no significant difference between Govt and private university teachers related to links (connections) with organization and community. | t-test |
| | $H_O$ 4.3 | There is no significant difference between public and private university teachers regarding sacrifice for organization and community. | t-test |
| $H_O$ 5 | | There is no significant difference in teachers of different departments regarding the functions of thinking styles at the university level. | ANOVA |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| $H_O$ 6 | There is no difference in teachers of different departments about forms of thinking styles at the university level. | ANOVA |
| $H_O$ 7 | There is no significant difference in teachers of different departments regarding levels of thinking styles at the university level. | ANOVA |
| $H_O$ 8 | There is no difference in teachers of different departments regarding scope thinking styles at the university level. | ANOVA |
| $H_O$ 9 | There is no difference in teachers of different departments regarding learning thinking styles at the university level. | ANOVA |
| $H_O$ 10 | There is no noteworthy difference in teachers of different departments related to fit (comfort) in the organization and community at the university level. | ANOVA |
| $H_O$ 11 | There is no crucial difference in teachers of different departments related to links with organization and community at the university level. | ANOVA |
| $H_O$ 12 | There is no significant difference in teachers of different departments related to sacrifice for organization and community at the university level. | ANOVA |
| $H_O$ 13 | There is no significant difference in teachers regarding functions of thinking styles based on qualification at the university level. | ANOVA |
| $H_O$ 14 | There is no significant difference in teachers' forms of thinking styles based on qualifications at the university level. | ANOVA |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| $H_O$ 15 | There is no significant difference in teachers regarding levels of thinking styles based on qualifications at the university level. | ANOVA |
| $H_O$ 16 | There is no significant difference in teachers regarding scopes of thinking styles based on qualifications at the university level. | ANOVA |
| $H_O$ 17 | There is no significant difference in teachers' learning of thinking styles based on qualifications at the university level. | ANOVA |
| $H_O$ 18 | There is no significant difference in teachers related to fit (comfort) in organization and community based on qualification at the university level. | ANOVA |
| $H_O$ *19* | There is no significant difference in teachers related to links (connections) with organization and community based on qualification at the university level. | ANOVA |
| $H_O$ 20 | There is no significant difference in teachers related to sacrifice for organization and community based on qualification at the university level. | ANOVA |
| $H_O$ 21 | There is no noteworthy difference in teachers regarding functions of thinking styles based on experience at the university level. | ANOVA |
| $H_O$ 22 | There is no noteworthy difference in teachers regarding forms of thinking styles based on experience at the university level. | ANOVA |

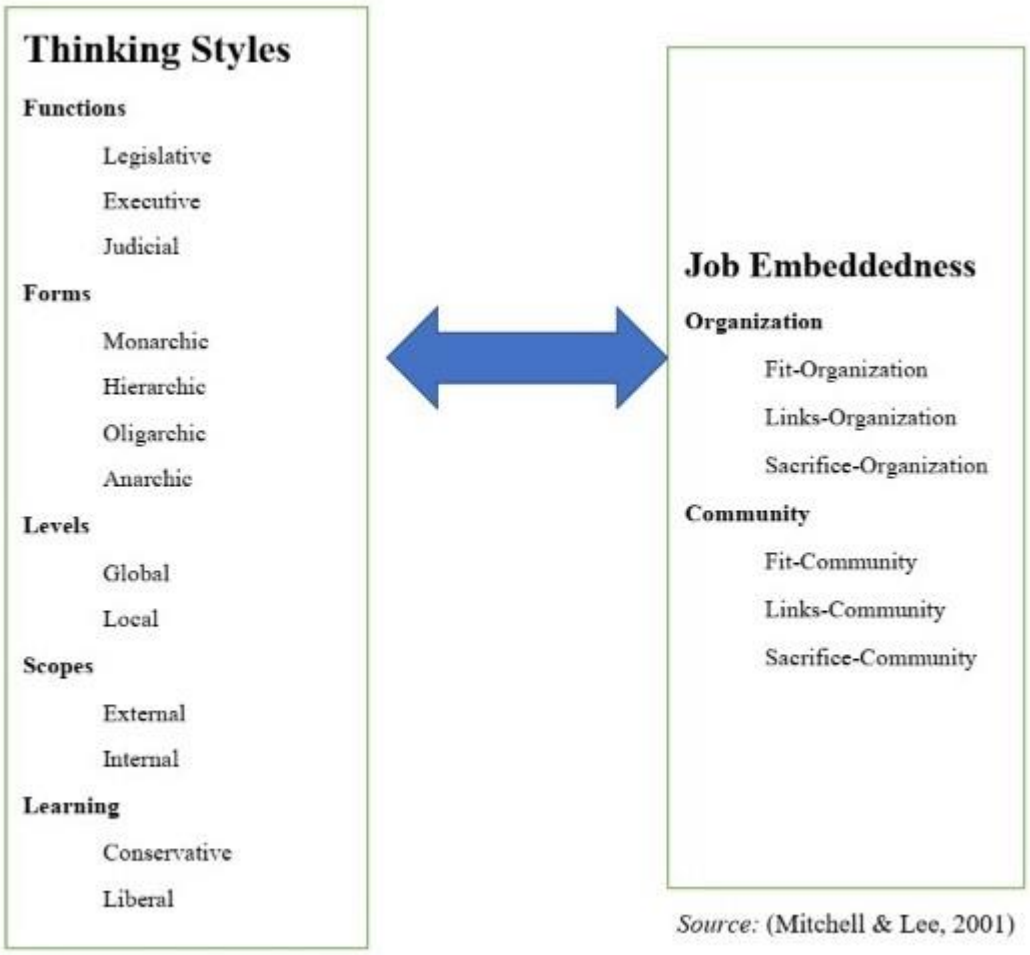
| | | |
|---|---|---|
| $H_O$ 23 | There is no difference in teachers regarding levels of thinking styles based on experience at the university level. | ANOVA |
| $H_O$ 24 | There is no difference in teachers regarding scopes of thinking styles based on experience at the university level. | ANOVA |
| $H_O$ 25 | There is no significant difference in teachers' opinions about learnings of thinking styles based on experience at the university level. | ANOVA |
| $H_O$ 26 | There is no significant difference in teachers related to fit (comfort) in organization and community based on experience at the university level. | ANOVA |
| $H_O$ 27 | There is no significant difference in teachers related to links (connections) with organization and community based on experience at the university level. | ANOVA |
| $H_O$ 28 | There is no significant difference in teachers related to sacrifice for organization and community based on experience at the university level. | ANOVA |

## 1.6 Conceptual Framework of the Study

The conceptual framework of the current research was based on two theories mental self-government (Sternberg, R.J., Wagner,-R.K., & Zhang,-L.F., 2007) and job embeddedness (Michell et al., 2001). Mental self-government theory gives a profile of human thinking styles. Sternberg clarified that styles are variables across situations and tasks. For instance, people may use an internal thinking style for a particular undertaking or circumstance and an external style for another task and situation (Fer, 2005; Sternberg, 2009). The word government was used as a metaphor in this theory. He suggested that there are many methods for administering a general public; the human mind works similarly. There are various techniques for managing our daily activities and solving problems. Sternberg (1997) called them thinking styles. Mental self-government theory defines five measurements. Sternberg elucidated thirteen-thinking styles with particular reference to these five aspects of government. Sternberg had discussed thirteen thinking styles under these five dimensions. The first measurement is functions. Executive, Legislative, and judicial is the function of government. These are three primary elements of thinking styles. Hierarchic, monarchic, anarchic, and oligarchic are four forms of thinking styles. Local and global thinking styles are discussed under the levels. External and inner ways of thinking are considered as scopes of this theory. The last construct is learnings. There are two learnings, liberal and conservative.

Learning deals with a person's inclination toward advancement and prerequisites for existing measures (Bulus, 2005; Zhang & Sternberg, 2001). Mitchell and Lee (2001) created the theory of job embeddedness. This theory clarified why people remain in their organization. They asserted that their construct address three

situational measurements. These estimations are further arranged into sub-measurements dependent on whether the impact occurs at the workplace (formal setting) in an organization and (informal setting) in community links is the first situational dimension in this theory. Links are formal relations among individuals, organizations, and communities (Zhang & Feng, 2010). Links refer to how employees have connections to other personnel in the organization. Fit is the second measurement. Fit with an organization assesses self-perception of congruence with the job organization and community (Gelfand & Ramesh, 2010). The third factor is sacrifice, and it refers to what individuals would sacrifice if they left or changed the workplace and community, primarily when they have to move physically to various urban communities or homes. Sacrifice is also described as the perceived cost, which can be mental, material, or social (Griffeth, 2012).




*Source: Source:* (Sternberg, 2007; Mitchell, 2001)

***Figure 1.1 Framework of the study***

## 1.7 Significance of the Study

Thinking is the fundamental characteristic of individuals that separates them from other beings. It is the way to discipline, analyze and evaluate the information obtained through observations, reasoning, and experience. Job retention and commitment to the organization are essential for all academic institutions. The present study is very significant from various points of view. This study is significant because of its insights and contribution for the university administrators to better understand the

teachers' thinking styles and analyze which style of thinking motivates them in their job. Furthermore, this study develops an understanding of different thinking styles and occupational embeddedness of educators serving in Government and private sector universities in Pakistan. The current study may be beneficial for the teachers' at the university level because the thinking styles of the educators directly affect the workplace. They might get some benefits from this study. Teachers working in government and private universities will get information about their thinking styles. This data will help them to design teaching strategies accordingly. The general population who are successful in their field are more embedded with their job. So the awareness of these thinking styles will be very significant for them. Thinking styles handle the essential job in the basic leadership process too. Knowledge and awareness of thinking; styles, and their connection with occupation embeddedness may assist heads with becoming increasingly versatile and adaptable in understanding their-employees. Knowledge of thinking style is essential to avoid clashes at the workplace, strengthen group cohesiveness and attain organizational effectiveness. The outcome of this research may be used to recruit the right man for the right job and promote individuals whose competencies match the organizational requirements. The results of this study will also be significant for appraisal and assessment procedures of employees' selection, training, and personnel development.

## 1.8 Methodology

This research is descriptive and comparative. A quantitative method was used in this study. According to Yin (2013), this method is suitable for studies where data were collected through questionnaires. The quantitative method was considered more suitable for large-scale studies. The faculty members teaching in the selected

departments of Islamabad's public and private sector universities were the population of the current research problem. The target population comprised all one thousand three hundred sixty-nine faculty members. Faculty members in Govt and private sector universities were not in equal number. The proportionate stratified random sampling technique was used to keep the balance between the samples. A total of four hundred and eighty (480) university teachers were selected from the target population, including two hundred and six (206) male and two hundred and seventy-four female teachers. Among them, three hundred and eleven teachers were from govt sector, and (169) educators were from non-govt sector universities. The sample size was 480 university teachers. These teachers were carefully chosen from the selected departments. Five Govt and four private sector universities were selected from both sectors. Selected universities have common departments of computer science. Management science. Social science and engineering. Data were collected by using questionnaires. Two separate questionnaires were used, the thinking styles inventory (Sternberg, Wagner, & Zhang, L.F., 2007) and the job embeddedness questionnaire (Mitchell et al., 2001). The questionnaires were pilot tested before administration to the final sample. For an expert opinion, questionnaires were given to five subject specialists. A copy of the experts' list and authenticity letter was attached in appendix C.

## 1.9 Delimitations of the Study

- The study was delimited to the teachers of Islamabad's government and private sector universities.
- It was impossible to collect the data from all universities situated in the capital tertiary.

- Only those universities were selected which had these four departments, social sciences, management sciences, engineering, and social sciences.
- Further, it was delimited that only male and female teaching faculty serving in selected government and private universities were targeted.

## 1.10 Operational Definitions of the Study

**Thinking, Styles**

Thinking styles refer to how people think, solve their problems, and process information. It involves acquiring knowledge, forming values and opinions, organizing thoughts, making decisions, applying personal values, expressing oneself to others, and solving problems.

### 1.10.1 Legislative Thinking Style

The legislative function involves the creation, formulation, and planning of ideas. These individuals are creative, innovative, and good at planning. They like problems where they can use their way of solving problems. They prefer to start their problem with their ideas. They supported the issues which anticipate designing new strategies and making new plans. They follow their own rules.

### 1.10.2 Judicial Thinking Style

The judicial thinking style involves activities of judging. It involves observing and evaluating internal and external feedback in problem-solving. Judicially oriented individuals like to judge both structure and content. They like projects where they study

different views and ideas. They also like tasks and situations which require analysis, evaluation, and judgment of existing strategies, ideas, and projects.

### 1.10.3 Executive Thinking Style

Personnel having executive thinking styles generally follow specified guiding principles. These individuals are very selective and careful to use the proper method to solve any problem. They prefer to follow instructions. They follow the rules or clear directions. They want to utilize the manners or methods that were previously used to solve issues and implement laws.

### 1.10.4 Hierarchic Thinking Styles

Individuals having hierarchic thinking styles are very organized. They tend to focus on the hierarchy of the task. In general, they do numerous tasks at one time. They arrange their objectives in a specific order, dependent upon their significance and need. They are practical, logical, and organized in leadership and problem-solving skills.

### 1.10.5 Monarchic Thinking Styles

Individuals have a monarchic thinking style, described as concentrating on one assignment or task at any given moment. They give full attention to one thing at a time. If they have several important tasks to do, they focus on one most important. They prefer work that highlights their individuality. They are single-minded and want to complete one task before proceeding to the next.

### 1.10.6 Oligarchic Thinking Style

Individuals with oligarchic thinking styles prefer to work in a group. Their colleagues' opinion is more important to them. They, in general, be propelled by numerous objectives. They tend to focus on the most relevant task to their colleagues.

### 1.10.7 Anarchic Thinking Style

Individuals with an anarchic thinking style tend to focus on many problems simultaneously because they are equally urgent for them. They tend to give equal attention to all of the involved tasks. They perceive it by wanting to focus on responsibilities with no precise methodology. They gave a good performance in disorganized tasks and situations. They do not have a firm arrangement of rules for setting priorities.

### 1.10.8 Global Thinking Style

Individuals with a global thinking style tend to emphasize the general aspect of issues or the project's overall effect. They always like those projects which deal with general issues. They sometimes overlook the detail of any given task. They want to manage broad, unique, and generally large and high levels of concepts.

### 1.10.9 Local Thinking Style

Individuals with a local thinking style concentrate on detail, keeping away from the theoretical investigation. They pay more attention to concreate details of the given tasks. Details and facts are essential for them to compare to the overall picture. They are good at record keeping.

### 1.10.10 Internal Thinking Style

People with an internal thinking style lean toward working independently. They are self-observer or introverts. They prefer to work alone on a project and like situations where they can carry out their ideas without relying on others. They deal with the situation that allows them to work in isolation.

### 1.10.11 External Thinking Style

These individuals are socially more sensitive. They have a predilection for situations, tasks, and projects that allow them to work with others in a group. When they work on a project, they like to share ideas and get input from other people. They have a feeling of social contact with others contentedly and effectively. They feel comfortable in a gathering setting.

### 1.10.12 Liberal Thinking Style

Liberal style is recognized by acknowledging novelty and following new options. They prefer to try innovative strategies to solve any problem. They favor change, even when it is not perfect. They tend to focus on new projects and find new methods to complete those tasks; people with liberal thinking styles like new challenges.

### 1.10.13 Conservative Thinking Style

These individuals tend to follow the methods and ideas used in the past. They like situations where they can follow a set routine. They are a follower of traditional rules. They incline towards circumstances that are familiar throughout everyday life. They do not like frequent change.

### 1.10.14 Job Embeddedness

Occupational embeddedness is the collection of forces that influence employees' retention in the organization. Its emphasis is on all factors that keep an employee on the job. Mitchell (2001) described the concept as consisting of three key components. These components are equally essential both on and off the job. Therefore job embeddedness is conceptualized as six dimensions, fit, links, and sacrifice between the individuals and organization and between the personnel and the community.

**Fit**

Fit is defined as an individual's apparent compatibility with his/her organization and community. They consider themselves a good match for their organization and the community. They tend to live in that community because it provides their leisure activities, like sports and outdoor games.

**Links**

Links are formal and casual affiliations between workers, organizations, or other individuals. These individuals have strong social ties with those in the same geographical region. Family relations make them more embedded with the community and the organization. In the current study, links are used as organizational and community connections or links.

**Sacrifice**

Sacrifice is an apparent cost that can be social, material, or mental of leaving one's community or organization. For example, a person who leaves an institute may need to give up all tangible losses. He also lost the company of his colleagues and his position in the occupation chain of command.

## 1.11 Summary

Thinking is a mental process that is carried out to comprehend a current situation. The circumstances can shape the thinking styles that an individual experiences. This chapter illustrated detailed information about the background of the study, rationale, statement of the problem, objectives, hypotheses, conceptual framework, significance, methodology, and delimitations of the study. It also provided information about the university structure in Pakistan's government and private sector. Operational definitions of thinking styles and job embeddedness were also discussed in detail. These definitions will help the upcoming researchers and readers to get in-depth knowledge about these terms. Literature related to different research studies, which cover various areas related to the study, is presented in the next chapter.

# CHAPTER 2

# LITERATURE REVIEW

## 2.1 Introduction

A literature review is a challenging piece of work. The primary aim of reviewing the literature is to develop, organize, and order knowledge. Previous literature helps the researcher acquire comprehensive information about the literary work in a particular field. This process explains that the present study would be an addition to a particular field. It also helps the researcher prepare outlines of the study discussion and interpretation of his/her research work. Different thinking styles, models, and theories, along with a particular focus on job embeddedness, job satisfaction, and thinking style theory, are discussed. People's thinking styles vary in different situations and environments. There might be gender base differences in thinking styles. Piaw (2014) proves a special connection between either local or global thinking with gender.

Sternberg has designed a theory of mental self-government. In this theory, he has used the word government as a metaphor. This theory of thinking styles illustrates how people think. This theory turned out to be favoring particularly to educators. This hypothesis's fundamental suspicion was that individuals like social orders and administer themselves and their mental processes. Sternberg claimed that just as there are numerous methods for administering a general public. The human also manages their activities in many ways. These exclusive techniques for dealing with their activities may be constructed as our thinking style (Sternberg, 1997). We pick out

styles we feel comfortable with dealing with our everyday activities. Aljojo . N (2017) conducted a gender base study and discovered three local, external, and hierarchical thinking styles. Robert & Spiliopoulos (1995) announced no connection between sexes with fundamental reasoning. Watson (1981) found that female employees were absent from work more than men. However, if we critically observe this finding in current situations, we may find different results.

Organization-related gender base studies conducted in both sectors have fascinated significant research interest and found contradictory results. In the past, people had fewer opportunities, and most work was done manually. Today technology makes it easy; they complete their work less time with more efficiency. Van der Velde (2003) illustrated that male members score higher in organizational commitment than female employees. Women gave preference to their family commitments. Jansen (2005) revealed that male members in the organization were more willing to accept outdoor tasks because females are sometimes not allowed to move freely without their family mail members. Recruitment is a challenging issue for management. The commitment of females to paid work has expanded altogether. Gaertner (2000) stated that males and females had comparable turnover rates.

McNeilly and Russ (1995) reported that male and female personnel substantially affect organizational responsibility. Females are more educated than males. They are more willing to get an education. Statistics illustrated that females are outnumbered the male in all professions. Their participation increased day by day in organizations or workplaces (Sheeran & Aranda, 2009). In some families,, females as single earners have changed the gender role in many work aspects such as working hours per week, working schedule, and family situations (Mauno & Ruokolainen,

2006). New role demands have also been focused on men becoming more involved with their families. Men and women have also held similar feelings on work-family conflict. In male-dominant societies, females are given more responsibility. However, in contemporary societies, males and females share similar experiences in many work aspects and family situations (Cinnamon & Rich 2002).

## 2.2 Thinking Styles

Thinking style is a term used to depict how people think and remember information. It refers to the way or the form of processing information rather than the content of the activity. It also reflects how people learn and relate older information to the new one (Priola & Armstrong, 2004). Numerous studies were presented in the field of style. It is not possible to mention all studies here. The paradigm of style increments our concept of what people like to do. Style can be discussed as ability-based and identity-based. Personality-based styles are assessed by utilizing performance tests though maximum performance tests evaluate ability-based styles. We contend that personality-based styles may influence an individual's choice related to org and comity. The personality-based theory is utilized; however, ability-based theories are critical for better understanding. Literature related to style centers on two explicit perspectives; a few viewpoints allude to ability-based styles, and some thinking styles are identical to personality-based ones. Researchers mostly talked about thinking styles as a reason for understanding individual differences (Sternberg, 1997). Thinking styles are more important than abilities. Individuals do not have styles; instead, they have a profile of styles. Individuals are not wrapped into any one profile of style. There are many thinking styles; people might show varying amounts of each style of thinking. Everyone

has his specific thinking style. Thinking styles are not good or bad; they are only different from each other (Jones, 1997; Riding & Cheema, 1991).

People behave differently in different situations. Some people are reflective, and some are impulsive. Reflection impulsivity is the inclination to consider alternative solutions or probability. This is one state of mind. The other state of mind is reflective thinking. Impulsive thinkers tend to act without profound thought. These people rapidly offer answers to issues without deep thinking about the issue or matter.

An intelligent individual will have a more drawn-out reaction time with fewer mistakes, while the impulsive individual will have a shorter reaction time with more blunders (Kagan, 1966). On the other hand, intelligent thinkers pause to think before decision making. (Paulsen, 1978).

Personality-based thinking styles have some general characteristics. These styles are dependent on identity. It can fluctuate crosswise over errands and circumstances. People act distinctively in various circumstances. Individuals fluctuate their personality based styles. They are performing multitasks at times. They do not have one fixed style. They may have hierarchic or oligarchic thinking styles. Personality-based styles can change over life expectancy. These styles are not fixed. These thinking styles depend on environmental conditions. With the change of time, they adjust to their environment. People vary in qualities of identity-based complex inclinations. A few people firmly lean toward specific styles though others have only weak preferences. They feel glad in the same circumstance. They follow the standards set by other individuals in society. They have executive thinking styles. They follow the rules set by legislative thinkers. Thinking styles cannot be categorized as good or bad. They are simply the way people use them in different situations. Teachers may

have different opinions about these thinking styles in different situations. One teacher may consider one personality-based style a good style; another teacher may consider it the other way around. These styles depend on an individual's preferences. These styles are changeable. These kinds of people easily adjust to any type of situation. They are not rigid in their rules and regulation. They may give value to one thing at once, and place may not be esteemed in another. Some individuals can easily switch among different thinking styles, and some cannot easily change their thinking. Personality-centered styles are socialized. They have a global thinking style. They feel easy when they are in a group. They have excellent interpersonal relationships with others. Styles are found through communications with the environment. Environment plays a vital role in personality development. Environment reliably supports some personality-based styles over others (Sternberg, 1997).

Sternberg first introduced this theory in 1988. He had given 104 thing scale with eight items to investigate each thinking style. Respondents gave their opinion against these eight items mentioned inside each sub-scale. The thinking style inventory was very lengthy. It was challenging for respondents to fill it with honesty. They ignore some items or mark them randomly. This act of respondents damages the validity of the questionnaire. By keeping in mind, these weaknesses, Sternberg (2007) revised the thinking styles inventory. This inventory proposed thirteen ways of thinking, distinguished under five dimensions. Mental self-government theory suggests that thinking style can be measured in terms of constructs from our idea of government. The structure of government is not coincidental. The government speaks to the outside pointers of cognitive processes. The parallels between the legislative organization of society and mental procedures incorporate the need to administer oneself, choose

priorities, allocate assets, and be receptive to situational changes (Sternberg, 1997). Parallel to governments, people, do not follow a single style. They have a profile of styles and use them in various circumstances according to the need or demands of situations. For example, the government has diverse capacities, shapes, levels, degrees, and learnings. Government frameworks regularly have distinctive branches serving different capacities; likely, people also have diverse styles for concentrating on various capacities. Government has three main and important functions. The first function is legislative. Individuals with administrative or legislative styles. Administrative thinking style individuals have their way of doing things and designing tasks for the organization. These individuals like to create their own rules, utilize inventive systems, arrange thoughts, and produce new methodologies and arrangements. The second function is executive. Individuals with an executive style are increasingly worried about the best possible usage of duties with set rules and regulations inside many rules. Those with a judicial style like to evaluate the work of others and observe the performance of others. These individuals like the problems and tasks in which they evaluate the work procedure and consequence of other individuals' exercises. In mental self-government, the theory writer presented four different forms of government. These forms are different; for instance, employees with monarchic thinking styles are inclined to take part in exercises that expect them to concentrate on just a single thing at any given moment. A hierarchic thinking style person is motivated by a hierarchy of tasks. They are good at setting priorities. They organize the need for priorities. Oligarchic thinking styles tend to prefer multiple tasks at the same time. Individuals have an oligarchic thinking style inclined toward progressing in the direction of a few destinations, all in the meantime without organizing the undertakings. Finally, people with an Anarchic style favor taking a shot at assignments that require no framework by any stretch of the

imagination and, subsequently, take into account more prominent adaptability. Government works at different levels. Likewise, in mental-self-government theory, two levels are defined, global and local. Local thinking style individuals prefer activities that involve them in concrete specifics of a situation. They are often oriented towards the pragmatics of the situation. Individuals with a global thinking style are inclined toward tasks undertakings and circumstances that require commitment with extensive and global ideas that require abstract thinking. Government has two scopes. Individuals with an internal a way of thinking like to work independently. They are inclined toward the tasks and activities which enable them to work autonomously with other individuals. Interestingly, those with an external thinking style lean toward undertakings, projects, situations, and tasks that allow them to interact with others. These people like to work with others in a group. There are two learnings in this theory. Individuals with a liberal-thinking style lean toward situations and projects that motivate them toward the new situation. They always prefer to use new strategies and procedures for the given tasks. They prefer change even if it is not ideal in that situation. They always like new challenges. Those with a conservative thinking style prefer tasks and conditions which involve devotion to existing procedures and techniques. This thinking style is similar to the executive thinking style. Mental self-government theory explains that individuals have different preferences for these styles. People might use more than one way of thinking in different situations. The thinking process is a very complicated issue. It plays a significant role in human activities, which involves learning and social and interpersonal functioning (L.Zhang, 2003).

The environment is one principal perspective that may impact an individual's inclinations of styles. The workplace environment or culture of the organization can

impact individuals' thinking styles. The current study investigates whether some ways of thinking predict the dimension of job embeddedness more strongly than others. There are distinctive methods for overseeing society; individuals utilize diverse approaches to take care of their issues, organize projects, and approach different activities (Zhang & Sternberg, 2005).

## 2.3 Definition and Characteristics of Thinking Styles

Different educationists and theorists have defined thinking styles in their way. Thinking styles are the favored system for utilizing people's capacities to deal with their activities and tasks (Sternberg (1997). According to Sofo (2008), thinking styles are considered the most-comfortable method for reacting to a state of affairs that lead a person to explicit styles that impact individuals' feelings and perceptions, which control and guide their day-by-day exercises. Writing, thinking, learning, and intellectual styles outline inclinations and frames of mind that decide how an individual remembers, behaves, perceives, and tackles issues. As indicated by Armstrong and Cools (2009), styles of thinking indicate the particular methodology of a person in assessing and preparing data, taking care of issues, and decision making. The environment is the most key perspective that may assist an individual with accommodating their styles through cooperation with their environment. It also influences a person’s preferences of style. Style can change in different situations. The environment of the organization may affect employees' thinking styles. Individuals who are provided a stress-free environment are more willing to take risks, be inventive, more joyful, and be resolved in attempt distinctive techniques to take care of any down-to-earth issue. They are increasingly imaginative and will, in general, utilize a more extensive scope of reasoning styles (Sternberg, 1997; L. Zhang &Sternberg, 2005). An individual has a profile of styles.

Styles in specific employment and circumstances may not fit in other occupations in different situations (L. Zhang, 2002).

## 2.4 Thinking Process

The thinking process can be understood through three stages. The first stage is analysis, the second is comparison, and the third is an abstraction. Investigation of the attributes of comparative objects. These objects are considered elements. Through comparison, things become more evident. In the thinking process, opinion formation is also essential. Feeling arranges to connect two or more two objects. The feeling is communicated in three distinctive ways: affirmative or positive opinion, adverse opinion, and modalities. An individual makes a different opinion about different objects in the thinking process. Most of the time, our opinion is subjective. Because that is based on personal observation, the opinion may be positive, negative, or based on modalities. Thinking is the process of using knowledge and information to make plans, model, and interpret the world and constructively interact with and make a prediction about the world in general (Nugent& Giscombe, 2013).

## 2.5 Demographic Factors and Thinking Styles

Demographic variables play a significant role in thinking styles. Some demographic variables such as gender, culture, family system, environmental factors, and employment affect the expansion of individual thinking styles (Sternberg, 1997). Zhang (2006) conducted experimental studies. Their research work discussed the characteristics of demographic variables, e.g., culture, age, gender, education, and work position, manipulate people's intellectual styles. Gender and culture strongly influence dialectic thinking, affecting how individuals experience restricting influences, such as

positive and negative affect (Schimmack, 2009). Demographic factors play an essential job in thinking styles. Another exploratory study found that gender, age, guardians department of study, instructive dimension, and time distributed to study and arrange impact an instructor's thinking style (Yildizlar, 2011). The investigation led by Zou and his associates demonstrated that demographic variables might underwrite style contrasts by qualities, self-originations, beliefs, and dispositions (Zou et al., 2009). Different research studies revealed that demographic factors strongly influence thinking styles. The literature review illustrated that demographic factors, such as gender, work position, qualification, work experience, community, and organizational attributes, were widely used in research studies and substantially affected thinking styles.

Culture also plays an important role. It can influence individuals' conduct through communism on self-originations. People will, in general, depend on thoughts that they expect are worthy in the network when they make regular interpretations. National culture can influence one's cognitive schema. Culture can impact individuals' behavior through socialism on self-originations. In eastern nations, children are educated not to scrutinize certain religious principles. In different social orders, kids are urged to scrutinize a great deal. These distinctions lead to recognized styles of thinking (Sternberg, 1997).

Research provided indications that individuals who work in a similar domain with a similar position will create similar thinking styles. Organizational environment and job hierarchy also strongly affect employees' thinking styles. Experiential studies also demonstrated that individuals in authoritative positions have diverse thinking styles because they deal with many people in the organization. They use thinking styles

according to the need of the situation. The level of training builds up the socialization of thinking styles. Research demonstrated that individuals with lower training and education were more adaptive than advanced education and training. In general, representatives with advanced education would be more creative and socialized than those with lower levels of instruction (Zhang, 2006).

Impression of more comprehensive social or societal agreement may assume an imperative job in directing individual thought and behavior; culture influences individuals' methods for handling data. It is a custom of knowledge and practice shared with individuals through literature, society, and crosswise generation. The social examples are recreated in individuals' discernments and activities, notwithstanding when they hold individual convictions (Zou et al., 2009). Nationalities and their separate societies influence people from various perspectives, including their cognitive representation. In light of this, administrators or managers should improve administrative adequacy through other types of administrative abilities that empower them to adjust to their new social circumstances. Abundant experiential proof has exhibited individuals' distinction in literary styles as a component of their way of life (Jen and Lien, 2010). These components play a significant role in the workplace. Managers or administrators who are more institutive than other employees ought to have a more profound capacity to ponder their way of life and contrast it and the new culture (Yiu & Raymond, 2000).

Previous research demonstrated that age and sexual orientation could represent massive measures of varieties in thinking styles (Schimmack, 2009; Zhang, 2010). Age has empowered people to collect more experience. The impacts of age on individuals' styles have for quite some time been affirmed. In general, people with more experience

will be progressively cautious and insightful. This may include causeless innovation and creativity because they are acquainted with the multifaceted nature of getting things done. Individuals with experience in their field are progressively versatile and more tuned to positions (L. Zhang and Sternberg, 2006). Results of previous studies showed that males were more typically individualistic, bold, ambitious, imaginative, and dynamic, whereas females were careful, more often depicted, fault finding, apathetic, shy, and accommodating. Based on these presumptions, males and females should have diverse thinking styles (Sternberg, 1997).

Supervisors or managers were more initiative than other employees, and this is the conclusion of a research study conducted in the United States. They referenced in their examination that individuals in headship positions are experienced individuals. This experience will, in general, make them more initiative. Individuals at the higher post in organization-hierarchy should anticipate situations that force them to think in new and innovative ways and forms various new perspectives. They need to choose something new for their organization to attract the employees. They are relied upon to be progressively inventive in their thinking. They are the people who decide for the organization daily. So their daily practice in decision-making makes them more intuitive. Mostly they have a legislative thinking style. Generally, they have an administrative reasoning style (Hill et al., 2000). Thinking and leadership styles play a significant role in the organization's hierarchy. A high-ranking position in the organizational hierarchy is another critical variable related to employees' thinking styles. As individuals spend more time in the organization and grow older, they are more experience people. Their thinking becomes more refrain with the balanced environment of an organization. Permanent employees are less innovative. They are

more adaptive and prefer to work in the same situations. This adaptation is simply a result of socialization due to the length of service or experience and age. Organizational characteristics and environment also strongly influence their employee's thinking styles (L. Zhang & Sternberg, 2006).

Attributes of working environment conditions job qualities additionally influence employees' thinking styles. Employees working with occupational attributes, such as marketing and research, planning, and management, tend to adopt innovative thinking styles. People who originate from business sectors or organizations with rigidly structured features, such as nurses, accountants, various forms of production, and banks, tend to have adaptive ways of thinking. Most organizations require individuals with versatility more than advanced thinking. Despite what might be expected, inventive individuals require unstructured associations and occupations, such as research development agencies and industries (Foxall, 1992).

## 2.6 Theoretical overview of thinking styles

Abilities are broadly defined in many research studies. Many researchers consider thinking styles more important than abilities. Style is the mode of thinking; it is not an ability. In other words, style is a popular way of utilizing the abilities one has. The style suggests how an individual like to accomplish something (Sternberg, 1997). The ways of thinking are associated with critical thinking, problem solving, decision making, academic achievement, etc. Many factors affect persons' thinking styles. Demographic variables, for example, gender, age, qualification, work experience, area of study, family background, parental styles, workplace environment etc., also affect individual thinking styles (Emamipour &Seif, 2003)

People differ in their performance in the same workplace. Different researchers relate it to personality, but it was not the complete answer. An interface was needed between personality and abilities. The concept of emotional intelligence, social intelligence, and problem-solving resulted from this need. Different thinking styles theories have been offered that describe different cognitive and thinking styles that people use in different situations.

## 2.7 Self Government Theory

Sternberg has taken the idea of this theory from how society can be sorted out. This theory perceives internal identity and abilities and outer characteristics, for example, setting and environment, from a broad viewpoint (Zhang &Sternberg, 2005). He believes that there are diverse methods for overseeing a general public; individuals likewise have distinctive approaches to taking care of issues, sorting out activities, and approaching distinctive undertakings. The type of government we have in the world is

not surprising; rather, it is the impression of individuals' minds. So we can say that the types of government an individual see in his/her encompassing reflect his/her mind. This theory assumes that people use different methods to solve their problems, organize projects and approach different tasks.

Individuals need to govern themselves similarly as society needs to oversee itself. Therefore similarities can be observed between the organization of society and the organization of an individual. People are, to some degree, adaptable in the utilization of thinking styles. They may use one style in one situation and a contradictory style in another situation at the workplace. Sternberg et al. (2005) recognize thirteen ways of thinking within mental self-government theory. These ways of thinking fall under five measurements: functions, forms, levels, scopes, and learnings. In equality to government, people do three functions, legislative, executive, and legal. These thinking styles illustrate individual preferences. A few people want to pursue existing principles and guidelines. However, they do not care for change; some formulate their own rules. They prefer a change in their surroundings. Some people are judgmental; they prefer to judge ideas, rules, and procedures. Hierarchic, monarchic, oligarchic, and anarchic are four different forms of government. These four styles are identified with how an individual arranges data preparation. Monarchic style people are determined and single-minded. The hierarchic style permits the hierarchy of tasks and objectives.

People have this thinking style and like to do multiple tasks in a given time. They efficiently manage all those projects and assignments which need an arrangement. They are capable of setting priorities for the given tasks or projects. Oligarchic people have difficulty setting priorities; anarchic thinking style individuals are flexible in their

approach. They are unable to set priorities. They have no firm as the government has more concern with general or specific policy making. Global and local are considered as levels of self-government theory. Individuals with a global style like to manage significant and abstract issues, whereas people with a local thinking style will generally appreciate the tasks that expect them to monitor concrete points of a situation. We are managing mental self-government theory. External thinking style and internal thinking are two scopes of this theory. Correspondingly, people with an external thinking style will generally be outgoing and socially more sensitive. They like to work with others. They are more suitable for the situation where group work is required. Individuals having internal thinking styles tend to be introverted and socially less sensitive.

At last, there are two learnings of this theory, liberal and conservative. Liberal minded people select to complete tasks using new methods and beyond existing rules and procedures. At the same time, Conservative thinking styles lean toward well-known and non-threatening situations (Sternberg 1997).

### 2.7.1 Functions of Thinking Styles

The first dimension of thinking style theory is function. Legislative, judicial, and executive are three main functions of thinking styles. Legislative function involves creation, formulation and planning of ideas Executive branch of the government carried out the plans formulated by the legislative branch. The judicial function involves judgmental activities. Their primary focus is on evaluating others. The judicial branch of thinking style is designed to appraise other people's performance. People having a judicial way of thinking prefer to evaluate rules and procedures. They are judgmental. They mainly evaluate and analyze existing ideas and procedures. They like to appraise

the work of others. They prefer to like both structure and content (Grigorenko & Sternberg, 1995).

Some people like to create their own rules. In mental self-government theory, this way of thinking is known as a legislative style. They come up with their ideas and prefer to decide on strategies for themselves. They prefer to solve those problems that are not prefabricated and solve those problems by using their methods. They usually like to design different projects, create new systems etc. These individuals like to decide what to do, when to do and how to do rather than be told. They select that profession for themselves where they utilize their legislative thinking style (Sternberg, 1994).

Executive thinking style people are implementers. They like those activities which are already defined for them. They like to follow existing rules. They carry out those activities and plans framed by the legislative people. The main characteristic of this thinking style is that they are a follower. They do what they are told and often do it optimistically. Teachers with executive thinking styles follow the set syllabus. They do not want to change it. They prefer to follow already existing rules (Wagner, 1991).

### 2.7.2 Thinking Styles Forms

Four different forms are discussed in mental self-government theory. Hierarchic style person tends to be motivated by a hierarchy of tasks. These individuals like to organize their tasks in systematic ways. They arrange the things depending on their importance. These individuals like to complete their tasks in a given time frame. They are self-aware, tolerant, and relatively flexible. Hierarchic individuals easily adjust to any organization because they organize the activities and set priorities correctly. Hierarchic people are logical, realistic, and organized in decision-making and solving problems (Sternberg, 1997).

The monarchic person often expects tasks or projects to be done without cause. Individuals with a monarchic thinking style tend to be motivated by a single task. They usually complete one target before starting the next that is why they are considered single-minded people. They are unable to handle many tasks at a time. They focus on one task or project before starting the next project. They tend to focus on a single project. They are very systematic and organized. They prefer those tasks and projects which highlight their individuality (Sternberg, 1994).

Oligarchic thinking style, individuals tend to be motivated by multiple goals. They like those situations that allow them to work with contending approaches to numerous equally important tasks (Sternberg, 2006). The oligarchic individual is similar to a hierarchic person, but they want to do more tasks within the given time. These individuals tend to do more than one thing within the same period. They cannot set priorities because they consider everything equally essential (Grigorenko & Sternberg, 1995).

Anarchic thinking style people like an arbitrary approach to problems. They refuse a rigid system. Anarchic individuals are motivated by a potpourri of goals and needs. These individuals are often unclear about their goals. They do not have set rules for setting priorities, so the tasks given to them are often difficult for them and other people working on the same tasks or projects. They perform better if they are assigned disorganized tasks and activities (Sternberg, 1991)

### 2.7.3 Thinking Styles Levels

The first level of thinking is local. Local style people felt difficulty in distinguishing important from unimportant (Zhang, 2011). These individuals often like concrete problems. They prefer the projects and tasks that engage them with specific and concrete details. Global style individuals deal with abstract and significant problems. They prefer to ignore detail. They deal with those problems which require abstract thinking. Employees having these two levels of thinking can work well together because local people deal with concrete details, whereas globalists deal with abstract and large tasks or projects (Sternberg &Wagner, 2006).

### 2.7.4 Scope of Thinking Styles

**In internal thinking style,** these individuals tend to be introverted. They have solid intrapersonal skills. They like to work alone and apply their ideas. They are more concerned with internal matters. They are task-oriented and socially less sensitive. (Sternberg and Zhang, 2005). In external thinking style, these individuals are socially more sensitive. They are extroverted and outgoing and feel comfortable in social gatherings. They are people oriented and have strong interpersonal skills. They like to work with others in a group. They are good at developing interpersonal relationships with others (Sternberg, 2009).

### 2.7.5 Learnings of Thinking Styles

There are two learnings in thinking style theory. Liberal style individuals appreciating ambiguity and novelty. They do not like existing rules and regulations. They

always go beyond current instructions and techniques. In general, they quickly become bored. They prefer new alternatives and do not like instructions (Zhang & Sternberg, 2006).

**Conservative thinking style:** individuals with conservative thinking styles have resistance to novelty and avoid uncertainty. They like to follow the existing procedures and environment. People with conservative thinking styles prefer a structured and relatively predictable environment (Zhang & Sternberg, 2006).

## 2.8 Theory of Reality Construction

Sofo (2009) has given the theory of reality. The hypothesis of reality development was created from the standards of mental self-government. This hypothesis was raised out of constructivist theory. This theory depended on the explanation that people favored thinking styles that could assist them with constructing reality during their daily life activities amid their daily by day life exercises. The theory of reality was based on the supposition that individuals can embrace their popular thinking style to encounter various circumstances. They react to specific situations according to their attitude, skills, and knowledge to process their thought (Sofo & Ammirato, 2013). Constructivists accept a procedure of learning and doing specific activities during their daily life where they are effectively engaged with their understanding of their experience. They learn from their experiences (Cooper & Basson, 2006). Individuals have their version of truth where they create, effectively, participate, interpret and reorganize their knowledge. Thinking styles are not good and bad, preferable or more regrettable over some other styles for people. According to Budijanto (2013), there are five thinking styles. These five reasoning style elements depend on reality construction theory (TORC).

### 2.8.1 Conditional Thinking Style

Conditional thinking is a form of convergent thinking. An individual with a conditioning style is motivated to use their logical skills, analysis, and synthesis of a situation as a foundation for accepting what they are told about actual words without inquiring. This reasoning alludes to an inclination to tolerate others' encounters with no inquiry. They do not bring up any issues about the situation. Instead, they feel good and safe in that circumstance. Individuals having a restrictive thinking style will get benefit from expert opinion. These individuals sometimes lose their identity because of not thinking (Sofo, 2005).

### 2.8.2 Inquiring Thinking Style

Inquiring thinking is a form of convergent thinking. Inquiring thinking style is opposite to the conditional thinking style. Individuals with inquiring thinking tend to ask questions to understand better the reasons behind what others are saying. These people only ask about the situation, not the challenge, the cohesion and unity of the information and situation. Their focus is on seeking answers but avoiding decisions (Sofo, 2009).

### 2.8.3 Exploring Thinking Style

People with having exploring thinking style tend to investigate all areas of an issue. It is contrary thinking. Individuals explore thinking styles searching for unconventional ways of thinking about the context itself by determining new situations. These types of thinkers appreciate the complexity and generate new options. They are confused and reluctant to commit to action (Sofo, 2005).

### 2.8.4 Independent Thinking Style

Individuals with an independent thinking style trust their feelings, thinking, situations and opinions. They put more focus on forming their views. Independent thinkers tend to understand their thought. They often ignore the opinion of others. They are confident with their opinions and actions. Their actions are derived from their thinking. This type of thinker is confident but arrogant (Sofo, 2009).

### 2.8.5 Creative Thinking Style

Individuals with a creative thinking style prefer thinking in images and pictures. They prefer pictorial situations and visualizing to attain a sense of certainty. Individuals have creative thinking styles, like creating optimistic pictures when they think. Creative thinking is also called contrary thinking. This type of thinker discovers images for themselves. They prefer pictorial situations. This thinker visualizes and creates innovative ways and new ideas, but they fail to apply those ideas (Sofo, 2013).

## 2.9 Theory of Intellectual Styles

The theory of intellectual styles was given by Zhang (2006). This combined ten theories of styles.

1. Ways of thinking by Sternberg
2. Career personality type by Holland
3. Myers and McCauley's personality types
4. Witkin's field dependence and independence
5. Guilford's divergent and convergent thinking
6. Gregore's mind styles

7. Torrance's modes of thinking
8. Brigg's learning approach
9. Kagan's reflective and impulsive styles
10. Torrance's modes of thinking

The theory of intellectual styles was classified into three groups.

### 2.9.1 Type I Thinking Style

Type one thinking style is based on creativity, or we can say it is creative and generating styles that need complicated information processing systems. Liberal style, global style, judicial style, and legislative style are included in type one thinking style. These thinking styles have common characteristics. They focus on a deep learning approach. That includes decision making, conceptual, artistic, holistic thinking model, and concreate random mind style reflective, innovative. Creative career personality types, divergent thinking, intuitive personality types, and field-independent perceptual styles.

### 2.9.2 Type II Thinking Style

The second type is simplistic data handling, expert, and similarity. This type incorporates; executive, moderate and local thinking styles. People considered under type two have qualities, for example, detecting and making a decision about identity, surface learning approach, systematic method of reasoning, conventional career personality type, concrete successive personality style, impulsive conceptual tempo, field dependent perceptual style, and convergent thinking.

### 2.9.3 Type III Thinking Style

This style is controlled by styles that recommend sociological inclinations relying upon the complex demands of a particular undertaking. This type includes; oligarchic, anarchic, and internal and external thinking styles. Individuals who are categorized as type three have characteristics such as innovative career personality types, achieving learning approaches, cohesive mode of thinking, realistic, investigative, and abstract sequential mind, and abstract random thinking styles.

## 2.10 Whole Brain Model

The whole-brain model was proposed by Herrmann (1996). Individuals with this type of thinking style followed step by step procedural approach. This model of thinking was classified into four separations of the brain. These separations are called quadrants, such as Quadrant A, the upper left quarter; this part is known as the brain's rational part. Quadrant B is the lower left quarter of the brain. This part of the mind is known as the organizer. Quadrant C, the lower right quarter of the brain, this part is known as the communicator. Quadrant D, the upper right quarter, this area of the brain is considered unrealistic and imaginative (Saleh & Zain, 2010).

For measuring thinking patterns, he has developed one hundred and twenty items. Quadrant A, theorist represents external thinking, which is critical, quantitative, analytical, and verbal. These people learn through old-fashioned methods. Quadrant B, the organizer, refers to technical thinking. Procedural thinking is structured, planned, sequential, and verified. Individuals having this thinking style learn a thing in steps. Quadrant C, communicator represents interactive thinking. Individuals having this style are intuitive, cooperative, emotional, and explorative. They learn through experience,

listening, and discussion. Quadrant D is conceptual, creative, imaginative, comprehensive, and inductive. This quadrant is visionary and represents internal thinking; these individuals are intuitive, learn by insightfulness, structure new ideas, and have instant thinking.

## 2.11 Cognitive Processes and Style

Miller (1987) has introduced the model of cognitive process and styles. In this model, he describes that cognitive styles are based on singular contrasts in the different parts. These subcomponents comprise of data handling model. This model depends on three sorts of subjective procedures, discernment, memory, and thought. Miller has also defined those key characteristics in this model. In each construct, distinctive individual styles were introduced. Every individual style has diverse characteristics. Miller has likewise characterized those key qualities in his model. Those trademarks are learning approach, profession identity type, method of reasoning, identity type, mind styles, basic leadership styles, the structure of brains, and perceptual style. This learning approach is partitioned into two sections. Deep learning and surface learning approach. Individuals with profound thought styles increase genuine and profound comprehension of what is found out. They break down those ideas in a more thoughtful dimension. At the same time, individuals with surface reasoning styles duplicate what is educated to meet the least prerequisite. Profession identity type includes artistic, investigative, realistic, enterprising, social, and conventional thinking styles.

Artistic mind people manage errands that give chances to utilize their creative ability. People have a realistic thinking style and work with concrete things. Analytical individuals take part in logical sorts of work. People with social styles work in foundations that furnish chances to connect with others. Ordinary people work with

information under very organized circumstances. Ambitious work in conditions in which administration openings are accessible. Regular people work with information under all-around organized circumstances. There are three methods of thinking, comprehensive, scientific, and integrative. Individuals with analytic styles process data in an investigative and successive way. In an integrative style, people process data intuitively and uniquely. However, individuals have an all-encompassing realistic style of processing data intelligently.

Individuals are different based on personality. For example, people with extroversion personality types. People are diverse based on identity. For instance, individuals with extroversion identity type, for the most part, appreciate situated activity exercises and group instruction. They will in general like work in a group. In general, the institutive thinking style will find better approaches for getting things done. Self-preoccupation appreciates reflection and individual exertion. They attempt to work alone. They were passing judgment on identity type incline toward increasingly organized learning situations. Detecting style depends basically on concreate data given by the five detects. Thinking depend on generic and explanatory thinking. However, sentiments depend on close to home and social qualities in deciding. Visual style people are inclined toward adaptable learning circumstances.

Individuals tend to focus on learning holistically in an abstract random thinking style. They are solid in unraveling verbal, composed, and picture images. Abstract irregular personality style is an approach that will, in general, adapt comprehensively and want to learn in an unstructured manner. However, concrete consecutive personality styles center around all around organized workplaces. They extricate data through hands-on encounters. The concrete random thinking style focus on

experimentation and natural and free ways to deal with learning. Individuals having creative personality styles work in nontraditional ways. These tend to be motivated toward their own rule. They never feel any stress over the social outcomes and are not stressed over the social results of conveying weak solutions. Whereas adaptive style people minimize risks and work in the existing structure and minimize risks and clashes (Miller, 1987)

Miller clarifies that every cognitive style is subordinate to expansive complex measurements, expository and all-encompassing. Field independent perceptual style will generally consider items to be a discrete structure of their background. At the same time, field-dependent will generally be influenced by the broad field or setting (Miller, 1988). The holistic pole is based on two styles of field-dependent diverging holistic-information process. While diagnostic shaft of this association, there are styles, for example, field-independent, converging, honing, and sequential data processing (Miller, 1991). People with a reflective personality style will generally consider and think about elective arrangement potential outcomes, while impulsive will, in general, react rashly without good arranging. A divergent structure of judgment flexibly manages issues and will produce multiple answers for a single problem. Though convergent arrangements with issues and an answer as having a balanced relationship. They mechanically manage issues.

## 2.12 Cheema's and Riding Model

Riding and Cheema (1991) proposed an integrative cognitive style model. They grouped intellectual-style dimensions into two principles:

i. Verbal-imagery

ii. Holistic analytic and verbal imagery

Comprehensive systematic dimensions are concerned with individual performance, whether an individual tends to process information as a whole or divide it into smaller parts. The verbal imagery explains whether individuals incline to represent information by speculation verbally. This model depended on description and relationship techniques for appraisal and impact on the conduct of multiple style labels. These two measurements were utilized in many research studies. The findings of these research studies illustrated that two intellectual style measurements incline occupational behavior and physical prosperity.

An integrative model of cognitive style analysis (CSA) was initiated to measure two dimensions of styles. It is a computer-based measurement that consists of three subsets. Cognitive style analysis was used to assess three dimensions. These measurements were related with verbal imagery and two subset dimensions, the comprehensive investigative measurement (Riding, 1991). The tool that was for estimation comprised forty-eight statements. That was utilized to pass judgment on evident or false and compute proportion for two dimensions. Build validity of the tool that was supported by the research studies, these measurements are free of one another, and they are independent. They never present any reliable data (Riding and Pearson, 1994). The work of Riding and Cheema (1991) catalyzed cognitive style research.

## 2.13 Gregorc Theory of Thinking Styles

There are different ways our minds can acquire and process information (Cano & Garton, 1994). Gregorc had divided this idea into two main streams: perception and order. Perception means how we perceive information. Ordering means how we process information.

He further divided these two streams into four thinking styles.

i. Concrete

ii. Abstract

iii. Sequential

iv. Random

In concrete thinking, individuals use their five senses. They can perceive the actual word of things that can be tangibly experienced. Intangible things are perceived by using abstract thinking. In abstract thinking, people can think about different ideas, concepts, relationships, etc. People having a sequential ordering way of thinking organize information in a linear sequential way. This style of thinking is similar to Sternberg's hierarchic thinking style. People with a random ordering style organize information into chunks. They never follow any sequence while performing any task. When performing any practical task, we use a concrete sequential approach, while during the brainstorming process, we will likely use an abstract random approach. Thinking styles are a reflection of how a person processes information. This significantly improves internal communications and employee relations (Julie & Jennifer, 2014).

Individuals with concrete sequential styles dislike working with abstract conceptual thought or ideas. They drive in organized condition and work admirably with a clear direction where they are offered time to learn the skill through training. They dislike open-ended questions or tasks. People with a concrete dominant thinking style work well with clear direction. This style is similar to the executive thinking style of Sternberg.

An individual with an abstract sequential thinking style likes to work alone and flourish in stimulating environments to explore a subject in detail without repetitive work. They follow their thinking style. It is often challenging for them to accept others' ideas. They also do not have care social cues, which leads them to dominate conversations. They showed disrespect for people with diverging views from their own.

People with abstract random thinking styles thrive on teamwork. They often perceive the unseen-like relationship. This style is similar to the global thinking style. They dislike narrow boundaries, dictatorial leaders, unfriendly people, and competition. They dislike working environment that does not encourage relationships. They cannot focus on one task. Abstract thinking style individuals dislike even constrictive criticism. They consider it personal judgment against them.

In a concrete random thinking style, people are problem-solvers. They like to experiment-learn from the experimental process- and repeat the process. They dislike boundaries and formal structures. They are highly competitive and like to work through problems independently (Julie, 2014).

## 2.14 Comparing and Contrasting the Integrated Models

There are many thinking styles models. All models are important because they measure human thinking style. Sternberg, Currie, and Grigorenko implemented the system approach. Miller Cheema and riding's model receive information dealing with technique. They use information processing. Identity measurements are the focal point of-Curry's-model. Sternberg (1997) believes that styles rely upon the complex interest of the given task. Sternberg and Grigorenko (1997) categorize the existing styles into

three different structures, mental process, personality system, and behavior-oriented measurements.

Similarly, the following two models are unique from the previous one. The two models given by Miller's and Riding put accentuation on mental procedures. Miller's model was based on holistic measurement. This model deals with three explicit sorts of cognitive processes: memory, perception, and thought. The holistic analytic systematic measurement tends to how one represent information. So Cheema's and Riding model stress two stylistic measurements. These are the center of investigations.

## 2.15 Researches on Thinking Styles

Ways of thinking demonstrate individuals' methods of managing their intellectual knowledge (Fan & Zhang, 2009). The research study conducted by Zhang was based on the academics way of thinking and consistency between ways of thinking and instruction style. This investigation reflected that the educators' teaching styles could be anticipated because of their thinking styles (Zhang, 2010). Educators' thinking styles play an important role; if teachers are aware of different thinking styles, they will easily manage students thinking styles. Zhang and Sachs (1997) conducted a research study on thinking styles. University teachers of Hong Kong were the sample of that study. They selected the teaching staff of the natural sciences department and science and technology department. Results of that study reflected that the teaching staff of science and technology departments favored the global thinking style more frequently than social sciences teachers. Individuals having a global thinking style appreciate tasks that urge them to consider honest thoughts and not need to worry about details. That was the reason for instructors of natural science and technology being inclined toward global thinking style. Grigorenko (1995) designed a research study. The study

participants were the science and humanities teachers in the USA. Results of the study indicated that the educators who are teaching science in the United States of America prefer the local thinking style to educators of the humanities department. These findings were also cited in Zhang and Sternberg (2006). A study on a similar topic was conducted by Lam (2000) in Hong Kong. This study illustrated the scores of teachers. Teachers in the art department have higher local ways of thinking scores than the science department teachers.

Inside the educational setting, Zhang presented a few studies investigating the development of people and thinking styles. Zhang (2008) conducted a study based on ways of thinking. The results of his research reflected that ways of thinking are the indicators of personality development, yet the ways of thinking are also strongly connected with identity improvement. He has conducted another research that concentrated on the reasoning styles of undergrads and their psychosocial improvement and presumed that a more extensive scope of reasoning styles is a mediator of the feeling of deliberateness. Insightful improvement of students was likewise considered, and the outcomes demonstrated that the outer scope of styles is utilized by college students (Zhang, 2002).

Different researches about ways of thinking were grounded on the effect of thinking styles on professional decision-making. Kaufman (2001) conducted research work. Students of mass communication and creative writing were selected as study samples. It was concluded that creative writers scored higher on executive thinking than imaginative scholars. Formulating new projects by arranging thoughts and systems is identified with an administrative reasoning style. Creative masterminds favored this thinking style. Hommerding (2002) conducted a research study related to the thinking

styles of library chiefs. Results illustrated that hierarchic, global, and oligarchic are the most favored styles of library chiefs, whereas anarchic library chiefs least favor local and judicial thinking styles.

A research study was conducted by Zhang and Zhu (2008) to find out the relationship between the emotions of the individuals and their ways of thinking. The findings of the research work reflected that ways of thinking were related to emotions. Findings also indicated a strong connection between emotions and individuals' ways of thinking. They also compared it with age and concluded that ways of thinking had perceptive power for emotion beyond age. The study also finds a relationship between the ability to manage emotions and thinking style. Results of the study reflected that hierarchic, global, liberal, and legislative styles are entirely related to the tendency to manage emotion. Likewise, external and anarchic ways of thinking are emphatically connected with the ability to control emotions. Researchers investigated which style of thinking is considered an indicator of which emotion. Findings of the study indicated that emotions are positively anticipated by the hierarchic thinking style whereas negatively related to the oligarchic thinking style.

Sternberg and Wagnor (1992) conducted a research study on thinking style inventory, and Shim's (2003) study was based on scientific giftedness inventory. The sample of the study was gifted Korean students. They favored judicial, legislative, global, anarchic, liberal, and external thinking-style, while non-gifted pupils favored conservative, oligarchic, and executive thinking styles. Thinking Styles were additionally observed to be huge prognosticators of logical talent also. Another relational research work was directed to appraise the relation between university pupils' critical thinking and thinking styles. Inventory related to thinking styles was used for

the evaluation of students' ways of thinking (Sternberg &Wagner, 1992). The multistage cluster sampling technique was used. Two hundred and seven learners were carefully chosen for this research work. The critical thinking style was evaluated by using a critical thinking test. The study results illustrated the links between ways of thinking and the critical thinking of the students.

Comparative research contemplate was directed by Douglas (1991). In this study, he thought about the thinking styles of business correspondence students with the procedure and result of community composing gatherings. It was presumed that students with indistinguishable reasoning styles do not usually collaborate in shaping groups, and thinking styles could easily compare to research studies impacting group achievement. It was also shown that reasoning style verity inside a group is advantageous, in light of the fact that they have diverse suppositions about a similar point.

Sternberg (1994) directed a gender orientation-based examination on eighty-five educators of four schools. Among them, fifty-seven were males and twenty-eight females. It was discovered that schools differed in terms of the thinking styles of the educators. Older instructors were more executive, local and conservative. The lower grade educators were observed to be more legislative. They like to make new plans and give new thoughts regarding educational programs and other school-related issues.

Huang and Sisco (1994) directed a similar study of thinking styles. They chose American and grown-up Chinese students and compared their thinking styles. One hundred and fifty Chinese and American graduate students were chosen for this investigation. Comparisons were made based on gender. The analysis demonstrated that the American ladies and Chines men were more idealistic than Chines ladies and

American men. The scores of American female students and Chinese male students were higher. Overall American students scored less in contrast with chines students. They were more pragmatic than Americans. The investigation also illustrated that natural science and engineering students favored the analytical reasoning style most compared with the synthesis style.

Grigorenko (1995) conducted a demographic study. The author tries to discover the students' ways of thinking between twelve and sixteen. One hundred twenty-four students were randomly selected as a sample of the study. One hundred and twenty-four learners were selected as samples for this study. These students provided information for that study. It was concluded on the basis of results that the financial status of the students was negatively correlated with judicial, conservative, and local thinking styles. Their younger siblings were logically managerial. Legislative thinking style was common in late-born siblings. This study similarly found a basic match among students and teachers' thinking styles.

Another research study was conducted by Sternberg ((1998). This study addresses the issue related to the classroom. This study was designed. It evaluates the teacher's and learner's thinking styles. This research study reflected a positive correlation between educators' way of teaching and students' thinking styles. This positive relationship played a significant role in students' achievement or better performance. As results revealed that students showed good results when the learners' ways of thinking matched their instructors' thinking styles. It was concluded that the awareness of thinking styles is very important for the teachers.

Grigorenko et al. (1997) conducted a research study. This research study compares the students' abilities with their academic achievements. They have decided

to select the sample for their study from all over the United States and South Africa. They have selected one hundred and eighty-nine students. Researchers collected information from these students. These students were selected from all over United States and from South Africa. It was concluded based on results that ways of thinking add meaningfully to abilities in calculating school achievement.

Zhang (2001) has conducted a relational study. The respondents of the study were in-service teachers. Seventy-six in-service educators were selected from the training institutes of Hong Kong. In this study, the researcher tried to explore the relationship between the thinking styles of in-service teachers and teaching approaches. The researcher has used two standardized inventories. The in-service teachers gave their responses related to their ways of thinking and the techniques that they used for teaching. Results of the study reflected that teaching approaches and thinking styles are two overlapping constructs. It was recommended that the difference among approaches and style were not in kind rather, it was in degree. Zhang (2002) conducted another study. The main concern of that research work was to explore the relationship between educational achievements and the ways of thinking of graduates at the university level. The study also explored the relationship among ways of thinking, thinking modes, and academic performance of university students. Students were selected from united state universities. The findings of the study reflected that a holistic way of thinking was connected with a more complex way of thinking. In contrast, the simplistic way of thinking was related to an analytical mode of thinking.

An experiment research study was conducted by Buck (2005). This study was designed to check the relationship using slid viewing method. This technique was used to explore the links between nonverbal receiving abilities and ways of thinking. The

main focus of the researcher was to measure participants' extraversion, rational and experimental thinking styles. It was concluded that they did not relate to nonverbal communication. Nachmias and Shany (2002) conducted research work. This study was designed to evaluate the performance of learners studying in virtual courses. This study measures the connection between pupils' ways of thinking and their performance. The sample of the study was based on one hundred and ten participants. These participants were from grades eight and nine who were enrolled in three months of virtual courses. It was concluded based on findings that learners with liberal or internal thinking styles have better performance than other students in the course. Students with liberal thinking styles have a tendency for activities, projects, and tasks that involve unfamiliar situations and are not bound to follow the existing rules and regulations.

Another research was planned to check the B.Ed. Students' ways of thinking and change in their teaching behavior. It was a rational study. A major concern of that study was to assess the association between prospective educators' thinking styles, critical thinking, and their behavior change. In this study, the researcher selected three thinking styles from self-development theory. He has picked one hundred and seventy-eight pre-service teachers for his study. It was concluded that pre-service teachers having judicial or legislative thinking styles were reflective and analytical, whereas those with executive-style did not accept change easily. They follow the traditional training methods because these individuals are followers and do not want to plan something new. They prefer to be told what to do and give their best to complete their tasks (Yeh, 2002).

Zhang (2004) conducted a research study. This research work was directed to assess the importance of instructors' thinking styles and teaching styles in students'

performance. Debates related to this study focused on the study's contribution to filling the literature gap and adding knowledge about effective educators' characteristics. University of Hong Kong was selected for data collection. In this sample one hundred and twenty one were males and one hundred and thirty four were females. Three standardized tests were used for data collection. results of this research work illustrated that after age, academic discipline, gender were controlled and particular thinking-style given pupils specific teaching style. Analysis of data also reflected that students' thinking styles also have a strong influence on effective teachers.

Hoftman and Novak's (2009) research studies were based on validating new instruments for evaluating empirical and rational task thinking styles. The eventual outcomes of the study demonstrated that task-specific thinking style elucidates a more crucial distinction than dispositional suspecting style in predicting execution. Wang and Lin (2005) studied using agents and simulations to develop suitable thinking styles. The respondents of the study were 149 vocational high school students. This investigation illustrated that it is possible to create and support thinking styles via environmental interaction and internet-mediated simulations. The judicial thinking style was dominant in this system.

Another research study was directed by Echendu (2007). The study focused on two areas thinking styles and cognitive preferences of technical knowledge of workers in the new system. Three hundred and thirty engineers and innovation arranged experts in directorial and center to senior administration positions in South Africa were chosen to test the investigation. Intelligent, critical thinking, conceptualizing, examining, and relational reasoning styles were positioned in the best five, and the positioning of favored reasoning styles for designing and innovating the board in the new worldview.

Another research study conducted by Koa and associates (2007) led an examination out of the educational setting. They considered the impact of global versus local thinking styles on the web, seeking propensities for clients to improve web crawler development. They explored the attributes of global and local thinking-style. Discoveries demonstrated that local scholars center around a point, search for express answers and investigate that subject in detail. At the same time, high global masterminds look for each potential issue related and skim the indexed lists. A study was conducted on the students of the United Arab Emirates. This investigation was started by Albaili (2007). In the United Arab Emirates, another study was initiated. The major objective of that research work was to explore the difference in ways of thinking among high achievers and low achievers students. Thinking styles inventory was used for data collection. Findings of the studies demonstrated that high achiever Arab Emirate graduates scored high on oligarchic, administrative, and liberal ways of thinking. In contrast, low achievers scored high on hierarchic, executive, anarchic, conservative, internal, and local ways of thinking.

It is a rare study where Zhang (2008) contemplated emotions as a measurement in the psychosocial development theory designed by Chickering (1969). Findings of that study designated "thinking styles were related with feelings. He additionally contrasts feelings with age. It was concluded that thinking styles had predictive power for emotion. When the relationship between ways of thinking and the ability to manage emotions is analyzed, Type-1 (authoritative, legal, progressive, worldwide, and liberal) styles are decidedly connected with the capacity to manage feelings.

Furthermore, the external and anarchic thinking styles related to type three are positively associated with the ability to adapt to emotion. The study's findings revealed

that desperation is directly related with-hierarchic thinking style. External thinking style is positively related to joy. Hierarchical-style-yet adversely anticipated by the anarchic style. Anarchic thinking style is negatively related to fascination.

Zhang (2009) conducted another research study. The main concern of that investigation was to discover the links between emotions and ways of thinking among college-level students in China. The researcher had selected two hundred thirty-eight college-level students for his research study. He had used two inventories for data collection. Inventory of thinking style and achievement motives scale. The study's findings reflected that complex and creativity-generating styles certainly related to achievement and motivation.

Chen & Liu (2011) conducted research work. The main focus of that research was to discover the association between teachers' ways of teaching and students' learning styles in online learning in a web-based learning condition. The study also investigates whether the students' reflection level can improve if teachers' teaching style matches with students' style. Two hundred and twenty-three graduate and undergraduate students took an interest in the investigation. The researcher conducted an experimental study. Three teaching strategies, inductive, productive, and controlling, were assessed with three thinking styles: executive, judicial and legislative. These thinking styles are related to functions of thinking. The study's findings illustrated that the reflection dimensions of the fit group had better performance than the non-fit group.

V. John (2011) conducted research work. This investigation was designed to find out the differences in pupils' ways of thinking. Tribal and non-tribal secondary level students were selected as samples for this study. Efforts were also made to determine the association between the learners thinking styles and academic

performance. Mental self-government theory provides a framework for this study. Data was collected by using inventory of thinking style. Thinking styles inventory. Findings of the study reflected that tribal and non-tribal students' ways of thinking were not similar. Tribal students differed significantly from each other. The inferential statistic was used to calculate the results. Results of data analysis reflected that local and hierarchic styles positively related and monarchic, global, anarchic, and legislative negatively contributed to the student's academic achievements.

This investigation was directed by Xie Qiuzhi (2013). Eighty-seven college students in China were selected as representatives. It was concluded that implicit and explicit learning is unique-each affected by various individual contrast factors. Outcomes of this research investigation reflected that the learners' performance in the-explicit learning conditions was positively linked with functions and levels of thinking style and contrarily connected with moderate and external style.

Uygun (2013) conducted a research study. This investigation was designed to determine the relationship between pre-service educators' ways of thinking and their attitudes toward their occupation. The sample of this investigation was based on social sciences students and science education students fall term of 2013-14.academic year. The sample of this study was two hundred and twenty-two students. Adapted thinking style inventory and attitude scale were used. Results of the research work reflected that the prospective educators show positive results in the teaching profession. Results related to gender showed that the attitude of female teachers' was higher than males in all dimensions. Findings of this study reflected that the more preferred styles of the students were executive, hierarchic, and legislative, whereas the most minor preferred thinking styles were conservative and oligarchic.

Kumar (2014) planned a study to explore the difference in administrative, executive, and judgmental thinking of low achieving and high achieving prospective teachers. Five hundred and one students of B.Ed were selected. Data was collected by using Sternberg thinking style inventory. Average and high achieving B.Ed. Outcomes of this research investigation illustrated no similarities in the conviction of educators regarding the about legislate executive and judicial thinking styles of high average and low average prospective teachers. Students' score higher on legislate, judicial, and executive thinking styles as compare-to low-achieving prospective teachers.

Palos (2014) conducted a research study using Sternberg thinking style theory and questionnaire. The sample of this study was five hundred and forty-three Romanian students. The thinking style inventory is a self-reported questionnaire. This was designed to measure the thirteen thinking styles. This questionnaire was used to analyze thirteen different ways of problem-solving and handling the situation. Analysis of data reflected that there were found no similarities in the conviction of students. Results also illustrated that the inventory of thinking styles is valid. It can be used to predict the academic results-specialization of the respondent.

Ghazivakili et al. (2014) designed a research work to explore the links between critical thinking and students' learning methods at Alborz University's department of medical science. Data were obtained by using two inventories, Kolb standardized learning styles inventory and California critical thinking inventory. For data collection, a random sampling technique was applied. The results of the investigation reflected a significant difference in four-learning-style. LS, CT, and AP are sig connected. It was concluded on the basis of findings that teachers should select and use that teaching method and strategies which match students learning styles.

Saleem (2015) designed a study to explore the impact of leadership styles on the occupational satisfaction of the employees in the organization. Data were analyzed by using the quantitative research method. A nonprobability convenient sampling method was used for data collection. It was concluded based on finding that a transformational leader's way of dealing positively affects job satisfaction.

Dilekli (2016) designed a research study. In his study, he explored the relationship between elementary school teachers' ways of thinking, teaching, and self-efficacy. Data were collected from one hundred and three classroom educators. To find the relationship among these constructs, the researcher used inferential statistics. Findings of research work illustrated that a cooperative teaching style is followed by self-efficacy. Findings also indicated that delegator and facilitator teaching styles impact the model. It was also explained that self-efficacy was considered a meaningful construct of thinking practices and teaching styles.

Liliweri (2017) illustrated a study to identify and describe the communication style, thinking style, and learning styles of post-graduate students of Nusa. The study also measures the association among students' communication styles and thinking styles, learning styles, and communication. The quantitative method was applied for data analysis. The target population of this study consisted of 306 students. Two hundred and thirty students were selected as samples for his study. Analysis of data revealed that according to listeners, creators and doers. Findings related to the relationship revealed no significant relationship reflected by three variables-studied, thinking, and learning. Results of the study illustrated that there were found differences in thinking style, learning style, and communication style based on gender.

Shuhua Lei (2018) conducted a study based on thinking styles and communication strategies. The sample of the study was college students. To measure these variables, two structured questionnaires were used. Thinking style inventory of Sternberg and communication strategies inventory. Results of this research work reflected that there was found to be a significant relationship among these variables. The researcher also observed that college students' communication strategies and thinking styles have some significant characteristics. Recommendations were also made to improve college students' speaking ability to college administrators, teachers, and other students.

Apaydin & Cenberci (2018) conducted correlational research. This research study explored the relationship between thinking styles and teaching styles. They have selected eighty prospective teachers. These teachers were from Necmettin Erbakan University. The representatives for the study were selected from the education department. Thinking styles vary from person to person. Innovative teaching styles enhance the quality of education. This innovation is only possible when teachers change their traditional ways of thinking and follow new teaching methods. Three standardized inventories were selected for information collection. Results of the study reflected that an optimistic association existed between both variables.

Zhang & Chen (2018) conducted a study. He designed this study to analyze characteristics of personality and ways of thinking. The results of this investigation were depended on nine hundred and twenty-six students' views. These students' supposition was utilized to gauge basic leadership self-adequacy's thinking styles, personality qualities, and vocation. These studies uncovered that thinking styles only

added to vocation basic leadership self-adequacy past identity qualities. The adaptability of reasoning styles and personality attributes varied.

Minbashian (2019) examined the dimensionality, profile scores, and motivational antecedents of thinking styles of managers from a large organization. The sample of the study was based on two hundred and fifty-six managers. Their mental self-government theory of Sternberg provided a framework for this study. Information was gathered by using the thinking style inventory of the same theory. The findings of the study illustrated the four-factor structure of thinking styles. Managers showed their predilection for type one thinking styles over the type two thinking styles, external style over an internal thinking style, and global style-over local-style

Literature-related thinking style illustrated that numerous research studies were conducted in the related areas. Adjustment, achievement, and other academic problems have been analyzed based on intelligence, ability, creativity, personality, cognitive style etc. In any case, it was discovered that no attempt was made to investigate the constructs of thinking styles and job embeddedness together. Most of the prior studies related to styles were limited to separate elements of cognitive styles, styles of learning styles, and personality styles. It was discovered that there is a need to see university teachers' thinking styles and their level of job-related embeddedness.

## 2.16 The Concept of Job Embeddedness

Mitchell and Lee first presented this concept with the end goal of improving workers' turnover display. Employment embeddedness is a new idea. This idea is based on two dimensions, organization, and community (Mitchell et al., 2001). Job embeddedness is the possibility that speaks to a wide extending of impact on the choice

for a worker to remain in his/her activity. Authors of this theory defined occupational embeddedness as the web which holds an employee in the organization. There are diverse components that influence work embeddedness. These variables include hierarchical responsibility, work fulfillment, individual view of the activity choices, and representatives' goal to leave and remain in the association. Those people who are very implanted have numerous connections with associations and networks. These people are bound to stay installed with association or present place of employment than individuals with fewer associations (Lee, Burch, and Mitchell, 2014). Job embeddedness developed depended on three measurements: link, fit, and sacrifice. These three measurements of job embeddedness fill in as a web in which a person can wind up stuck. If a person's work life and individual life become increasingly perplexing, it is troublesome for a representative to leave the activity. The idea of job embeddedness is further clarified in two different ways. One is on job embeddedness and the second is about off the job. The activity embeddedness alludes to how joined the workers are to the network, or we can say formal and casual. Formal related to association, hands-on associations, and casually related with the network, off the activity associations (Mitchell & Holtom, 2006).

The probability of embeddedness was considered in various specific situations. Analysts have investigated different embeddedness, including authoritative embeddedness or links with the general population of their work spot. The network embeddedness to the territory and people where one lives. The response to why individuals stay may well have been the empty inverse of the purpose behind turnover because they like their activity and have solid connections with individuals on the work spot, and they are fit in that association. Separately answer to why individuals leave

may well have been because they do not care for their occupations and have somewhere else to go. Individuals are unique concerning one another, the same case with relations. Condition of the workplace assumes huge job face to face's modification in the association. Once in a while, the earth of the workplace does not coordinate with the people's thinking styles. So he can only, with significant effort, modify that condition. This might be one of the reasons for leaving work. For instance, an individual having administrative reasoning style cannot effectively alter an association that drives him to execute as an official; it might be troublesome for him to pursue the guidelines structured by the official.

The essential clarifications for staying were elevated amounts of authoritative responsibility, work fulfillment, and occupation association (Holtom et al., 2014). Mitchell and associates concentrated more on relevant impacts that influence remaining. Furthermore, less influence immersed builds duty, association, and fulfillment. Occupation embeddedness speaks to a broad star grouping of impacts on representative maintenance. Job embeddedness is how individuals have connections to other individuals or exercises in association or network. Sacrifice organization means leaving employment positions, partners, and workplace companions. The writer has used three very significant terms to explain the concept. These measurements are fit, links, and sacrifice. These dimensions are equally valuable in organization and community (Holtom et al. 2008).

## 2.17 Theoretical Structure of Job Embeddedness Theory

The idea of occupation embeddedness depicts a person's elements from leaving the workplace. Occupational embeddedness is a broad model of economic, mental, and social effects on workers' retention (Lee et al., 2004). These influences are present in

the organization and outside the worker's workplace or community. Job embeddedness theory contained three estimations; sacrifice, links, and fit. These estimations are further discussed in two sub-measurements, association (at work) and network (of the activity). These measurements are further discussed at work and off the job, workplace contacts, community fit, organizational fit and community fit, sacrifice for organization, and sacrifice for the community (Mitchell et al., 2001). The theory of organizational commitment and job satisfaction are two key theories that paved the way for job embeddedness. The theory of job satisfaction is normally used to analyze voluntary turnover in the organization. Occupational embeddedness theory adds to this construct by introducing a level of satisfaction in an organization and the community. Job embeddedness theory also introduces the concept of links of employees in an organization or off the job in the community. The second concept, organizational commitment, measures the organizational issues in the organization or workplace. The dimension of fit in job embeddedness includes aspects of this theory. Job embeddedness theory added the concept of links and sacrifice. It was evident from the results of both theories that innovative expansion of job embeddedness theory improves the results of workplace commitments and occupational satisfaction.

### 2.17.1 Organizational Links

Links on the job can be defined as financial, psychological, and social connections between the organization and employees. Links to the job mean social connections between an individual and the place where he/she lives. In an organization, connections are considered formal and causal associations between individuals and institutions (Holtom & Lee 2001). Formal links include contacts with colleagues at the workplace or professional relations with people in the organization. These links are

based on social relationships, such as relationships with coworkers, work committees, team members, and supervisors. An individual's connections to people at a workplace increase attachment to that organization. Job satisfaction can also increase links of employees with the organization. In this theory, the more links an individual has to his or her workplace or institution, the more likely he/or she is embedded in that organization.

### 2.17.2 Community Links

Community links (link) are known as (off the job) links. These connections are related to the relatives, family, and family friends of personnel living in the same geographical area. These links are considered social ties an employee has with people who live in the same geographical area (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, et al., 2001). Community links are considered very strong. Workers, close friends, and numerous family members live in the community. Occupational embeddedness theory explains that the links one has with people living in the same geographical area, the harder it will be to give up those links. So sometimes, social links force people to be embedded with their jobs.

### 2.17.3 Organizational Fit

Organizational fit means individual perceived comfort with an organization. Fit to the organization is compatibility between an individual's values, ideas, and plans with organizational values and opportunities. Fit is also a congruence between organizational culture and employee personality (Mitchell et al., 2001). A person who feels more comfortable in the workplace will be more devoted to that organization.

### 2.17.4 Community Fit

Community is the place where a person lives. It is a comfortable place for a person. If a person is fit in that community, he cannot be willing to leave it quickly. Community fit is essential for job embeddedness. It also explained the compatibility between the community and an individual's natural environment and social culture. It also consists of the perception of comfort between a person and her/his community culture, norms, and values. Community fit may increase if the climate and environment of the area supports the outdoor tasks and activities that a person enjoys (Mitchell et al., 2001).

### 2.17.5 Sacrifice for Organization

Sacrifice is the last dimension of occupational embeddedness. It is the observed expenses of leaving an organization, community, or society. These sacrifices include job status, colleagues, and the position in the organization, comfortable place in his/her organization or workplace. It also includes psychosomatic benefits that might be lost by leaving an organization. When s/he change his organization or leave one workplace, he has to give up esteemed work relationship and benefits that the organization offers.

### 2.17.6 Community Sacrifice

Community sacrifice is connected with the community. It is depicted as the apparent sacrifice one must make to leave that geographical area. For instance, if an individual leaves his locale to take a new job in another organization, he needs to sell his home, leave his locale, give up a suitable workplace and lose valued social relationships. So if a representative values these aspects of the community where he lives, he will not think about leaving his job or organization. These features of a person's

on-and off-the-work life structure a logical "web" that makes an individual become embedded with people at the workplace and in the community. Three dimensions of this theory work together to make a dominating gathering of relating forces. These forces strongly influence employees' decision to stay in org (Mitchell, 2001).

## 2.18 Empirical Support for Job Embeddedness

Occupational embed is a concept with the potential for taming employees' understanding of the turnover process (Mitchell et al. (2001). It is an accumulation of social, mental, spiritual, financial, and cultural influences that regulate individual retention. The construct related to employment embeddedness includes at work (fit organization, links with the, and sacrifice for association) and off the job (fit community, joins the network, sacrifice for community). They gathered information from one hundred and seventy-seven representatives in a store and two hundred and eight studies from clinic workers on hierarchical responsibility, the pursuit of employment, work fulfillment, and work elective, notwithstanding work embeddedness. After examination, they have reasoned that activity embeddedness was contrarily related to occupation options and the quest for new employment while decidedly connected with hierarchical responsibility and occupation fulfillment. Lee et al. (2004) conducted a study. They have selected six hundred and thirty-six faculty members as a sample for their study. It was concluded on the bases of findings that community embeddedness anticipated turnover. Embeddedness with organizational predicted organizational citizen behavior, job satisfaction, job performance, and comment. Mitchell (2001) also theorized and found that embeddedness with a job improves the desire for willful turnover beyond that represented by job responsibilities, work fulfillment, the pursuit of employment, and perceived alternatives.

## 2.19 Exploring Family Embeddedness

Literature suggests that family plays a very significant role in a person's life. The attachment to the family strongly impacts the person's choice (Wasti, 2002). Mitchell et al. developed the perception of embedding with two applications: the job and the community. These are the two elements within-which individuals become embedded. Although this is a developing concept, it is very significant for organizational and community embeddedness. The comprehensiveness of this paradigm is an essential step in further research related to culture. Individuals cannot live without their families. Family members of the employees often have an opinion about the organizations in which an individual is working. Their focus is mainly on the remuneration system of the organization. If it fulfills the family's needs, they cannot let an individual leave the organization, and if it is less than their expectation, the family forces the individual to search for a new job (Posthuma & Boomsma, 2005). So family played a significant role in employees' embeddedness with the organization. The concept of family embeddedness is a new contract. This construct was not discussed directly in the occupational embedded model. Whereas in literature, this concept was explained in many studies. These studies explained job-family conflict's impact on employees' behavior and attitudes. A research study conducted in Turkey extended the theory of organizational commitment within a communist culture. Data was collected from Turkish employees. Results of the study illustrated that family opinion is very important for an individual in decision-making (Wasti, 2003). New measurements were made to analyze this construct.

Smith (2006) conducted a research study about family embeddedness. He used a social survey to collect the information. Data analysis revealed that people strongly

rely on family networks compared to non-family Americans. Family is especially vital in multicultural societies, studies conducted in India and United States. These studies recommended that family embeddedness contributes to understanding the concept of turnover (Radhakrishnan & Chan, 1997).

## 2.20 Antecedents for Job Embeddedness

Holtom (2008) conducted a gender-based study. He inferred that ladies have a lower connection with the organization than male employees. Gender plays a significant role in job or occupation embeddedness. The gender difference wiped out highly educated individuals, more youthful representatives posts and those whose mothers are working or professional and those whose mothers had office jobs or worked in a male-dominated work environment. In these conditions, the researcher cannot observe any distinction. The results of various studies indicated that ladies don't have a higher occupation fulfillment. Females who have experience of low-grade employment are satisfied when they achieve higher grade jobs or activities (Clark, 1997).

Clark measured the variable job satisfaction. He considered the contrasts between ladies' and men's activity fulfillment levels. He inferred that women were more fulfilled in their activities than men were. In the modern world, males and females work simultaneously. They get training at a similar dimension; even in some professions, females are highly educated compared to men. Additionally, when taking a women's turnover conduct, females are not quite the same as men, especially those with a secondary school education (Royalty, 1998).

Holtom (2008) conducted gender base study. Results of the study demonstrated that men are more interested in their employment and job-related activities than

females. These outcomes demonstrate that people are not distinctive in the present workplace, yet women have been viewed as less profitable than men ever since the beginning. If we compare the qualification of females with males, we may find that women are more educated than men. In many studies, where females are educated and working in the same organization, there is no difference in their occupational embed. Almost certainly, ladies are starting to see themselves as similarly significant workers contrasted with men; presently, gender orientation contrasts in different fields of life are debilitating.

There are many demographic variables. These variables are commonly discussed in research studies. The age of the employees is the most commonly discussed demographic variable. Griffeth (2000) illustrated that young age workers are more willing to accept job-related challenges and change. Those challenges sometimes do not match their abilities as compared to older employees. Young people accept all types of challenges and wait for an appropriate job. They are more legislative than executive. At the beginning of their career, they are higher risk-takers than older employees. Young people are less committed to their job. Older employees are more embedded in their job than young people because they have strong links with the organization. They are always in search of opportunities. They are more innovative than older employees. Education plays a significant role in a person's life.

Royalty (1998) illustrated that individuals have different opinions about the job. Some people are job seekers, and some have an entrepreneurial mindset. Job-oriented career-mindedness is mainly associated with education level. A career-minded person is highly motivated toward education. Bennett (1998) designed a study to examine the occupational performance of police officers. It was concluded based on the

result that a positive correlation was found between educational level and job performance. These results suggested that highly educated people are more career-oriented and have a high job hierarchy post. These people are less embedded with their job as compared to less qualified people.

The size of the organization is the symbol of its prosperity. There is a signal that few firms do not discover gathering or individual motivating forces significant. The organization's size also strongly affects employees' embeddedness with the organization. Golhar (1994) represented that size of the organization has all the earmarks of being contributing component for representatives, yet a significant relationship was found between organization size and employment fulfillment. Findings of the study uncovered that individuals feel contrastingly relying upon their organization's size. Professional training is another variable. It drives an individual toward flawlessness. People who have invested more energy in their present position are bound to be installed in their activity since they understand this activity. Job experience help employees adjust to the organization. It is a general concept that experience people are more embedded; it does not mean those who have just started their job are not embedded with their current job and company. Experience individuals are considered more embedded with their job and stay longer in the company. Younger people are more legislative. They are more innovative and easily accept change and risks. They are more innovative than older employees (Griffeth et al., 2000).

## 2.21 Increasing Job Embeddedness

Individuals embedded with employment also were embedded in the organization. It is called organizational embeddedness (Mitchell et al., 2001). Individuals who experience low-quality leaders member relationships but a high level

of human resource management practice are more embedded with the organization; for example, employees may fit in the organization. Job embeddedness frequently converts into higher work environment maintenance. It demands various links with colleagues at the workplace and sacrifices his position in the office and job status if they leave that job. In short, they are embedded with the job not org. Occupations are established inside the organizations. Employees who are embedded with their occupation may refuse the promotion if the organization promotes them to other employment (Feldman & Ng, 2007).

Mitchell (2001) conducted research based on community. They further illustrated that employees were interested in jobs utilizing links in professional societies, fit with occupational demands, and sacrificed human capital investment. This study was arranged to check the community power and whether community played any role in individuals' fit, links, and sacrifice for the organization. Community links are assumed to be the predominant variable when leaving employment for substitutions needs geographic movement (Mitchell et al., 2012). HR practices have a significant influence on how to increase employees' job-embeddedness. Individuals who perceive effective human resource management and good leader-member relationships report a higher level of embeddedness with the organization (Wheeler, Harris, and Harvey, 2010). At the same time, individuals who experience lower quality leader-member exchange relationships but a high level of human-resource-management practices are also embedded in their organization (Hom et al., 2009).

Gelfand and Ramesh (2010) conducted a study. That study was built on family embeddedness in an organization and explained the supplementary change in turnover beyond that of organization and community embeddedness. Individuals might

stay in an organization or in a society where they misfit because their family wants that they receive benefits from their employment. In their opinion, families are embedded inside working environments when they positively assess the firm, different representatives and add to work benefits.

## 2.22 Ability to Comply with the Organization Fit

The occupation embeddedness scale states employee contentment with the company in which he is working. An individual's ability to follow the company rules and regulations is characterized in the light of programs to select for future activities and objectives that he wishes to accomplish (Khattak et al., 2012). Personnel's ability to comfort with the organizational environment includes the degree of accessibility towards the significant prerequisites, which empower individuals to perform their functions effectively. Individual decision to leave an organization is not made without any reason, regardless of those necessities related to the individuals, their skills, expertise, ability to analyze and synthesize their knowledge and experience or belong to the-organization-condition, appropriate work situation, for the formation of-individual-responsibilities (Mitchell et al., 2001). The community environment demonstrates a significant component of occupational embeddedness work. Yet, the consequences of numerous past studies indicate the shortcoming of its effect on the dimension of the person's embeddedness inside the organization. The organization's environment plays a significant role in employee retention (Lee et al., 2004).

## 2.23 Organizational Relationships: Links

The second measurement links, links with organization and connections with the community. It is illustrated that demographic elements played an important role in

individuals' ability to have good relations with colleagues and community members. Links demonstrate the dimension of the connection between the representatives to others inside the association. It is described as formal or casual. People of more established age can build up these relations. They can harmonize the diverse factors inside and outside the workplace. Those people with long involvement in the work put those encounters into advancing their organization with others. Afterward, they are more occupation implanted contrasted and new laborers at the organization. Links also play a significant role in several studies; results indicate that a strong relationship with people at the workplace makes individuals more embedded with their job (Harris et al., 2011).

## 2.24 Organizational Sacrifice

It refers to the benefits an individual must surrender if he left that organization, for instance, leaving workplace friends and colleagues, job position, protected community in which one is liked, protected, and regarded. Some argue that it can depend on job embeddedness to assuage undesirable occasions in the workplace. Employees who are accessible have a high level of embeddedness with work and the workplace. They try to improve their skills and efficiency. They deal with the critical situations of the organization. They are satisfied with their performance in the organization. The price of substitute-opportunity that the person will bear since he found work somewhere else, regardless of the current money related expense or ethical cost (Mitchell et al., 2001). The ascent in size of the sacrifice, physical, social, and moral, may be conceived by the person because of leaving the organization or workplace (Reitz & Anderson. 2011).

## 2.25 Job Satisfaction

Employment satisfaction plays a very important role in the workplace. It means employees' satisfaction level in regards to their occupations and work conditions. Satisfied employees are more committed to their organization (Kaplan & Bickes, 2012). Job satisfaction is an enthusiastic reaction identified with workers' sentiments toward their employment. It can be described as a practical full of the feeling case because of assessment of workers claim wok encounters. It may be seen through a person's conduct and reaction to a task. Occupation satisfaction happens when workers endeavor to get prizes that they have faith in or surpass their accomplishments. This concept can be expressed as the degree to which results meet desires. Occupation fulfillment is important to representatives' assumptions regarding work itself (Yang, 2010). It can be illustrated that workers' satisfaction makes them more embedded with the organization. They are more committed professionals. People feel comfortable, relaxed, and satisfied when they evaluate their current workplace environment with the previous workplaces and find it more comfort table (Ko, 2012).

Numerous aspects are directly related to job satisfaction. These aspects can be measured in a good relationship with colleagues, satisfaction with pay, promotion, work relation, managerial style, job structure, job security etc. People's job satisfaction likewise incorporates numerous attitudinal objects with one another. These objectives are important to work itself, colleagues or individuals in a similar organization, career facilities management styles (Çetin & BASIM, 2011). It also involves individuals' variables, values, beliefs, personality traits, competence, gender, age, education, and seniority. Job satisfaction can be measured by using two dimensions, internal satisfaction-and external satisfaction. All those opportunities that employees' can get

in the shape of achievement, ethical values, abilities, etc., are included in internal satisfaction. In contrast, external satisfaction involves job content, salary, work environment, and promotions (Rayton, 2006).

## 2.26 Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is divided into three different constructs. These are very important from the organizational point of view (Ahmed et al., 2014). Commitment to the organization is the belief in organizational values and goals. An individual may be embedded with the organization because the organization's norms, values, and mission match with the employee's values (Liou & Nyhan, 1994). Personnel committed to their organization may agree with the organizational objectives and values. Affective commitment is related to emotional engagement. It is based on employees' links with the organization through their emotions. At the same time, normative commitment is related to an individual's sense of responsibility towards his/her organization. The third dimension of job engagement is continuance commitment. This is also important because it may develop as organization staff identify that they have a collected investment, which may be lost if they leave that workplace (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Different research studies showed that older employees were more loyal to their organization. There may be many explanations for an individual to become committed to his/her organization. Suppose the organization's mission and goals match with the individual's values. In that case, he may have a strong affiliation with the organization and work in the same organization for a more extended period. Another important factor in society, an employee may work for a more extended period because leaving that workplace may impact his/her social network, prestige, and benefits. Some employees

are embedded with their organization because of awareness of their responsibilities. These duties are an emotional, continuation, and normative (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

## 2.27 Causal Indicator Model

Mitchell (2001) applied the idea of a casual indicator construct to measure the extent of job embeddedness. Occupation embeddedness incorporates complete control of an individual. So this is the treason for an individual to stay at his/her present place of employment. Crossley et al. (2007) proposed another measure. The main focus of this decision is that it permits the administration of habitual psychometric tools. They had created a reflective scale. This scale was designed for a global measure of occupational measurement, for example-perception of generally work embeddedness. Crossley et al. (2007) proposed a perceptual approach. They considered this methodology significant. Perceptual estimation of job embeddedness raises three key focuses. The first key factor was constructed on the awareness-based dimension of job embeddedness. This was considered the direction of research. This job embeddedness measurement was considered an ongoing process. The second key point was that occupational embeddedness is inclined to enable job search behavior and workers turnover (Jiang et al., 2012). Overall, this model does not lend itself to reviewing community or administrative embeddedness measurements. Organizational commitment is the idea that individuals can become tangled in their workplace (Feldman, 2009). Employees are embedded with their organization for three reasons: community and organization. Occupational embed gathered such attention in organizational behavior because it denotes a relatively new and valuable theory to help explain how a person's interact with his environment influences the person's attitudes and behavior over time (Lee et al. (2004).

## 2.28 Erosion Model

The erosion model (EM) predicts that individuals who are more central in their workplace communication network are less likely to quit their job due to the information and social benefits that are provided to them by peers in the workplace (Feeley & Barnett, 1997). The erosion model also suggests that network centrality, or the degree to which an individual is at the 'center' of the organization's social structure, produces structural advantages, such as power, support, and assets (Balkundi & Harrison, 2006).

When discussing network centrality, it is important to specify the aspect of network centrality being measured because simply referring to the concept as 'centrality' can be misleading. Three network centrality features are assessed: degree, between, and closeness. The degree is the total number of personnel in direct interaction with the focal employee compared to the entire network. The degree can be further refined into the number of employees who reported a relationship with a focal employee or out-degree, which is the number of employees to whom the focal employee reports (Feeley & Barnett, 1997).

In sum, aspects of network centrality demonstrate mixed relationships between turnover and turnover intent. In- and out-degree centrality demonstrate some promise, with significant negative relationships observed with turnover, but closeness failed to relate to turnover intent. The lack of consistent relationship may be due to Feeley and Barnett's (1997) erosion model focusing strictly on the social configuration of the organization. The measurement of network centrality neglects to measure normative influences at work or an individual's attachment to the organization. Additionally, the

erosion model ignores potential valuable social aspects, including the strength and content of an individual's social relationships (Morrison, 2002).

## 2.29 A Social Network Perspective

Maertz and Griffeth (2004) identified constituent forces (attachments to others in the organization) and normative as two of eight distinct motivational forces that underlie voluntary employee turnover. The former force consists of an employee relationship and attachment to the work place. Reichers (1985) illustrated that individuals are embedded with an organization. They separate from obligation to the organization itself, which is supported by empirical effects on turnover cognitions. Normative services involve an employee's perception of what their colleagues, supervisor and family expect-him/her to do with respect to turnover behavior. Constituent and normative forces that embed employees within their organizations are not directly assessed within the traditional turnover model (Mobley, 1977). However, a social network perspective permits the assessment of the importance of both constituent and normative motives in predicting turnover intent.

This network was based on the social capital theory approach to understanding the importance of social ties. In this view, ties to other people make employees feel more attached to the organization. In other words, interpersonal relationships are assumed to create value for individual employees (Coleman, 1990), such as advancing one's career, increasing performance, and improving tacit knowledge (Seibert & Kraimer, 2001). This view of resource accumulation and preservation is consistent with the Conservation of Resource theory (Hobfoll, 1989). If an individual was to leave his/her job or organization, he/she might no longer have access to their current workplace ties and the social capital embedded within them; thus, creating an

attachment (constituent force) to individuals and the organization. For example, if an individual has a positive mentor relationship with his/her supervisor, that relationship and the resources associated with the mentor relationship would be lost if the individual exited the organization.

## 2.30 Job Embeddedness Construct as a Multidimensional Aggregate

The concept of job embeddedness relatively new. Two ideas help to explain the core of this concept. This concept was derived from previous theories. One is embedded figure and the second is field theory. Job embeddedness make use of the concepts of fields and embedded figures Field theory given by Lewin (1951) and embedded figure by Witkin et al, (1962). These concepts were used to-define the-network of social and professional-administrations that effect an individual's job choices. It is not easy to understand individual's choices. An individual's choices can better understood by analyzing the links within embedded figures collectively rather than in isolation. Job-embeddedness is a multidimensional concept that was discussed concerning community and organization. These dimensions strongly influence a person's decision to stay in the organization. An employee may have a sense of sacrifice, fit, and links (Mitchell et al., 2001).

Field theory anticipates that individuals are tangled in a confounding system of connections. He portrayed individual behavior as an element of the individual and her/his environment. He discussed the entirety of these links as a space of life. It depends on the individual's condition as a result of the physical and social environment. These figures make strong connections. Embedded figures are integrated with the surroundings by establishing strong connections. These connections were very strong. Embedded figures make separating these links difficult for a person (Lewin, 1951). An

individual's social and physical environment creates limits for a person. It limits the person's living space and gives motivations that impact an employee's choices making procedure.

Occupation embeddedness is a total framed from six measurements, organizational (formal) and community (informal) links, fit, and sacrifice. More explicitly, employees' links to other individuals, groups, or teams, individuals apparent fit or comfort relation with their organization and society. Moreover, if they left their present place of employment, determine an establishment level of occupation embeddedness what they would have to sacrifice or surrender. Family links are likewise significant; these links are connected with the community. These associations are excellent. Being embedded does not make an individual purchase a house or-forms links with the workplace and society (Mitchell et al., 2001). They presented the occupational embeddedness paradigm as a force that keeps an individual at work. They tended to three situational measurements, each of which is viewed as both on and off the job. Occupation embeddedness includes workplace embeddedness. The community embeddedness of links fit and sacrifice as indicators of expectation to leave and deliberate turnover. Rather, those activities would make an individual become more embeddedness.

Occupation embeddedness is an aggregation of mental, financial, and social impacts that control employee retention. The more involved individuals become profoundly embedded and absorbed in their environment, there will be numerous solid links. As individuals become involved in the local community, for example, by taking part in professional organizations and social communities, they build connections among these organizations and communities. These connections affect their

considerations and choices. The more significant it is to comprehend and think about their numerous associations is an effort to comprehend their values, convictions, and choices completely.

Two theories that made prepared for occupation embeddedness incorporate professional satisfaction with job and workplace commitment. Job satisfaction is ordinarily used to assess voluntary turnover in the workplace. The legitimate obligation appraises the organization's authoritative issues, which assess how much employees feel a passionate association with their job. The phenomenal alternative work embeddedness adds to this construct is the extent of off-the-job satisfaction. The creative development of occupation embeddedness improved the findings of both authoritative responsibility and work fulfillment. This improvement either encourages' turnover or stops an individual from finding a job somewhere else. Occupation embeddedness would represent an additional change in turnover, well beyond the conventional mediators. A strongly embedded individual is not supposed to find employment elsewhere (Mitchell and Lee, 2001).

## 2.31 Researches on Job Embeddedness

Research studies on occupation embeddedness have explained why employees remain with their organizations. Mitchell and her colleagues (2001) established experiential assistance for the adequacy of occupation embeddedness as the predecessor of intentional turnover. Their research study gathered data from two organizations; they examined employees' aim to leave and actual turnover by estimating job satisfaction, perceived alternatives of employment, organizational commitment, the quest for new employment, and lastly, work embeddedness. They found that each element of both on-and-off the work embeddedness was altogether identified with turnover consequences.

They also explore that work embeddedness was negatively related to deliberate turnover. In their research, they have explained that job embeddedness was found to clarify turnover well beyond the activity choices, work fulfillment, authoritative responsibility, and pursuit of employment. The study's findings uncovered that if an organization holds a person in the organization for a more extended period, they should analyze the situation in both conditions, formal and informal embeddedness. Because if one employee leaves the organization, it means a loss of experience individual.

Instructors' activity fulfillment is identified with the workplace, motivation to work, association to work, and school structure. Occupational satisfaction applied in this study incorporates monetary advantages or compensation, welfare, workplace, work qualities, decision-making, leadership, initiative consideration, relational relationship, and employee satisfaction. The previously mentioned factors illustrated that affecting components of employment satisfaction of staff, educators, and many people comprises individual characteristics and qualities of the workplace and their associations. This investigation likewise uncovered that internal and external environments affect occupational satisfaction components and emotional or social responses. Satisfied employees are assets of any organization. Employment satisfaction is the individual degree of a positive orientation (Chen, 2008). Organizational commitment and job satisfaction have some overlap characteristics with job embeddedness dimensions. Occupation embeddedness is connected with job satisfaction. Satisfied workers have higher aims of remaining with an organization which decreases turnover, the expense of leaving, and employment investment constructs have aspects resembling organizational-related sacrifice (Mobley, 1982). Accordingly, this paper examines the activity fulfillment of the colleges' staff by

methods for investigating the individual and natural elements. Cohen (1995) evaluated connection in the community by getting some data related to their leisure activities, relationship to dogmatic get together, and engagement with many tasks outside the organization. He discovered community involvement was emphatically related to job embeddedness and had a strong relationship with org. This investigation illustrates the significance of non-work links to institutional outcomes. Mitchell et al. (2001) illustrated that measurement, fit to the organization, and occupation embeddedness is related to job satisfaction and institutional commitment.

Saltzstein, G. H. (2001) surveyed government employees. The focus of this survey was to explore the relationship between occupation and family expectations. To find the satisfaction level of employees with the work environment, family needs, and personal needs. The result of the study illustrated some facts related to the policies. If the policies are family-friendly and provide maximum benefits to them, such policies positively affect employee satisfaction. When employees create equilibrium between employment and family responsibilities, they become satisfied. Findings of the studies reflected that satisfied workers are more embedded with the organization. They work hard for the progress of that organization.

Mitchell et al. (2001) designed a research investigation to find the association between job satisfaction and workplace links. The finding of this research work illustrated that nonaffective dimensions of occupation embeddedness were weakly identified with the conventional proportions of employees' attachments. They considered marital status, number of dependents, and homeowner status as non-affective dimensions. Further examination of the two examples found negative links between willfully leaving and occupation embeddedness. Mitchell et al. (2001) also

noted that employment embeddedness significantly improved turnover expectations in the medical clinic test. The study findings gave starting help to occupational embeddedness as a construct. This construct represented additional turnover related to occupational contentment and organizational commitment dimensions.

Friedman and Holtom (2002) directed a research project to determine the characteristics of employees who are more embedded with the organization. Results of the study reflected that personnel who had accommodated with one of the organization's systems would undoubtedly be embedded with the organization and stay with the organization for a more extended period.

Lee et al. (2004) conducted a study on the same topic. This investigation illustrated occupational embeddedness within the community and inside the organization. Information for this investigation was collected from a large regional service center. The findings of this study supported previous findings. They illustrated that overall occupational embeddedness was related to turnover. When the organizational responsibilities and job satisfaction were statistically controlled, the community embeddedness was not about to turn over and was wholly related to workplace embeddedness (Lee et al., 2004). The association was more grounded for higher levels of at-work embeddedness. The study's findings supported the job embeddedness construct's capacity to represent additional-voluntary turnover.

Setton and Henagan (2005) conducted a research study. That study concentrated on the social part of employees' decision to resign or leave their current job and organization. Information was gathered from the employees of different organizations. The focus was on those links that an individual had with others in the organization. Findings of the study reflected that solid links with other people within the organization

were essentially related to bringing down the employee turnover above employment satisfaction.

Mitchell and Lee (2001) indicated that community links are significant for the individual if he has a life partner and kids. Family makes a person more embedded with the community. An employee is progressively embedded in the system because of the partner's movement in a comparable district and the kids' school in the same community. Another study illustrated the importance of these family and community links in the same way. They moreover found that the number of kids was insistently related to improved maintenance (Lee & Maurer, 1999).

Family makes individuals increasingly installed with the community. Another research study, occupation embeddedness, has anticipated other worker practices, such as innovation-related conduct and organizational citizenship practices. This topic is unique in literature, as no research investigation was designed to explore the association between occupational embeddedness and contentment. The preliminary determination behind this investigation was to fill the literature gap and increase the body of knowledge in the existing field. The study finds the connection between occupational embeddedness and three components of job satisfaction. Given two hundred and thirteen members, the investigation results demonstrated that the-organizational embeddedness was decidedly identified with work commitment. Likewise, the community embeddedness of an individual was identified with work commitment. These studies add to the utility of job embeddedness while foreseeing worker practices, for example, work commitment. The findings recommended that individuals leave their professions for different reasons and means, not quite the same as the traditional turnover theory. Job satisfaction plays a significant role in an individual’s job

commitments. Researchers have focused on perceived choices and dissatisfaction as the leading cause of turnover (Mitchell & Lee, 2001).

In recent time researches on occupational embeddedness has been expanded. Lee (2004) directed a study; the focus of that study was to analyze additional workplace results of embedded workforces. Findings of the study reflected that the workers embedded at work showed higher job performance and the additional job of OCB presentation because this personnel is publicly entangled with their organization. These individuals are the essence of the organization. They collaborate with coworkers and show their full cooperation in organizational projects. The study also discovered that after monitoring for occupational satisfaction and workplace compulsion, community embeddedness anticipated absences and resulting turnover. The study results demonstrated that numerous occupational embeddedness stretched out withholding employees in the organization, performance at the workplace, participation, and organizational citizenship behavior.

Cho & Ryu (2009) conducted a research study on a culturally diverse exertion to extend job embeddedness tried to reproduce Lee and partners' research work (2004) by analyzing the relation of organizational citizenship behavior with occupational embeddedness and presentation of work among the personnel of Korean. Findings of the investigation reflected that organizational connections, organizational fil, and sacrifice would be identified with organizational citizenship behavior; they also contended that organizational citizenship conduct ought to encourage the connection between at work-embeddedness and employment performance. Results of the study also revealed that at work embeddedness would prompt organizational citizenship conduct, which thus, would increase higher quality occupation performance. The study

reflected that organizational links, sacrifice, and fit were emphatically related to organizational citizenship conduct. Results also indicated that organizational citizenship behavior interceded the connection between occupation performance and work embeddedness.

Ng and Feldman (2010) conducted a research study about occupational embeddedness. Researchers analyzed the effects of occupational embed on-revolutionary behavior of employees. They analyzed three types of development-related practices:

(a) Sharing innovative thoughts with colleagues and managers

(b) Generating new thoughts and spreading advancement to the organization.

(c) Implement those innovations themselves and encourage other employees to do so. They found that job embeddedness was emphatically identified with development-related practices. It was concluded that embedded workers were motivated to push ahead of the organizational benefits and initiate new ideas for the development of the workplace.

Occupation embeddedness is a possible impact despite adverse shocks to a work environment and encourages a deeper integration into the organization. The study by Burton et al. (2010) finds that people who are highly embedded in their positions, when looked at with adverse shocks, rather than leaving, really turned out to be more put resources into their organization. It is clear that highly embedded representatives don't take out, yet rather work more diligently to benefit the overall organization through the planned improvement of their efforts and performance.

Research focusing on different organizations does not indicate steady outcomes due to the ventures' various qualities and workforce. Organizations that can effectively hold their human resource have a preferred position over organizations that cannot. Despite individual industries, the turnover of representatives' makes it difficult to protect a workforce and costs organizations huge to recruit, contact and train new staff. This study investigates the impacts of occupation embeddedness and works satisfaction on turnover intentions, focusing on small and medium construction workers from information and technology departments. This study explained that three hypotheses are supported or accepted: higher professional satisfaction and higher job satisfaction as a researcher had designed five hypotheses for this study. Two hypotheses are rejected (Jung & Koh, 2012).

Fan, L., & Liu, Y. (2013) conducted a research study in China. In that study they illustrated high turnover of nursing staff in china. The turnover problem in nursing healthcare was a recurring problem in China and many other countries. This becomes a common problem not only for clients but also for human resource managers. That was a difficult task to handle in public health centers. Literature related-turnover also focused on this topic. Different studies were conducted on such traditional measures. Findings show that employees are not embedded with their job because they are not satisfied with the terms and conditions provided by organizations. A cross-sectional survey method and a self-reported questionnaire were used. One thousand nursing staff was selected from five government hospitals in China. This research work revealed a positive correlation between the quality of work-life and job embeddedness. Negative correlations were found between quality of work and turn-over-retention. Satisfied

employees are more embedded with their occupation and org. Their quality of work increases if they are satisfied.

Karatepe, O. M. (2013) designed a research work to examine emotional fatigue as a facilitator of the effects of family conflicts, work burden, and work conflicts of work overload on organizational embeddedness and performance of the workers at the workplace. Information was collected from the 110 full-time employees working in the hotel and their managers in Romania. This investigation revealed that emotional fatigue functions as a mediator of all conflicts mentioned above on the job. Employees who have heavy workloads cannot justify their family responsibilities and are emotionally exhausted. These employees are less embedded or committed to their job and demonstrate poor performance in the organization.

Bambacas and Kulik (2013) led an investigation on human resource practice embedded employees-in an organization. Researchers explore the intervening impact of organizational occupational embeddedness measurements in connecting human resource performances and employees' intention towards turnover. Data was collected from three hundred and eight expert staff members in China. Staff in China. Results of the study showed that organizational rewards increased intentions related to turnover. The results also propose that organizational planning to utilize human-resource practices discourages employees' turnover intention. They may get the achievement by introducing a reward system in the organization. As rewards always enhance the positive response of the person. So it was recommended that a reward system increase perceptions of organizational fit.

Molen, H. T. (2016) directed research to explore the intervening influence of at work embeddedness on the connection between trust in managers and turnover. Data

were collected from four hundred and seventy-one workers of a café-Indonesia chain. Results demonstrated that occupational embed intervened in the association between trust in administrator-and turnover goals. The outcomes affirmed that the trustworthiness of the supervisor influences the nature of the connections among bosses and employees. Hence, a low level of trust must be tended to as quickly as time permits to maintain a healthy environment where employees can build up their job embeddedness.

Morote, E. S., & Perry, S. M. (2016) researched to explore the difference in personnel level of happiness and their insight related to organizational culture, job-embeddedness, and occupational commitment at the university level. The study sample consisted of 59 administrators, workers, and leaders. Analysis of data regarding these variables illustrated three main variables, job embeddedness, organizational culture, and commitment to the job. The findings of this investigation reflected a difference in opinion of happy or satisfied and non-happy employees about job-embeddedness, organizational culture, and job commitment. Though, no difference was found between being happy at work in the organization and not happy at work regarding job commitments. This study is significant because it is additional empirical research on employees' job satisfaction in higher education.

Candan (2016) directed a research work to determine the association among three variables. The sample of the study was university employees working in Turkey. Data were obtained from one hundred and twenty academicians. Data analysis revealed that employees' job embeddedness was higher than middle performance as higher, and burnout was lower. It was concluded that the personnel who have child show-higher-level of organizational sacrifice than those who have no children. In the same case with

community embeddedness, workers who are homeowners or have personal property in the same area showed high-level of community sacrifice than those employees who do not have any personal property in that area.

Olaniyan & Hystad S. W. (2016) led an examination to explore the effects of the legislative or authoritative manager on employees' job satisfaction, mental capital, work uncertainty, and their intention to leave the organization. Data were conducted from an offshore organization. Finding demonstrated that workers who observed their supervisor or manager as legislative or authentic reported being more satisfied. They have less occupation uncertainty and purposes to leave the organization. Based on findings, it was concluded that an indirect impact of authoritative administration was positive on job embeddedness. The study's findings also recommended that organizations concentrate on an authentic leader's qualities at the time of recruitment and training.

Ampofo et al. (2017) designed a research work to discover the connection between business embeddedness and the life preference of personnel at work place and community embeddedness. Four business centers in South Africa were selected. Five hundred and forty-nine employees were selected from these centers as a sample of this study. Results of the research work illustrated that a positive relationship was found between job embeddedness and life satisfaction. Sub-dimensions showed that sacrifice and fit in the organization were positively related to a satisfying life. Concerning the embedded with community, the fit was positively correlated to the life-satisfaction.

Erkutlu, H., & Chafra, J. (2017) designed a research investigation. This work was directed to discover the association between authentic leadership and occupation-related embeddedness and the role of psychological ownership in higher education.

Faculty members and deans of thirteen universities of Istanbul, Ankara, Kayseri, Bursa, Samsun, and Gaziantep during the 2013 and 2 014 spring semesters were the samples of this study. Osowski, C. D. (2018) had designed a non-experimental research study to investigate two dimensions of job embeddedness. One dimension was related to organization and the other to community embeddedness. Researchers also tried to determine the effects of these dimensions on math teachers' turnover intention. The theory of job embeddedness provided the theoretical framework for this study. A quantitative research design was used in that study. Teachers' turnover is the biggest problem for any institution. This showed a negative effect on students' academic performance. One hundred and fifty-two high school mathematics teachers from seventeen countries of-western U.S states. A job embeddedness questionnaire was used to conduct the demographic survey. The findings of this investigation illustrated an optimistic connection between turnover retention and community embeddedness. These results may help policymakers and educational administrators develop strategies and programs for promoting the retention of mathematics teachers.

Watson, J. M. (2018) conducted a research study. This study was designed to regulate whether job embeddedness is related to turnover. Job embeddedness theory was used in this research. This theory provided a framework for this study. One hundred forty-three educators were selected from three schools in Central California. The study's findings reflected a positive correlation between retention and occupational commitments. It was concluded based on results that occupational commitment is related to novice teachers' retention.

Siddiqui, S. H., and Farrukh, M. (2018) conducted a study. This investigation explores the significance of high-performance work practices on employees'

innovative, imaginative conduct through the intervening role of job embeddedness of front-line service employees' cutting-edge administration representatives in Pakistan. Information was gathered from FL Service. Representatives are working in top-class hotels of the country in two waves, about fourteen days' time slack. The supposition and relationship were evaluated. It was concluded based on results that professional commitments mediate the association between high-performance job practices and innovative personnel behavior. Front line employees in high-performance work practices display high job embeddedness. They show creative practices at work. The findings of this study are probably going to guide administration firms on the effect of management improving HR practices on job embeddedness.

Oladeji & Ayinde (2018) conducted a research study. Information for this study was gathered from workers in four purposively chosen provincial workplaces. Primary data were utilized in this investigation. This study was based on personality traits and leadership styles. Researchers tried to discover the influence of these two variables on job embeddedness. He examined the degree to which these two variables independently and jointly predict employees' job embeddedness. Data was collected through the multi-stage technique of sampling. A propionate sampling procedure was used to select individuals. Two hundred and sixty members were selected for data collection. One hundred and sixty-seven were males, and ninety-four were female. The age of the members went from 30 to 50 years. Three-standardized psychological scales were used for information collection. Multiple regression was used for data analysis. This research work reflected that personality traits and leadership styles significantly predicted job embeddedness among employees.

## 2.32 Summary

The review of related literature is challenging, calling for deep understanding to provide an unambiguous perspective of the broad field of study. The purpose of reviewing the literature is to envelop and organize the information, to indicate that the present research work would be an addition to a particular field. This chapter emphasizes the concept of thinking styles and job embeddedness. Different thinking styles, models, and theories, along with a particular focus on mental self-government theory and theory of job embeddedness, are presented in this chapter. Although job embeddedness is a new construct, it is essential for employees and organizations. If employees are not embedded with their organization, that organization cannot make progress. The higher authority of the organization cannot initiate any new policies or programs because of this problem. They waste their resources on hiring and training new employees. As occupational embed is a new paradigm, to understand this new concept, many research studies related to this concept and other related concepts like job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and job engagement are also discussed in this chapter. Literature-related thinking styles and job embeddedness is presented in the same chapter. The next chapter will be based on research methodology.

# CHAPTER 3

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study aimed to compare university-level teachers' thinking styles and job embeddedness and determine the differences and similarities between government and private university teachers' opinions. The foremost motive of this study was to make the demographic comparison of gender, sector (government, private), qualification, experience, and departments regarding thinking styles and job embeddedness of university teachers. Two theories were used in this study. Mental self-government theory by Sternberg (2007) and Mitchel et al. (2002) job embeddedness. For data collection, two structured questionnaires were used. This chapter explains the research methodology which was followed to conduct this study.

### 3.1 Research Approach

A quantitative research approach was used in this study. This approach is involved in the descriptive interpretation of numerical data for the results. Quantitative research deals with logic and focuses on numeric and more precise and tangible results. More generalizable figures can be acquired (Easterday & Garber, 2014).

### 3.2 Research Design

It is an action plan for giving way to the researcher. Research design is the actual procedure involved in collecting and analyzing information using statistical techniques and report writing (Trotter, 2012). This research work is comparative and descriptive. In descriptive research, the design researcher collects the facts based on the existing

situation of the issue (Creswell, 2003). This study comparatively analyzed instructors' thinking styles and job embeddedness in both sector universities of Islamabad. Information gathered from the participants changed over into a numeric structure. SPSS was used to process data, oversee specific factual applications for arriving at the resolution, and manage through specific statistical applications to conclude.

## 3.3 Instruments of the Study

The use of any instrument depends upon the nature of the study. A survey as a research method was used in this investigation. A generally structured questionnaire was required for this method. A properly constructed questionnaire plays a significant role in achieving the research objectives. Two separate inventories were used for data collection; one was related to thinking styles. This instrument was developed by Sternberg in 1997 and revise it in 2007 (Sternberg, R.J., Wagner, R.K., & Zhang, L.F., 2007). The second questionnaire was related to job embeddedness (Michell & Lee, 2001). These standardized questionnaires were online available, but the researcher took proper permission from the original authors through email because these questionnaires were adapted and modified in the context of Pakistan.

### 3.3.1 Depiction of Thinking Style Questionnaire

There are five dimensions in mental self-development theory. Thirteen thinking styles were discussed under these dimensions. These measurements are functions-forms-levels-scope and learnings (Kao et al., 2007; Zhang & Sternberg, 2009). The participants were requested to mark each item on five points Likert scale. Instructions were written on the questionnaire. A questionnaire was divided into two parts. The first part was based on demographic variables, gender, sector (government, private),

qualification, experience, and departments, and the second part was based on research inventory.

**Table 3.1**

*Description of subscales and items of thinking styles questionnaires*

| S. No. | Subscales | Items numbers | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Legislative thinking style | 2, 5, 20, 36 | 4 |
| 2. | Executive thinking style | 3, 4, 19, 27 | 4 |
| 3. | Judicial thinking style | 12, 30, 38, 44 | 4 |
| 4. | Monarchic thinking style | 31, 37, 41, 47 | 4 |
| 5. | Hierarchical thinking style | 9, 21, 14, 43 | 4 |
| 6. | Oligarchic thinking style | 17, 18, 39, 46 | 4 |
| 7. | Anarchic thinking style | 10, 23, 28, 34 | 4 |
| 8. | Global thinking style | 8, 26, 35, 48 | 4 |
| 9. | Local thinking style | 1, 13, 32, 49 | 4 |
| 10. | External thinking style | 7, 22, 29, 33 | 4 |
| 11. | Internal thinking style | 6, 25, 42, 50 | 4 |
| 12. | Liberal thinking style | 40, 45, 51, 52 | 4 |
| 13. | Conservative thinking style | 11, 15, 16, 24 | 4 |

## 3.3.2 Depiction of Job Embeddedness Questionnaire

This inventory was designed to measure the individual preferences related to organization and community. This concept was illustrated by focusing on formal and informal ways of embeddedness. Formal ways are associated with the organization and informal with comity. Embedded elements are also explained using three main dimensions, connection, fit, and sacrifice of this theory (Mitchell et al., 2001). On the occupational embedded means embedded with an organization where the individual is working, off the job means embedded with an area or place where the employee is

living. The occupational embeddedness questionnaire consists of six different dimensions. These measurements are fit, links, and sacrifice for the workplace and community links, fit and sacrifice.

**Table 3.2**

*Description of subscales and items of job embeddedness questionnaires*

| S. No. | Items | Items numbers | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Organizational links | 1,2,3 | 3 |
| 2. | Community links | 4,5,6 | 3 |
| 3. | Organizational fit | 7,8,9 | 3 |
| 4. | Community fit | 10,11,12 | 3 |
| 5. | Organizational sacrifice | 13,14,15 | 3 |
| 6. | Community sacrifice | 16,17,18 | 3 |

## 3.4 Validation

The usual way to assess an instrument's quality is by consulting experts, which fundamentally consists of evaluating an instrument using a process known as expert judgment (Sireci, 1998 as cited Martin Salvador Fernandez Gomez, Sanchez Ojeda, Luque vara, & Enrique Miron, 2020). Evaluating through expert judgment consists of asking several expert individuals' to make a judgment on an instrument (Balderrama & Edel Navarro, 2017). The experts checked the content validity of both questionnaires regarding validity as a researcher has used standardized questionnaires. Experts have checked both questionnaires in the context of Pakistan. They gave some valuable suggestions regarding its improvement. After following the suggestions and recommendations of experts, both tools were finalized for data collection. The finalized

inventories were applied to the sample of the study. These inventories are standardized. In order to check reliability, inventories were applied to a small sample of hundred university-level educators. Pilot testing was conducted for the sake of reliability.

## 3.5 Pilot Testing

The reliability of both questionnaires was tested with pilot testing. The fortitude of pilot testing was to refine the questionnaires for more accurate responses. A pilot study of the questionnaires was done in two universities, one from the public (COMSATS University Islamabad) and one from the private sector (Ripha International University city campus sector G-7 Islamabad). These universities were not included in the final data collection. A hundred teachers were selected as a sample from both sector universities. The researcher personally visited the selected universities. Teachers were randomly selected from two universities. The opinions obtained from respondents were incorporated into the questionnaires. A questionnaire regarding thinking style contained sixty-five items, but thirteen items that were related to different sub-factors of thinking styles had low reliability; due to this reason, the reliability value of other sub-factors of thinking styles was affected. So, the researcher excluded those thirteen items from questionnaires of thinking styles. Finally, the questionnaire regarding thinking styles contained fifty-two (52) items. The Cronbach's alpha was applied to check total scale reliability.

### 3.5.1 Scales Reliability

The results of the reliability test are discussed in the following paragraph.

**Alpha Reliability of Thinking Styles Scale**

It was regarded as the most recommended statistical measure of internal consistency and provided better reliable answers in most situations. Thinking style inventory was based on five dimensions. Thirteen thinking styles were discussed under these five dimensions.

**Table 3.3**

*Reliability statistics of subscales of thinking styles*

| Thinking-styles | Items | Cronbach's Alpha |
|---|---|---|
| Legislative way of thinking | 4 | .810 |
| Executive way of thinking- | 4 | .722 |
| Judicial way thinking | 4 | .727 |
| Global way thinking | 4 | .749 |
| Local way thinking | 4 | .727 |
| Liberal way thinking | 4 | .899 |
| Conservative way thinking | 4 | .828 |
| Hierarchical way thinking | 4 | .819 |
| Monarchic way-thinking | 4 | .859 |
| Oligarchic-way-thinking | 4 | .857 |
| Anarchic-way-thinking | 4 | .846 |
| Internal-way-thinking | 4 | .870 |
| External way-thinking | 4 | .858 |

Table 3.3 shows reliability analysis of sub scales of thinking styles questionnaire. It demonstrates the Cronbach Alpha reliability of thinking styles scale.

## 3.5.2 Reliability of Job Embeddedness Questionnaire

Cronbach Alpha was used to measure the reliability. It was used to measure the internal consistency and provide better reliable answer in most situations. Job

embeddedness inventory was used to get the opinion of university teachers. This scale was based of six different dimensions.

**Table 3.4**

*Reliability statistics of job embeddedness questionnaire*

| Job embeddedness / its dimensions | Items | Cronbach's Alpha |
|---|---|---|
| Organizational links | 3 | .818 |
| Community links | 3 | .820 |
| Organizational fit | 3 | .751 |
| Community fit | 3 | .878 |
| Organizational sacrifice | 3 | .646 |
| Community sacrifice | 3 | .787 |
| Total | 18 | .900 |

Table 3.2 illustrates the Cronbach-Alpha for subscales of the job-embeddedness questionnaire. It shows high consistency with (.900) Cronbach Alpha.

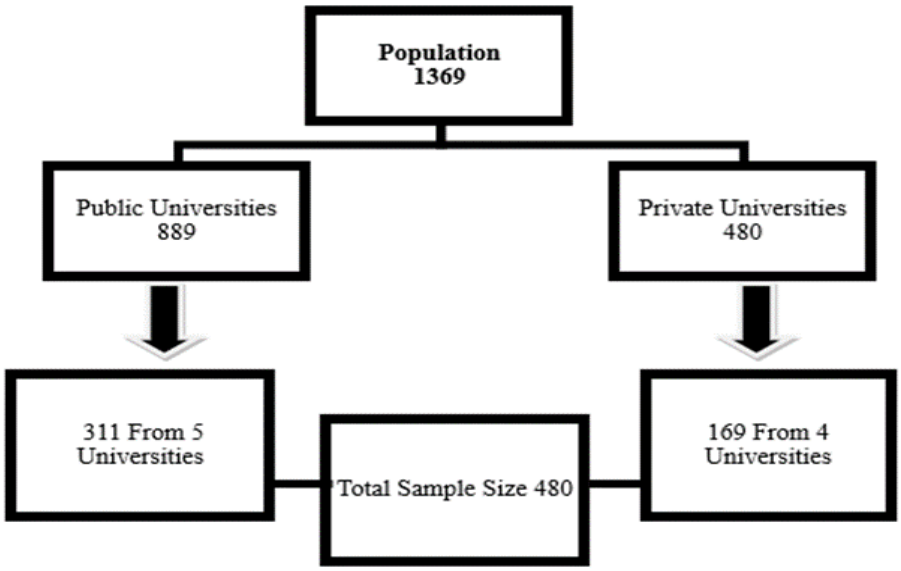
## 3.6 Population of the Study

The target population is the group of people with some common characteristics (Creswell, 2012). There are twenty-one federal universities in Islamabad, out of which fifteen are public, and six are private universities. Five public and four private sector universities were selected for the current study. Universities were selected based on four common departments. So, the target population of this research work was teachers serving in the management sciences, computer sciences, Social Sciences, and Engineering departments of the selected universities. The target population comprised

1369 faculty members. The researcher assembled comprehensive data of these public and private universities through universities websites, higher education commission websites, and personal visits to the main campuses.

**Figure 3.1**

*Population and sample*




## 3.7 Sample

The sample is the sub-group of the target population that the researcher plans to study. In an ideal situation, the researcher carefully chooses a sample of individuals who represent the entire population. It is a subclass of the population that has been designated and covered the features of the whole population. Findings based on collected data from the representative sample can be generalized successfully to the entire population (Creswell & Meissner, 2012).

### 3.7.1 Sampling Technique

Govt and private university teachers took as a sample through a proportionate stratified random sampling technique. In this technique, the sample size of each stratum is proportionate to the population size of the stratum when viewed against the entire population. Each division has the same sampling portion (Creswell, 2003).

### 3.7.2 Sample Size of the Study

The current study encompassed 1369 faculty members. These faculty members taught in selected departments of five government and four private universities in Islamabad. Among them, three hundred and eleven (311) faculty members were from government sector universities, and one hundred and sixty-nine (169) were from private universities. Faculty members in the public and private sectors were not in equal numbers. So proportionate-stratified-random-sampling-technique was used to maintain the balance between the samples. A total of four hundred and eighty (480) university teachers were selected from the target population, which-include two hundred and six (206) male and two hundred and seventy-four (274) female teachers (Cohen et al., 2007, p.104).

**Table. 3.5**

*Detailed Information about the Sample Size of the Present Study*

| Universities Name | Total Faculty | Sample |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Bahria University | 178 | 62 |
| 2. Air University | 126 | 44 |
| 3. NUST | 170 | 60 |
| 4. NUML | 170 | 60 |
| 5. International Islamic University | 245 | 85 |
| 6. Ripha International University | 135 | 48 |
| 7. Iqra University | 135 | 48 |
| 8. CUST | 89 | 31 |
| 9. FAST | 121 | 42 |
| Total | 1369 | 480 |

## 3.8 Demographics of the Study

Demographics of this study were based on gender, universities, departments of the study, academic qualification of the educators, and their teaching experience. Gender refers to the sex of the respondents of the study. Universities refer to the public and private sector universities selected by the researcher for this research work. The researcher has selected four departments from each university. The academic qualification of the respondents was from master's to Ph.D. Educators were given a

choice to select the relevant option related to their qualifications and teaching experience.

## 3.9 Data Collection

The administration of questionnaires was not an easy task. The first researcher obtained an official letter from the department. The researcher had applied to the heads/Deans of the concerned departments of govt and non-govt universities to obtain permission. Permission was required for data collection. The researcher has visited all the selected universities and disseminated questionnaires with the help of heads of concerning departments. All instructions were given on the questionnaire. The time limit was not specified for completing the task, but respondents were requested to complete it within 40-45 minutes. Response choices for each item appear in front of each item with-number 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 in the boxes. The options mentioned in the questionnaire were mostly true to never true.

## 3.10 Data Analysis

Data were collected by using two separate inventories. One inventory was related to ways of thinking, and the other was related to job embeddedness. These research tools were analyzed in light of research objectives and hypotheses. Different statistic tools were applied for data analysis. Inferential and descriptive techniques like Cronbach's Alpha, frequency distribution, mean differences, t-test, and Pearson correlation were applied. The results obtained through these tests have been presented in chapter four. The data were calculated and inferred in light of the objectives of the present investigation. The reliability of questionnaires was measured through Cronbach

Alpha. The following table explains the detail of the research hypothesis and the statistical techniques that were used to measure this hypothesis.

## 3.11 Ethical consideration

Ethics are said to be a branch of philosophy. This branch enables the researcher to understand the difference between right and wrong. It is required to be considered ethics because it certifies the confidentiality of the respondents (Marina, 2011). Ethics and etiquettes are always very significant in research work. Research ethics are the basic rules that a researcher has to follow. This research was conducted by taking into account all ethical considerations Researcher has taken proper permission from the concerned universities. Inventory was applied to those university teachers who were willing to respond. In the data collection process, respondents were provided information provided by university teachers. Respondents were told that data would never be used for any other purpose than this research.

## 3.12 Summary

This chapter was designed to explain the procedures and methods of research work and the research design of the present investigation. The chapter under discussion conveys comprehensive information regarding the study procedure, e.g., information about the target population sample and sampling procedure. Findings of the pilot study were also discussed in this chapter. All details related to data, collection of data, and data analysis were discussed in the same chapter.-Ethical considerations of the study were also discussed. Data analysis and results are debated in chapter four.

# CHAPTER 4

## ANALYSIS OF DATA AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter describes the analysis and interpretation of data. The determination behind this study was to compare thinking styles with job embeddedness and find out the significant difference at the 0.05 level. This research is descriptive and comparative in which a quantitative approach was used. Gender differences in organizations have attracted significant research interest. This study examines the influence of different demographic variables such as university location (government and private), gender, department, qualification, and experience of teachers thinking styles and level of job embeddedness. Two instruments were used for data collection. They were thinking styles inventory-based-on-Sternberg's (2007) theory of mental self-government. In this theory, 13-thinking styles fall under the five dimensions. The second scale was based on job embeddedness theory. This theory was introduced-by-Mitchell et al. (2001). They offered a method of discovering why people stay in an organization. This information was collected from four hundred and eighty respondents working in selected government and non-government universities. Various statistical tools, such as mean-differences, percentages, frequency-distribution, t-test, and analysis of variance (ANOVA), were used to analyze collected data. This chapter contains two sections. Demographic information of the sample and analysis of both questionnaires were presented in section one. It also showed descriptive statistics applied to achieve the first and second objectives of the study. Section two portrays the testing of null hypotheses based on objective numbers three, four, five, six, seven, and eight of the study. Data were analyzed using SPSS and presented in the form of tables.

# Section 1

## 4.1 Demographic Variables

**Table 4.1**

*Sector wise-distribution*

| Universities | F | P | Cumulative Percent |
|---|---|---|---|
| Public | 311 | 64.8 % | 64.8 |
| Private | 169 | 35.2 % | 100.0 |
| | 480 | 100 % | |

Table 4.1 illustrates the detail of the sample for the current study. There were 311 employees from government sector universities and 169 faculty members from private universities in Islamabad. A total of 480 faculty members were carefully chosen for investigation.

**Table 4.2**

*Information based on gender*

| G | -F | % | Cumulative Percent |
|---|---|---|---|
| Male Teachers | 206 | 42.9 | 42.9 |
| Female Teachers | 274 | 57.1 | 100.0 |
| Total | 480- | 100- | |

A total 480 teachers were carefully chosen for the current study from public and private universities. Among them two hundred and six were males and two hundred

and seventy four female faculty members were selected. Table 4.2 describes the dissemination of educators based on gender.

**Table 4.3**

*Departments*

| Departments wise faculty in sample universities | Faculty | Sample |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Social Sciences | 337 | 119 |
| 2. Management Sciences | 372 | 130 |
| 3. Computer Sciences | 347 | 121 |
| 4. Electrical Engineering | 313 | 110 |
| Total | 1369 | 480 |

Table 4.3 presents the number of teachers in selected departments. 35% of the total population was selected as a sample from each department. Above mentioned departments were selected from each university.

**Table 4.4**

*Information about faculty members' qualification*

| Q | F | % | Cumulative Percent |
|---|---|---|---|
| M.A. | 60 | 12.5 | 12.5 |
| M.Phil. | 310 | 64.6 | 77.1 |
| Ph.D. | 110 | 22.9 | 100.0 |
| | 480 | 100 | |

Table 4.4 present the picture of the sample respondents. One hundred and ten (110) university teachers had done Ph.D. degrees, three hundred and ten (310) university teachers had MPhil degrees, and only sixty (60) teachers had master's degrees.

**Table 4.5**

*Experience of University Teachers*

| Experience- | F | P | Cumulative Percent |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 143 | 29.8 | 29.8 |
| 6-10 | 130 | 27.1 | 56.9 |
| 11-15 | 146 | 30.4 | 87.3 |
| above 15 | 61 | 12.7 | 100.0 |
| Total | 480 | 100- | |

The above table reflects that 29.8-percent of respondents had been teaching from one to five years, 27.1 percent from six to ten years, 30.4 percent of teachers had been teaching from eleven to fifteen years, and only 12.7 percent of teachers had been teaching above fifteen years.

## 4.2 Frequency tables of thinking styles questionnaire

Frequency tables were designed to observe the frequency of teachers' responses at the university level. These tables present the information about the thinking style inventory. In this inventory, fifty-two items are included. Every item is analyzed in a separate table.

**Table 4.6**

*Statement number one, Local thinking style*

| - | -Frequency | Percentage- |
|---|---|---|
| M-true | 143 | 29.8 |
| U-true | 134 | 27.9 |
| O-true | 97 | 20.2 |
| Occ-true | 85 | 17.7 |
| N- true | 21 | 4.4 |
| Total | 480 | 100- |

Table 4.6 above reflects the opinion of faculty members about local thinking styles. 29.8% of teachers have carefully chosen mostly true for the statement 'while writing on the topic, in my opinion, facts and the details of those facts are more important than the whole scenario.' Only 21 faculty members selected the option n-true.

**Table. 4.7**

*Statement number two, Legislative thinking style*

| | Frequency | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| M-true | 105 | 21.9 |
| U-true | 162 | 33.8 |
| O-true | 124 | 25.8 |
| Occ-true | 77 | 16.0 |
| N-true | 12 | 2.5 |

Above mentioned table illustrated the view point of educators about legislative-thinking style. 33.8 % respondents-gave their positive opinion about option-usually true for the statement related to ‘personal ideas and opinion and see their worth’. Only 12 faculty members gave negative opinion against the option-never true.

**Table 4.8**

*Statement number three, Executive thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 175 | 36.5 |
| U-true | 149 | 31.0 |
| O- true | 102 | 21.3 |
| Occ-true | 43 | 9.0 |
| N-true | 11 | 2.3 |

Above mentioned table presents the conviction of uni educators about the statement related to executive thinking style. (175) faculty members selected the option mostly true, (149) teachers selected usually true, (102) educators said often true, (43) selected occasionally true. Lowest (11) frequency were observed against the response never true.

**Table 4.9**

*Statement number four, Executive thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 131 | 27.3 |
| U-true | 143 | 29.8 |
| O-true | 97 | 20.2 |
| Occ-true | 76 | 15.8 |
| N-true | 33 | 6.9 |

Table 4.9 reflects the point of view of teachers about executive thinking styles at university level. This table shows that (131) educators selected the option mostly true (M-true), 143 teachers have chosen the response usually true (U-true), 97 often true, 76 selected occasionally true (Occ-true). Only 33 faculty members selected the option never true.

**Table 4.10**

*Statement number five, Legislative thinking style*

| Opt | F | P |
|---|---|---|
| M-true | 132 | 27.5 |
| U-true | 162 | 33.8 |
| O-true | 98 | 20.4 |
| Occ-true | 61 | 12.7 |
| N-true | 27 | 5.7 |

Table 4.10 interprets the point of view of educators about legislative thinking style. One hundred sixty-two respondents selected the statement related to the

legislative way of thinking. Only 26 Low frequency was found against the option never true.

**Table 4.11**

*Statement number six, Internal thinking style*

| Opt | F | P |
|---|---|---|
| M-true | 113 | 23.5 |
| U-true | 148 | 30.8 |
| O-true | 120 | 25.0 |
| Occ-true | 69 | 14.4 |
| N-true | 30 | 6.3 |

Table 4.11 elucidates the opinion of educators about internal thinking styles at the university level. (113) respondents have selected the option mostly true, (148) educators have chosen usually true, (120) usually true for the statement related to the internal way of thinking, thirty teachers had selected the option never true. The same detail is shown in the figure below.

**Table 4.12**

*Statement number seven, External thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| M-true | 122 | 25.4 |
| U-true | 157 | 32.7 |
| O-true | 116 | 24.2 |
| Occ-true | 70 | 14.6 |
| N-true | 15 | 3.1 |

The table, as mentioned earlier, portrays the opinion of university teachers about external thinking style. (122) faculty members have chosen the option mostly true, (157) respondents had chosen the option usually proper (116) teachers selected the option often true. Only 15 respondents had selected the option never true for an external way of thinking.

**Table 4.13**

*Statement number eight, Global thinking style.*

| Opt | F | P |
|---|---|---|
| M-true | 76 | 15.8 |
| U-true | 157 | 32.7 |
| O-true | 134 | 27.9 |
| Occ-true | 75 | 15.6 |
| N-true | 38 | 7.9 |

Table 4.13 shows the point of view of educators regarding the global thinking style. This table displays that (157) educators had carefully chosen the option-usually true for the global thinking style statement. Only (38) faculty members were given their opinion against the option-never true.

**Table. 4.14**

*Statement number nine, Hierarchic thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M-true | 148 | 30.8 |
| U-true | 163 | 34.0 |
| O-true | 110 | 22.9 |
| Occ-true | 51 | 10.6 |
| N-true | 8 | 1.7 |

Table 4.14 portrays the opinion of university teachers regarding hierarchic thinking styles. For this thinking style (163), faculty members selected the option usually-true, (148) mainly selected true, (110) often said true. Only (8) respondents selected the option never true.

**Table. 4.15**

*Statement number ten, Anarchic thinking style*

| Opt | F | P |
|---|---|---|
| M-true | 49 | 10.2 |
| U-true | 150 | 31.3 |
| O-true | 124 | 25.8 |
| Occ-true | 86 | 17.9 |
| N-true | 71 | 14.8 |

Table 4.15 reveals the opinion of educators about anarchic thinking styles at university level. Majority of the respondents (150) gave positive opinion and selected the option usually true, (124) often true, (86) occasionally true. Only (49) teachers said

mostly true for this statement related to anarchic way of thinking. Same detail is shown in figure below.

**Table. 4.16**

*Statement number eleven, Conservative thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 76 | 15.8 |
| U- true | 146 | 30.4 |
| O- true | 119 | 24.8 |
| Occ- true | 100 | 20.8 |
| N- true | 39 | 8.1 |

Table 4.16 illustrates the viewpoints of teachers about the conservative thinking style. One hundred and forty-six respondents had selected the usually true, (119) often true, (100) occasionally true against the statement of conservative thinking style. Only (39) employees selected the option never true.

**Table. 4.17**

*Statement number twelve, Judicial thinking style*

| Opt | F | P |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 75 | 15.6 |
| U- true | 188 | 39.2 |
| O- true | 134 | 27.9 |
| Occ- true | 72 | 15.0 |
| N- true | 11 | 2.3 |

The table mentioned above reflected teachers' points of view about judicial thinking styles. Usually, the right option was selected by (188) employees for this statement, (134) often true, (75) primarily accurate. Only (11) faculty members said never true about this statement.

**Table 4.18**

*Statement number thirteen, Local thinking style*

| Opt | F | P |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 112 | 23.3 |
| U- true | 140 | 29.2 |
| O- true | 127 | 26.5 |
| Occ- true | 75 | 15.6 |
| N- true | 26 | 5.4 |

Table 4.18 demonstrates the viewpoint of instructors about local thinking styles. Usually, the right option was selected by (140) university teachers for this statement, (127) respondents selected often true, (112) university teachers chose the option mostly

true against the local thinking style, twenty-six respondents had selected the option never true. The same detail is shown in the figure below.

**Table 4.19**

*Statement number fourteen, Hierarchic thinking style*

| | F | P |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 142 | 29.6 |
| U-true | 174 | 36.3 |
| O- true | 99 | 20.6 |
| Occ- rue | 55 | 11.5 |
| N- true | 10 | 2.1 |

Table 4.19 reveals the point of view of teachers regarding hierarchic thinking styles. Data analysis illustrated that (174) respondents selected the option usually proper for this statement, (142) mainly selected true, (99) often selected true, and (55) respondents occasionally selected true. Only (10) faculty members selected the response never true.

**Table 4.20**

*Statement number fifteen, Conservative thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 90 | 18.8 |
| U- true | 130 | 27.1 |
| O- true | 147 | 30.6 |
| Occ- true | 79 | 16.5 |
| N- true | 34 | 7.1 |

Table 4.20 reflects the point of view of educators about conservative thinking-style at the university level. This table displays that (147) participants were chosen the option often proper, (130) usually true, and (90) primarily true for the conservative way of thinking. Only (34) teachers had selected the response never true for this thinking style.

**Table 4.21**

*Statement number sixteen, Conservative thinking style*

| Opt | F | P |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 99 | 20.6 |
| U- true | 129 | 26.9 |
| O- true | 119 | 24.8 |
| O- true | 89 | 18.5 |
| N- true | 44 | 9.2 |
| Total | 480 | 100- |

Table number 4.21 presents the point of view of university teachers against the statement related to the conservative thinking style. This table reflected that (129) faculty members had chosen the response usually true, (119) often true, (99) primarily true, and (89 occasionally true. Only (44) faculty members selected the option never true.

**Table 4.22**

*Statement number seventeen, Oligarchic thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 94 | 19.6 |
| U- true | 159 | 33.1 |
| O- true | 116 | 24.2 |
| Occ- true | 72 | 15.0 |
| N- true | 39 | 8.1 |

Above mentioned information is based on the opinion of university teachers about oligarchic thinking styles. One hundred and fifty-nine teachers have selected the option usually-true, one hundred and sixteen often true, ninety-four faculty members had selected mostly true. In contrast, the lowest (39) educators' opinion was observed against the option never true.

**Table. 4.23**

*Statement number eighteen, Oligarchic thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 144 | 30.0 |
| U- true | 142 | 29.6 |
| O- true | 116 | 24.2 |
| Occ- true | 58 | 12.1 |
| N- true | 20 | 4.2 |
| Total | 480 | 100.0 |

Table 4.23 reflects the opinion of university instructors regarding the oligarchic thinking style. One hundred and forty-four teachers had selected the option-mostly true, (142) usually true, (116) often true, and (58) faculty members had occasionally selected true. Only twenty teachers had selected the option never true for an oligarchic way of thinking.

**Table. 4.24**

*Statement number nineteen, Executive thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 177 | 36.9 |
| U- true | 165 | 34.4 |
| O- true | 89 | 18.5 |
| Occ- true | 39 | 8.1 |
| N- true | 10 | 2.1 |

Table 4.24 presents the information about executive thinking style. One hundred and seventy-seven respondents selected the options mostly true, (165) usually true, (89) often true, and thirty-nine faculty members occasionally selected true for the statement related to executive thinking style. Only ten faculty members had selected the option never true.

**Table.4.25**

*Statement number twenty, legislative thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 131 | 27.3 |
| U- true | 159 | 33.1 |
| O- true | 117 | 24.4 |
| Occ- true | 61 | 12.7 |
| N- true | 12 | 2.5 |

Table 4.25 reflects the conviction of university teachers regarding legislative thinking style. One hundred and fifty-nine teachers selected the option usually true, (131) mostly true, (117) often true, and (61) occasionally true for the statement related to legislative thinking style. Only twelve respondents had selected the option never true.

**Table. 4.26**

*Statement number twenty one, Hierarchic thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 136 | 28.3 |
| U- true | 173 | 36.0 |
| O- true | 110 | 22.9 |
| Occ- true | 49 | 10.2 |
| N- true | 12 | 2.5 |

Table 4.26 illustrates the opinion of teachers about the hierarchic thinking style. One hundred and seventy-three respondents favored the option usually true, (136)

mostly true, (110) often true, and forty-nine occasionally true for the statement related to hierarchic thinking style. Only (12) teachers had selected the option never true.

**Table 4.27**

*Statement number twenty-two, External thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 159 | 33.1 |
| U- true | 156 | 32.5 |
| O- true | 100 | 20.8 |
| Occ- true | 49 | 10.2 |
| N- true | 16 | 3.3 |
| Total | 480 | 100- |

Table number 4.27 indicates the perception of university educators about external thinking style. One hundred and fifty-nine teachers selected the option-mostly true, (156) for usually true, (100) for often true, and forty-nine for occasionally true. Only sixteen responded and gave their opinion against the option never true.

**Table 4.28**

*Statement number twenty-three, Anarchic thinking style*

| Opt | F | P |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 90 | 18.8 |
| U- true | 142 | 29.6 |
| O- true | 125 | 26.0 |
| Occ- true | 88 | 18.3 |
| N- true | 35 | 7.3 |

Table 4.28 shows the opinion of teachers about the anarchic thinking style. The results indicate that (142) employees were-selected the option-usually true, (125) often true, and (90) mostly true for the statement related to an anarchic way of thinking. Thirty five respondents had selected the option never true.

**Table. 4.29**

*Statement number twenty-four, Conservative thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 54 | 11.3 |
| U- true | 126 | 26.3 |
| O- true | 132 | 27.5 |
| Occ- true | 98 | 20.4 |
| N- true | 70 | 14.6 |

Results indicated that one hundred and thirty-two respondents had selected the option-often true, (126) usually true, (98) occasionally true for the statement conservative way of thinking. Seventy respondents had never selected a true opinion for this thinking style. Table number 4.29 indicates the opinion of university teachers related to conservative thinking-style.

**Table. 4.30**

*Statement number twenty five, Internal thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 78 | 16.3 |
| U- true | 123 | 25.6 |
| O- true | 115 | 24.0 |
| Occ- true | 83 | 17.3 |
| N- true | 81 | 16.9 |

The table mentioned above presented the data regarding internal thinking style. Data shows that 123 individuals were a follower of this thinking style because they have selected the option usually-true, (115) often true, (83) occasionally true, and (81) never true. For this thinking style (87), teachers had selected the option mostly true.

**Table. 4.31**

*Statement number twenty six, Global thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 79 | 16.5 |
| U- true | 154 | 32.1 |
| O- true | 150 | 31.3 |
| Occ- true | 68 | 14.2 |
| N- true | 29 | 6.0 |

Table 4.31 states the opinion of university teachers about the global thinking style. One hundred fifty-four teachers chose the option usually true, and 29 respondents selected the option never true.

**Table. 4.32**
*Statement number twenty-seven, External thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 117 | 24.4 |
| U- true | 174 | 36.3 |
| O- true | 107 | 22.3 |
| Occ- true | 61 | 12.7 |
| N- true | 21 | 4.4 |

The table mentioned above indicates the opinion of university teachers about external thinking-style. One hundred and seventy-four employees had chosen the option usually proper. Only twenty-one (21) teachers had selected the option never true.

**Table.4.33**

*Statement number twenty eight, Anarchic thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 119 | 24.8 |
| U- true | 151 | 31.5 |
| O- true | 109 | 22.7 |
| Occ- true | 71 | 14.8 |
| Never true | 30 | 6.3 |

Table 4.33 illustrates the opinion of university employees about the anarchic thinking style. Data indicates that-majority (151) respondents were selected-option usually true, (119) primarily true, (109) often actual. At the same time, thirty respondents had selected the option never true.

**Table. 4.34**

*Statement number twenty-nine, External thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 163 | 34.0 |
| U- true | 164 | 34.2 |
| O- true | 86 | 17.9 |
| Occ- true | 50 | 10.4 |
| N- true | 17 | 3.5 |

Table 4.34 describes the university employees' opinions about external thinking styles. Data shows (164) university educators had selected the option usually true, (163) primarily true, often eighty-six true, and only seventeen employees never selected true.

**Table. 4.35**

*Statement number thirty, Judicial thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 157 | 32.7 |
| U- true | 166 | 34.6 |
| O- true | 106 | 22.1 |
| Occ- true | 38 | 7.9 |
| N- true | 13 | 2.7 |

Table 4.35 illustrates the opinion of employees about judicial thinking style. The highest frequency (166) was calculated against the option usually true, 157 for mostly true, and 106 often true. Thirteen teachers had selected the option never true.

**Table 4.36**

*Statement number thirty-one, Monarchic thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 146 | 30.4 |
| U- true | 140 | 29.2 |
| O- true | 103 | 21.5 |
| Occ- true | 72 | 15.0 |
| N- true | 19 | 4 |

The table, as mentioned earlier, presents the data about monarchic thinking styles. According to this table-majority, of-respondents (146) selected the option-mostly true, 140 usually true, 103 often true, for the statement related to monarchic thinking style. Only 19 teachers had selected the option never true.

**Table 4.37**

*Statement number thirty-two, local thinking style*

| Opt | F | P |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 125 | 26.0 |
| U- true | 141 | 29.4 |
| O- true | 114 | 23.8 |
| Occ- true | 60 | 12.5 |
| N- true | 40 | 8.3 |

The table mentioned above illustrates the opinion of university employees regarding local thinking-style. The results revealed that (141) employees had chosen the option usually true,(12) mostly true, (114) often true for the statement related to local thinking style, whereas only (40) employees had selected the option never true.

**Table. 4.38**
*Statement number thirty-three, External thinking style*

| Opt | F | P |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 147 | 30.6 |
| U- true | 157 | 32.7 |
| O- true | 110 | 22.9 |
| Occ- true | 50 | 10.4 |
| N- true | 16 | 3.3 |

The table mentioned above presents the data regarding external thinking style. Results indicated that the majority (157) respondents had chosen the option usually true, (147) mostly true, (110) often true, and (50) occasionally true for the statement related to external thinking style. Only sixteen teachers had selected the option never true.

**Table 4.39**

*Statement number thirty-four, Anarchic thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 89 | 18.5 |
| U- true | 146 | 30.4 |
| O- true | 145 | 30.2 |
| Occ- true | 72 | 15.0 |
| N- true | 28 | 5.8 |

Table 4.39 illustrates the data regarding the anarchic thinking style. Results revealed that the majority (146) of university teachers had chosen the option usually true, (145) often true, and (89) mostly true for the statement related to an anarchic way of thinking. Only twenty-eight respondents had selected the option never true.

**Table 4.40**

*Statement number thirty-five, Global thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 86 | 17.9 |
| U- true | 141 | 29.4 |
| O- true | 137 | 28.5 |
| Occ- true | 82 | 17.1 |
| N- true | 34 | 7.2 |

Results show that 141 respondents had chosen usually true for the-statement related to global way of thinking. Thirty four teachers had selected the option never true. The table mentioned above 4.40 illustrates the information related to the global thinking style. The same detail is presented in the figure below.

**Table. 4.41**

*Statement number thirty-six, legislative thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 141 | 29.4 |
| U- true | 157 | 32.7 |
| O- true | 114 | 23.8 |
| Occ- true | 52 | 10.8 |
| N- true | 16 | 3.4 |

This table presents the information about legislative thinking style. Usually, the true option was selected by 157 respondents, and only 16 teachers selected the option never true.

**Table. 4.42**

*Statement number thirty-seven, Monarchic thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 94 | 19.6 |
| U- true | 129 | 26.9 |
| O- true | 122 | 25.4 |
| Occ- true | 88 | 18.3 |
| N- true | 47 | 9.8 |

The table above illustrates that 129 teachers had a monarchic style at the university level, and 47 teachers did not agree with the statement.

**Table.4.43**

*Statement number thirty-eight, Judicial thinking style*

| Opt | F | P |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 69 | 14.4 |
| U- true | 152 | 31.7 |
| O- true | 156 | 32.5 |
| Occ- true | 72 | 15.0 |
| N- true | 31 | 6.5 |

Table 4.43 presents the data regarding judicial thinking style. Results related to judicial style revealed that (156) respondents had chosen the option-often true, (152) usually true, (72) occasionally true, (69) mostly true, (31) never true for the statement related to judicial thinking style.

**Table. 4.44**

*Statement number thirty-nine, Oligarchic thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 85 | 17.7 |
| U- true | 165 | 34.4 |
| O- true | 125 | 26.0 |
| Occ- true | 72 | 15.0 |
| N- true | 33 | 6.9 |

Table number 4.44 explains the opinion of university teachers about the oligarchic thinking style. Data revealed that (168) respondents had selected the option

usually true, (125) often true, (85) mostly true, 72 occasionally true, and only (33) respondents selected the option never true.

**Table. 4.45**

*Statement number forty, Liberal thinking style*

| Opt | F | P |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 131 | 27.3 |
| U- true | 185 | 38.5 |
| O- true | 92 | 19.2 |
| Occ- true | 57 | 11.9 |
| N- true | 15 | 3.1 |

Table 4.45% illustrates the data about the liberal thinking style. Results revealed that most (185) employees had chosen the-option-usually valid for liberal style, whereas (15) teachers had selected the option never true.

**Table 4.46**

*Statement number forty-one, Monarchic thinking style*

| Opt | F | P |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 128 | 26.7 |
| U- true | 159 | 33.1 |
| O- true | 115 | 24.0 |
| Occ- true | 59 | 12.3 |
| N- true | 19 | 4.1 |

Table 4.46 illustrates the information about the monarchic thinking style. Result reveals that the majority (159) respondents had chosen the option usually true, (128) mostly true, (115) often true for the statement related to the monarchic way of thinking.

**Table. 4.47**

*Statement number forty-two, Internal thinking style*

| Opt | F | P |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 130 | 27.1 |
| U- true | 149 | 31.0 |
| O- true | 115 | 24.0 |
| Occ- true | 49 | 10.2 |
| N- true | 37 | 7.7 |
| Total | 480 | 100.0 |

The table mentioned above shows the data related to internal thinking style. The result illustrates that (149) employees had selected the option-usually true, (130) primarily true, (115) often true, and thirty-seven respondents had chosen the never true for the statement related to internal thinking style.

**Table 4.48**

*Statement number forty-three, Hierarchic thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 161 | 33.5 |
| U- true | 153 | 31.9 |
| O- true | 108 | 22.5 |
| Occ- true | 46 | 9.6 |
| N- true | 12 | 2.5 |

Table No. 4.48 reflects the data related to the hierarchic thinking style. The result shows that (161) employees had chosen the option mostly true, (153) usually true, (108) often true, and only (12) university teachers had chosen the option never true for the hierarchic thinking style.

**Table 4.49**

*Statement number forty-four, Judicial thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 140 | 29.2 |
| U- true | 181 | 37.7 |
| O- true | 98 | 20.4 |
| Occ- true | 38 | 7.9 |
| N- true | 23 | 4.8 |

Table No. 4.49 indicates the teachers' opinions regarding judicial thinking styles. One hundred and eighty-one respondents had chosen the option usually true, (140) mostly true, (98) often true, and (23) respondents had never selected true for the statement related to judicial thinking.

**Table 4.50**

*Statement number forty-five, Liberal thinking style*

| Opt | F | P |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 132 | 27.5 |
| U- true | 166 | 34.6 |
| O- true | 100 | 20.8 |
| Occ- true | 52 | 10.8 |
| N- true | 30 | 6.03 |

Table 4.50 illustrates the teachers' opinions about the liberal thinking style. Most of the teachers (166) had chosen the response usually true, (132) primarily true, (100) often true, and (30) respondents never selected true.

**Table. 4.51**

*Statement number forty six, Oligarchic thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 91 | 19.0 |
| U- true | 176 | 36.7 |
| O- true | 111 | 23.1 |
| Occ- true | 77 | 16.0 |
| N- true | 25 | 5.2 |

The table mentioned above presents the information about the oligarchic thinking style. (176) respondents had chosen the option usually true. (111) often true,

(91) mostly true, and (25) never true for the statement related to oligarchic thinking style.

**Table 4.52**

*Statement number forty-seven, Monarchic thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 129 | 26.9 |
| U- true | 167 | 34.8 |
| O- true | 111 | 23.1 |
| Occ- true | 55 | 11.5 |
| N- true | 18 | 3.8 |

Table 4.52 interprets the opinion of teachers about the monarchic thinking style. Data revealed that teachers usually agreed on a monarchic thinking style as high frequency (167) was shown against the option usually true.

**Table.4.53**

*Statement number forty-eight, Global thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 103 | 21.5 |
| U- true | 183 | 38.1 |
| O- true | 124 | 25.8 |
| Occ- true | 46 | 9.6 |
| N- true | 24 | 5.0 |

Statistics presented in table 4.53 display the opinion of university teachers about the global thinking style. (183) respondents had selected the option usually true, (124)

often true, (103) mostly true, (24) never true for the statement related to global thinking style.

**Table 4.54**

*Statement number forty-nine, Local thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 86 | 17.9 |
| U- true | 147 | 30.6 |
| O- true | 136 | 28.3 |
| Occ- true | 77 | 16.0 |
| N- true | 34 | 7.1 |

Table 4.54 illustrates the opinion of teachers against the statement related to local thinking style. (147) respondents had selected the option usually true, (136) often true, (86) mostly true, and (34) never true.

**Table 4.55**

*Statement number fifty, Internal thinking style*

| Opt | F | P |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 113 | 23.5 |
| U- true | 159 | 33.1 |
| O- true | 112 | 23.3 |
| Occ- true | 61 | 12.7 |
| N- true | 35 | 7.3 |

Statistics shown in table 4.55 reveal the opinion of teachers against the statement related to internal thinking style. The majority (159) of the respondent had elected the option usually true, (113) mostly true, (112) often true, and (35) never true.

**Table. 4.56**

*Statement number fifty-one, Liberal thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 129 | 26.9 |
| U- true | 176 | 36.7 |
| O- true | 112 | 23.3 |
| Occ- true | 50 | 10.4 |
| N- true | 13 | 2.7 |

Table 4.56 illustrates the information related to the liberal thinking style. One hundred and seventy-six university teachers had chosen the option-usually true. Whereas only (13) responses were observed-against, the option was never true.

**Table 4.57**

*Statement number fifty-two, Liberal thinking style*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 117 | 24.4 |
| U- true | 156 | 32.5 |
| O- true | 120 | 25.0 |
| Occ- true | 64 | 13.3 |
| N- true | 23 | 4.8 |

Table 4.57 reflects the opinion of university educators about the liberal thinking style. The majority (156) of university teachers had chosen the option usually true. Whereas-only 23 teachers had never chosen true.

**Tables of Job Embeddedness**

Frequency distribution tables related to the job embeddedness are presented below. Eighteen items are incorporated in this questionnaire. Every item is presented and analyzed in a separate table.

**Job-embeddedness is-defined as**

Job embeddedness theory illustrates the individual's relationship to the community and organization. Organizational embeddedness and comity embed are two important forces. *On-the-job* embeddedness means how personnel are attached to org, and the second concept is off the job. It reflects how individuals are emotionally attached to the community or the place they live. The concepts of organizational embeddedness and community embeddedness are divided into three measurements. These three concepts are essential for job embeddedness. These explain how much a person is connected to an organization. These three measurements are *fit, connections, and sacrifice.* Fit-refers to how the workplace and living place is comfortable for a person.-What would he leave behind If the person left this organization and comity. *Connections* refer to how individuals link with other employees in the organization and the community (Mitchell et al., 2001).

**Table 4.58**

*Statement number one, Fit (comfort with an organization)*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 172 | 35.8 |
| U- true | 138 | 28.8 |
| O- true | 97 | 20.2 |
| Occ- true | 44 | 9.2 |

Data presented in table 4.58 is related to fit with the organization. The majority (172) of the respondents had chosen the option mostly true, (138) usually true, (97) often true, and (29) never true for the statement related to comfort with the organization.

**Table. 4.59**

*Statement number two, Fit (comfort with an organization)*

| Opt | F | P |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 156 | 32.5 |
| U- true | 156 | 32.5 |
| O- true | 102 | 21.3 |
| Occ- true | 55 | 11.5 |
| N- true | 11 | 2.3 |

Table 4.59 illustrates the opinion of university teachers. Analysis of data depicted that 156 teachers selected the option mostly true, and the same response was observed against the option usually true.

**Table.4.60**

*Statement number three, Fit (comfort with an organization)*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 143 | 29.8 |
| U- true | 171 | 35.6 |
| O- true | 96 | 20.0 |
| Occ- true | 43 | 9.0 |
| N- true | 27 | 5.6 |

Data presented in the above table is related to fit/ comfort with an organization. This data is taken from university teachers. (171) teachers had chosen the option usually true, (143) mostly true, (96) often true, (27) never true for-statement related to comfort with the organization.

**Table.4.61**

*Statement number four, Fit (comfort with the community)*

| Opt | F | P |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 170 | 35.4 |
| U- true | 148 | 30.8 |
| O- true | 109 | 22.7 |
| Occ- true | 34 | 7.1 |
| N- true | 19 | 4.0 |

Table 4.61 illustrates the opinion of university-teachers. Data reveals that (170) educators had selected the option mostly true, (148) usually true, (109) often true, and (19) never true for the statement.

**Table. 4.62**

*Statement number five, Fit (comfort with the community)*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 141 | 29.4 |
| U- true | 162 | 33.8 |
| O- true | 111 | 23.1 |
| Occ- true | 47 | 9.8 |
| N- true | 19 | 4.2 |

Information presented in above-mentioned table illustrates that (162) respondents had selected the option usually true, (141) mostly true, (111) often true for the statement related to comfort with the community.

**Table. 4.63**

*Statement number six, Fit (comfort with the community)*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 100 | 20.8 |
| U- true | 146 | 30.4 |
| O- true | 98 | 20.4 |
| Occ true | 79 | 16.5 |
| N- true | 56 | 11.07 |

Table 4.63 illustrates the opinion of university educators. Data illustrated that (146) respondents selected the option usually true, (100) mostly true, (98) often true, and (56) never true for the statement related to comfort with the community.

**Table. 4.64**

*Statement number seven, Link (the connection between a person and community)*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Mostly true | 130 | 27.1 |
| Usually true | 163 | 34.0 |
| Often true | 118 | 24.6 |
| Occasionally true | 48 | 10.0 |
| Never true | 21 | 4.04 |

Table 4.64 presents the data regarding links with the community. Data illustrated that most instructors have chosen the-option-usually true for connection between person and community.

**Table. 4.65**

*Statement number eight, Link (the connection between a person and community)*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M-true | 73 | 15.2 |
| U- true | 153 | 31.9 |
| O- true | 125 | 26.0 |
| Occ- true | 81 | 16.9 |
| N- true | 48 | 10 |

Table 4.65 illustrates that (153) employees had selected the option usually true, (125)often true, (81) occasionally true, and (48) never true for the statement related to community links.

**Table.4.66**

*Statement number nine, Link (connection between a person and community)*

| -Options | -Frequency | % |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 129 | 26.9 |
| U- true | 121 | 25.2 |
| O- true | 81 | 16.9 |
| Occ- true | 75 | 15.6 |
| N- true | 74 | 15.4 |

Table 4.66 interprets the opinion of university teachers about community links. Data shows that (129) university teachers had selected the option mostly true, (121) selected usually true, only (75) employees selected never true.

**Table.4.67**

*Statement number ten, Link (the connection between a person and organization)*

| Preferences- | F | -% |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 152 | 31.7 |
| U- true | 158 | 32.9 |
| O- true | 96 | 20.0 |
| Occ- true | 50 | 10.4 |
| N- true | 24 | 5.0 |

Data related links with the organization is presented in table 4.67. One hundred and fifty-eight university teachers favored the option usually true, (24) employees never selected true.

**Table. 4.68**

*Statement number eleven, Link (the connection between a person and organization)*

| Opt | F | P |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 54 | 11.3 |
| U- true | 109 | 22.7 |
| O- true | 135 | 28.1 |
| Occ- true | 111 | 23.1 |
| N- true | 71 | 14.08 |

- Table 4.68-reveals the information related to links with the organization. (135) respondents had selected the option often true, (111) occasionally true, (109) usually true, and (71) never true for the statement related to links. Results reflected that Data reveals that one hundred and thirty-five university educators had chosen the option true.

**Table. 4.69**

*Statement number twelve, Link (the connection between a person and organization)*

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 163 | 34.0 |
| U- true | 148 | 30.8 |
| O- true | 93 | 19.4 |
| Occ- true | 45 | 9.4 |
| N- true | 31 | 6.05 |

The table mentioned above reflects the information about links with the organization. The majority (163) educators had carefully chosen the option mostly true,

(148) usually true, and (45) never true for the statement related to connection with the organization.

**Table.4.70**

*Statement number thirteen, Sacrifice (in order to give up one's organization)*

| Choices | F | % |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 94 | 19.6 |
| U- true | 163 | 34.0 |
| O- true | 133 | 27.7 |
| Occ true | 57 | 11.9 |
| N- true | 33 | 6.09 |

Data presented in Table 4.70 illustrates the viewpoint of university teachers. Data reveals that one hundred and sixty-three respondents had selected the option-usually true, (133) often true, and (33) never true for the-statement sacrifice for the organization.

**Table. 4.71**

*Statement number fourteen, Sacrifice (in order to give up one's organization)*

| Choices | F | % |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 95 | 19.8 |
| U- true | 142 | 29.6 |
| O- true | 121 | 25.2 |
| Occ- true | 77 | 16.0 |
| N- true | 45 | 9.04 |

The table mentioned above illustrates the viewpoint of teachers about sacrifice for the organization. Descriptive statistics reveal that one hundred and forty-two teachers had selected the option usually proper, (121) often true, and (95) mostly true for the statement related to sacrifice for the organization.

**Table. 4.72**

*Statement number fifteen, Sacrifice (in order to give up one's organization)*

| Choices | F | % |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 116 | 24.2 |
| U- true | 156 | 32.5 |
| O- true | 133 | 27.7 |
| Occ- true | 55 | 11.5 |
| N- true | 20 | 4.02 |

Table 4.72 illustrates the opinion of university teachers about sacrifice for the organization. (156) teachers had selected the option usually true, (116) mostly true, (133) often true, (20) never true for the statement related to sacrifice for the organization.

**Table 4.73**

*Statement number sixteen, Sacrifice*

| Choices | F | % |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 117 | 24.4 |
| U- true | 145 | 30.2 |
| O- true | 108 | 22.5 |
| Occ- true | 69 | 14.4 |
| Never true | 41 | 8.05 |

Data presented in table 4.73 is related with sacrifice for community. Majority (145) of the respondents had chosen the option u-true, (117) mostly true, (108) often true, (41) never true for the statement related to sacrifice for the community.

**Table. 4.74**

*Statement number seventeen, Sacrifice (in-order to give-up one'-community)*

| Opt | F | P |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 89 | 18.5 |
| U- true | 133 | 27.7 |
| O- true | 140 | 29.2 |
| Occ true | 76 | 15.8 |
| N- true | 42 | 8.08 |

Table 4.74 illustrates the data regarding sacrifice for the community. Most (140) teachers selected the option-often-true, and (42) never selected true for the statement.

**Table.4.75**

*Statement number eighteen, Sacrifice for community*

| | Frequency | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| M- true | 96 | 20.0 |
| U- true | 134 | 27.9 |
| O- true | 124 | 25.8 |
| Occ- true | 76 | 15.8 |
| N- true | 50 | 10.04 |

Data related to sacrifice for community illustrated that (134) employees had chosen the response u-true, (50) employees never selected true.

## 4.3 Descriptive Statistics

**Objective 1: To analyze university teachers' ways of thinking.**

**Table 4.76**

*Table of Means (N=480)*

| | Thinking styles | Statements | Means | Remarks |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Function | Legislative | 4 | 3.6 | U- true |
| Function | Executive | 4 | 3.7 | U- true |
| Function | Judicial | 4 | 3.6 | U- true |
| Form | Monarchic | 4 | 3.5 | Often true |
| Form | Hierarchical | 4 | 3.8 | U- true |
| Form | Oligarchic | 4 | 3.4 | Often true |
| Form | Anarchic | 4 | 3.3 | Often true |
| Level | Global | 4 | 3.4 | Often true |
| Level | Local | 4 | 3.4 | Often true |
| Scope | Internal | 4 | 3.4 | Often true |
| Scope | External | 4 | 3.7 | U- true |
| Learning | Conservative | 4 | 3.2 | Often true |
| Learning | Liberal | 4 | 3.6 | U- true |
| Total | Thinking styles | 52 | 3.5 | Often true |

Table 4.76-illustrated the information about the thinking style of the university educators. Mean score of-thinking-style of-educators-i.e.-legislative-(3.6), executive (3.7),-judicial-(3.6), monarchic (3.5), hierarchical (3.8), oligarchic (3.4), Anarchic (3.3), global (3.4), local (3.4), internal (3.4), external (3.7) conservative (3.2), liberal

(3.6). It is depicted from the score that the uppermost mean is found in hierarchical (3.8) thinking styles, and the lowest mean score is in conservative (3.2) thinking styles. It is concluded that the teachers usually agree on an administrative, judgmental,-managerial, hierarchical and external way of thinking, whereas they are often agreed on the rest of the thinking styles.

**Objective 2. To explore the job embeddedness of educators at the university level.**

**Table 4.77**

*Means of Job Embeddedness (N=480)*

| Job embeddedness | Statements | Means | Remarks |
|---|---|---|---|
| Fit, Organization | 3 | 3.7 | U- T |
| Fit, Community | 3 | 3.6 | U- T |
| Lnks, Org | 3 | 3.4 | O- T |
| Lnks, Comity | 3 | 3.4 | O- T |
| Sarfc, Org | 3 | 3.4 | O- T |
| Sarfc, Comity | 3 | 3.3 | O- T |
| Job embeddedness | 18 | 3.5 | U-T |

The above-mentioned table illustrates the means of job-embeddedness of teachers, i.e., comfort at work place (3.7), comfortable with the community environment (3.6), connection at work place (3.4), connection with the community(3.4), organizational sacrifice (3.4), community sacrifice-(3.3). It is depicted

from the mean scores that the teachers usually agree on fit-organization and fit-community. They are often agreed on organizational connections, associations related to community, organizational sacrifice and sacrifice related to the community. It is concluded that the means of the fit organization (3.7) and fit community (3.6 are comparatively higher than others.

## Section- II

### 4.4 Testing of null hypotheses

Section two portrays the testing of null hypotheses based on objective numbers three, four, five, six, seven, and eight of the study. An independent sample t-test was used to measure objective numbers three, four, five, and six. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to measure objective numbers seven and eight.

**Objective 3.** To find out gender base differences regarding the thinking styles of teachers at govt and non-govt universities.

Null hypotheses number 1 and sub-hypotheses number 1.1 to 1.5 were developed to measure the objective number three.

$H_O1$ There is no gender-based significant difference in teachers' thinking styles at the university level.

**Table 4.78**

*The Gender-Based Difference in Thinking Styles of Teachers at the University Level. (N=480)*

| | Male N=206 | | Female N=274 | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | SD | M | SD | t | df | Sig (2-tailed |
| Legislative | 14.79 | 3.15 | 14.55 | 2.95 | .839 | 478 | .402 |
| Executive | 14.83 | 2.97 | 15.20 | 3.12 | -1.308 | 478 | .191 |
| Judicial | 14.95 | 3.15 | 14.92 | 2.95 | .113 | 478 | .910 |
| Hierarchic | 15.18 | 3.82 | 15.27 | 3.15 | -.338 | 478 | .735 |
| Monarchic | 14.49 | 3.16 | 14.18 | 3.28 | 1.028 | 478 | .305 |
| Oligarchic | 14.03 | 3.12 | 13.96 | 3.35 | .235 | 478 | .815 |
| Anarchic | 13.42 | 3.04 | 13.26 | 3.41 | .515 | 478 | .607 |
| Global | 13.87 | 2.81 | 13.52 | 3.00 | 1.285 | 478 | .200 |
| Local | 14.39 | 3.00 | 13.68 | 3.31 | 2.408 | 478 | .016 |
| Internal | 14.04 | 3.43 | 13.47 | 3.50 | 1.788 | 478 | .074 |
| External | 15.15 | 2.86 | 14.99 | 3.35 | .543 | 478 | .588 |
| Liberal | 14.79 | 3.15 | 14.71 | 3.23 | .266 | 478 | .791 |
| Conservative | 13.10 | 3.14 | 12.74 | 3.55 | 1.140 | 478 | .255 |

Table 4.78 depicts t-test statistics applied to scores of male and female teachers on sub-scales of thinking styles at university level. It is observed that significant difference in local thinking style of male and female university teachers (t (478) =2.408,

p=.016) but both group don't differ significantly with respect to other thinking styles. Legislative thinking styles of male (M=14.79, SD=3.15) and female (M=14.55, SD =2.95), t (478) =.839, P =.402). Executive thinking styles of male (M=14.83, SD=2.97) and female (M=15.20, SD =3.12), t (478) = -1.308, P =.191). Judicial thinking styles of male (M=14.95, SD=3.15) and female (M=14.92, SD =2.95), t (478) =.113, P =.910). Hierarchic thinking styles of male (M=15.18, SD=3.82) and female (M=15.27, SD =.3.15), t (478) = -.338, P =.735). Monarchic thinking styles of male (M=14.49, SD=3.16) and female (M=14.18, SD = 3.28), t (478) =.1.028, P =.305). Oligarchic thinking styles of male (M=14.03, SD=3.12) and female (M=13.96, SD = 3.35), t (478) =.235, P =.815). Anarchic thinking styles of male (M=13.42, SD=3.04) and female (M=13.26, SD = 3.41), t (478) =.515, P =.607). Global thinking styles of male (M=13.87, SD= 2.81) and female (M=13.52, SD = 3.00), t (478) =1.285, P =.200). Internal thinking styles of male (M=14.04, SD=3.43) and female (M=13.47, SD = 3.50), t (478) =1.788, P =.074). External thinking styles of male (M=15.15, SD= 2.86) and female (M=14.99, SD = 3.35), t (478) =.543, P =.588). Liberal thinking styles of male (M=14.79, SD=3.15) and female (M=14.71, SD = 3.23), t (478) =.266, P =.791) and conservative thinking styles of male (M=13.10, SD=3.14) and female (M=12.74, SD = 3.55), t (478) = 1.140, P =.255). No significant differences were found related to subscales of thinking styles among male and female university teachers except local thinking style.

$H_O$ 1.1 There is no gender-based significant difference in teachers regarding functions (including the legislative, executive, and judicial) thinking styles at the university level.

**Table 4.79**

*The gender-based difference regarding functions of thinking styles (N=480)*

| Function | Male N=206 | | Female N=274 | | t | df | Sig (2-tailed |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | SD | M | SD | | | |
| Legislative | 14.79 | 3.15 | 14.55 | 2.95 | .839 | 478 | .402 |
| Executive | 14.83 | 2.97 | 15.20 | 3.12 | -1.308 | 478 | .191 |
| Judicial | 14.95 | 3.15 | 14.92 | 2.95 | .113 | 478 | .910 |

Table 4.79 illustrates the mean difference in the scores of functions of thinking styles of male and female university teachers. It is observed that the average score of male teachers regarding legislative thinking styles (M=14.79, SD=3.15) and female (M=14.55, SD =2.95), t (478) =.839, P =.402). Executive thinking styles of male (M=14.83, SD=2.97) and female (M=15.20, SD =3.12), t (478) = -1.308, P =.191). Judicial thinking styles of male (M=14.95, SD=3.15) and female (M=14.92, SD =2.95), t (478) =.113, P =.910). The p values are not significant at the 0.05 level of significance. Therefore null hypothesis regarding functions (legislative, executive, and judicial) of thinking styles is failed to reject.

$H_O$ 1.2 There is no gender-based significant difference in teachers regarding forms (hierarchical, monarchic, oligarchic, and anarchic) of thinking styles at the university level.

**Table 4.80**

*The gender-based difference regarding forms of thinking styles (N=480)*

| Forms | Male N=206 | | Female N=274 | | t | df | Sig (2-tailed |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | SD | M | SD | | | |
| Hierarchic | 15.18 | 3.82 | 15.27 | 3.15 | -.338 | 478 | .735 |
| Monarchic | 14.49 | 3.16 | 14.18 | 3.28 | 1.028 | 478 | .305 |
| Oligarchic | 14.03 | 3.12 | 13.96 | 3.35 | .235 | 478 | .815 |
| Anarchic | 13.42 | 3.04 | 13.26 | 3.41 | .515 | 478 | .607 |

Table 4.80 describes the mean difference in the scores of forms of thinking styles of male and female university teachers. It is observed that the average score of male teachers regarding hierarchic thinking styles (M=15.18, SD=3.82) and female (M=15.27, SD =.3.15), t (478) = -.338, P =.735). Monarchic thinking styles of male (M=14.49, SD=3.16) and female (M=14.18, SD = 3.28), t (478) =.1.028, P =.305). Oligarchic thinking styles of male (M=14.03, SD=3.12) and female (M=13.96, SD = 3.35), t (478) =.235, P =.815). Anarchic thinking styles of male (M=13.42, SD=3.04) and female (M=13.26, SD = 3.41), t (478) =.515, P =.607). The p values are not significant at the 0.05 level of significance. Therefore null hypothesis regarding forms (hierarchical, monarchic, oligarchic, and anarchic) of thinking styles is failed to reject.

$H_O$ 1.3 There is no gender-based significant difference in university teachers regarding levels (global and local) thinking styles.

**Table 4.81**

*The gender-based difference regarding levels of thinking styles (N=480)*

| Levels | Male N=206 | | Female N=274 | | t | df | Sig (2-tailed |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | SD | M | SD | | | |
| Global | 13.87 | 2.81 | 13.52 | 3.00 | 1.285 | 478 | .200 |
| Local | 14.39 | 3.00 | 13.68 | 3.31 | 2.408 | 478 | .016 |

Table 4.81 shows the mean dissimilarity in the scores of male and female university teachers' levels of thinking styles. It is observed that the average score of male teachers regarding global thinking styles (M=13.87, SD= 2.81) and female (M=13.52, SD = 3.00), t (478) =1.285, P =.200). Local thinking styles of male (M=14.39, SD=3.00) and female (M=13.68, SD = 3.31), t (478) = 2.408, P =.016). There is no gender-based difference in teachers' opinions regarding global thinking style. However, a significant difference between male and female university teachers (t (478) =2.408, p=.016).

$H_O$ 1.4 There is no gender-based significant difference in teachers regarding scope (internal and external) thinking styles at the university level.

**Table 4.82**

*The gender-based difference regarding the scope of thinking styles (N=480)*

| Scope | Male N=206 | | Female N=274 | | t | df | Sig (2-tailed |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | SD | M | SD | | | |
| Internal | 14.04 | 3.43 | 13.47 | 3.50 | 1.788 | 478 | .074 |
| External | 15.15 | 2.86 | 14.99 | 3.35 | .543 | 478 | .588 |

Table 4.82 interprets the mean difference in the scores of scopes of thinking styles of male and female university teachers. It is observed that the average score of male teachers regarding internal thinking styles (M=14.04, SD=3.43) and female (M=13.47, SD = 3.50), t (478) =1.788, P =.074). External thinking styles of male (M=15.15, SD= 2.86) and female (M=14.99, SD = 3.35), t (478) =.543, P =.588). The p values are not-significant at the 0.05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis regarding the scope (internal and external) of thinking styles at the university level is rejected.

$H_O$ 1.5 There is no gender-based significant difference in teachers regarding learning (liberal and conservative) of thinking styles at the university level.

**Table 4.83**

*The gender-based difference regarding learnings of thinking styles (N=480)*

| Learnings | Male N=206 | | Female N=274 | | t | df | Sig (2-tailed |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | SD | M | SD | | | |
| Liberal | 14.79 | 3.15 | 14.71 | 3.23 | .266 | 478 | .791 |
| Conservative | 13.10 | 3.14 | 12.74 | 3.55 | 1.140 | 478 | .255 |

Table 4.83 describes the mean dissimilarity in the-scores of learnings of male and female university teachers' thinking styles. It is observed that the average score of male teachers regarding liberal thinking styles (M=14.79, SD=3.15) and female (M=14.71, SD = 3.23), t (478) =.266, P =.791) and conservative thinking styles of male (M=13.10, SD=3.14) and female (M=12.74, SD = 3.55), t (478) = 1.140, P =.255). The p values are not-significant at the 0.05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis regarding learning (liberal and conservative) of thinking styles at the university level is rejected.

$H_O2$ There is no gender-based significant difference in job embeddedness of teachers at the university level.

**Table 4.84**

*Gender-Based Difference Regarding Job Embeddedness (N=480)*

| | Male N=206 | | Female N=274 | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | SD | M | SD | t | df | Sig (2-tailed |
| Organizational Fit | 11.28 | 3.08 | 11.42 | 2.92 | -.504 | 478 | .614 |
| Community Fit | 10.89 | 2.96 | 10.98 | 2.86 | -.330 | 478 | .742 |
| Community Links | 10.13 | 2.72 | 10.38 | 2.67 | -1.033 | 478 | .302 |
| Organizational Links | 10.76 | 2.49 | 10.21 | 2.61 | 2.325 | 478 | .020 |
| Organizational Sacrifice | 10.51 | 2.59 | 10.37 | 2.79 | .564 | 478 | .573 |
| Community Sacrifice | 9.88 | 3.33 | 10.27 | 2.97 | -1.353 | 478 | .177 |

Table 4.84 depicts t-test statistics applied to male and female teachers' scores on the sub-scales of job embeddedness. There is a significant difference in organizational links of male and female university teachers (t (478) =2.325, p=.020) but both groups don't differ significantly from other sub-scales of job embeddedness. It is perceived that the average score of male teachers regarding organizational fit (M=11.28, SD=3.08) and female (M=11.42, SD =2.92), t (478) = -.504, P =.614). Score of male teachers about community fit (M= 10.89, SD=2.96) and female (M=10.98, SD =2.86), t (478) = -.330, P =.742). Male teachers score regarding community Links (M=10.13, SD= 2.72) and female (M= 10.38, SD =2.67), t (478) = -1.033, P =.302).

Organizational Sacrifice, male teachers score (M=10.51, SD=2.59) and female (M=10.37, SD =.2.79), t (478) = .564, P =.573). Community sacrifice score of male teachers (M=9.88, SD=3.33) and female (M=10.27, SD = 2.97), t (478) = -1.353, P =.177). No significant differences are found related to subscales of job embeddedness among male and female university teachers except organizational links.

$H_O$ 2.1 There is no gender-based significant difference in teachers related to fit (comfort) with organization and community at the university level.

**Table 4.85**

*Fit in organization and community (N=480)*

| Fit | Male N=206 | | Female N=274 | | t | df | Sig (2-tailed |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | SD | M | SD | | | |
| Organizational Fit | 11.28 | 3.08 | 11.42 | 2.92 | -.504 | 478 | .614 |
| Community Fit | 10.89 | 2.96 | 10.98 | 2.86 | -.330 | 478 | .742 |

Table 4.85 depicts t-test statistics applied to male and female teachers' scores regarding fit in organization and community. It is observed that the average score of male teachers regarding organizational fit (M=11.28, SD=3.08) and female (M=11.42, SD =2.92), t (478) = -.504, P =.614). Score of male teachers about community fit (M= 10.89, SD=2.96) and female (M=10.98, SD =2.86), t (478) = -.330, P =.742). The p values are not-significant at the 0.05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis related to fit (comfort) with organization and community at the university level is rejected.

$H_O$ 2.2 There is no gender-based significant difference in teachers related to links (connections) with organization and community at the university level.

**Table 4.86**

*Links with organization and community (N=480)*

| Links | Male N=206 | | Female N=274 | | t | df | Sig (2-tailed |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | SD | M | SD | | | |
| Community Links | 10.13 | 2.72 | 10.38 | 2.67 | -1.033 | 478 | .302 |
| Organizational Links | 10.76 | 2.49 | 10.21 | 2.61 | 2.325 | 478 | .020 |

Table 4.86 describes the mean difference in the scores of Links with organization and community of male and female university teachers. Male teachers score regarding community Links (M=10.13, SD= 2.72) and female (M= 10.38, SD =2.67), t (478) = -1.033, P =.302). Male teachers score regarding organizational links (M=10.76, SD=2.49) and female (M=10.21, SD =.2.61), t (478) = .2.325, P =.020). Value of the t-test shows no gender-based differences in the opinion of teachers about links with the community. However, it is observed that there is a significant difference in organizational links between male and female university teachers (t (478) =2.325, p=.020).

$H_O$ 2.3 There is no gender-based significant difference in teachers related to sacrifice for organization and community at the university level.

**Table 4.87**

*Sacrifice for organization and community (N=480)*

| Sacrifice | Male N=206 | | Female N=274 | | t | df | Sig (2-tailed |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | SD | M | SD | | | |
| Organizational Sacrifice | 10.51 | 2.59 | 10.37 | 2.79 | .564 | 478 | .573 |
| Community Sacrifice | 9.88 | 3.33 | 10.27 | 2.97 | -1.353 | 478 | .177 |

Table 4.87 describes the mean dissimilarity in the sacrifice scores for the organization and community of male and female university teachers. The score of male teachers regarding organizational sacrifice (M=10.51, SD=2.59) and female (M=10.37, SD =.2.79), t (478) = .564, P =.573). Community sacrifice score of male teachers (M=9.88, SD=3.33) and female (M=10.27, SD = 2.97), t (478) = -1.353, P =.177). The p values are not significant at the 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis about sacrifice for organization and community at the university level is rejected.

$H_O$3 There is no noteworthy difference between government and private university teachers regarding thinking style.

**Table 4.88**

*Difference between public and private university teachers regarding thinking style (N=480)*

| | Public N=311 | | Private N=169 | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | SD | M | SD | T | Df | Sig (2-tailed |
| Legislative | 14.92 | 2.97 | 14.16 | 3.10 | 2.63 | 478 | .009 |
| Executive | 15.29 | 3.07 | 14.59 | 2.99 | 2.406 | 478 | .017 |
| Judicial | 14.77 | 2.85 | 13.96 | 2.75 | 3.016 | 478 | .003 |
| Monarchic | 14.48 | 3.25 | 13.99 | 3.18 | 1.581 | 478 | .114 |
| Hierarchic | 15.57 | 2.93 | 14.61 | 3.06 | 3.38 | 478 | .001 |
| Oligarchic | 14.43 | 3.05 | 13.19 | 3.46 | 4.058 | 478 | .000 |
| Anarchic | 13.66 | 3.16 | 12.72 | 3.34 | 3.037 | 478 | .003 |
| Local | 14.31 | 3.15 | 13.4 | 3.15 | 2.987 | 478 | .003 |
| Global | 13.83 | 2.94 | 13.38 | 2.89 | 1.612 | 478 | .108 |
| Internal | 13.92 | 3.32 | 13.32 | 3.77 | 1.791 | 478 | .074 |
| External | 15.40 | 3.02 | 14.44 | 3.29 | 3.221 | 478 | .001 |
| Liberal | 14.95 | 3.24 | 14.37 | 3.09 | 1.899 | 478 | .058 |
| Conservative | 13.02 | 3.30 | 12.66 | 3.53 | 1.130 | 478 | .259 |

Table 4.88 illustrates t-test statistics applied to scores of public and private university teachers on sub-scales of thinking styles. It is observed that there are significant differences in legislative, executive, judicial, hierarchic, oligarchic, anarchic, local and external thinking style of the university teachers at public and private sector. Legislative thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=14.92, SD=2.97) and private (M=14.16, SD =3.10), t (478) =.2.63, P =.009). Executive thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=15.29, SD=3.07) and private sector teachers (M=14.59, SD =2.99), t (478) = 2.406, P =.017). Judicial thinking styles of public sector teachers

(M=14.77, SD=2.85) and private sector teachers (M=13.96, SD =2.75), t (478) =3.016, P =.003). Hierarchic thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=15.57, SD=2.93) and private sector (M=14.61, SD =.3.06), t (478) = 3.38, P =.001). Oligarchic thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=14.43, SD=3.05) and private teachers (M=13.19, SD = 3.46), t (478) = 4.058, P =.000). Anarchic thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=13.66, SD=3.16) and private sector teachers (M=12.72, SD = 3.34), t (478) =3.037, P =.003). Local thinking style of public sector teachers (M=14.31, SD= 3.15) and private sector teachers (M=13.4, SD= 3.15), t (478) =2.987, P =.003). External thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=15.40, SD= 3.02) and private sector teachers (M=14.44, SD = 3.29), t (478) =3.221, P =.001). Both groups don't differ significantly with respect to monarchic, global, internal, liberal, conservative thinking styles. The p values regarding these thinking styles are not significant. Monarchic thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=14.48, SD=3.25) and private (M=13.99, SD = 3.18), t (478) = 1.581, P =.114). Global thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=13.83, SD= 2.94) and private sector teachers (M=13.38, SD = 2.89), t (478) = 1.612, P =.108). Internal thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=13.92, SD=3.32) and private sector teachers (M=13.32, SD = 3.77), t (478) =1.791, P =.074). Liberal thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=14.95, SD=3.24) and private (M=14.37, SD = 3.09), t (478) = 1.899, P =.058) and conservative thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=13.02, SD=3.30) and private sector teachers (M=12.66, SD = 3.53), t (478) = 1.130, P =.259). Significant differences were found related to these (legislative, executive, judicial, hierarchic, oligarchic, anarchic, local and external) subscales of thinking styles among university teachers at public and private sector except monarchic, global, internal, liberal and conservative thinking style (t (478)=1.581, p=.114, t

=1.612, p=.108, t=1.791, p=.074, t =1.899, p=.058, t=1.130, p=.259 respectively). The p values regarding these thinking styles are not significant.

$H_O$ 3.1 There is no significant difference between public and private university teachers regarding functions of thinking style.

**Table 4.89**

*The difference in public and private university teachers regarding functions of thinking style (N=480)*

| | Public N=311 | | Private N=169 | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Function | M | SD | M | SD | t | Df | Sig (2-tailed |
| Legislative | 14.92 | 2.97 | 14.16 | 3.10 | 2.63 | 478 | .009 |
| Executive | 15.29 | 3.07 | 14.59 | 2.99 | 2.406 | 478 | .017 |
| Judicial | 14.77 | 2.85 | 13.96 | 2.75 | 3.016 | 478 | .003 |

Table 4.89 illustrates the mean difference in the scores of functions of thinking styles of public and private sector university teachers. It is observed that the average score of legislative thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=14.92, SD=2.97) and private (M=14.16, SD =3.10), t (478) =.2.63, P =.009). Executive thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=15.29, SD=3.07) and private sector teachers (M=14.59, SD =2.99), t (478) = 2.406, P =.017). Judicial thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=14.77, SD=2.85) and private sector teachers (M=13.96, SD =2.75), t (478) =3.016, P =.003).The p values are significant at a 0.05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis regarding the functions of teachers' thinking styles at the public and private university levels is rejected.

$H_O$ 3.2 There is no difference between Govt and private university teachers regarding forms of thinking style.

**Table 4.90**

*The difference in public and private university teachers regarding forms of thinking style (N=480)*

| Forms | Public N=311 | | Private N=169 | | t | Df | Sig (2-tailed |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | SD | M | SD | | | |
| Monarchic | 14.48 | 3.25 | 13.99 | 3.18 | 1.581 | 478 | .114 |
| Hierarchic | 15.57 | 2.93 | 14.61 | 3.06 | 3.38 | 478 | .001 |
| Oligarchic | 14.43 | 3.05 | 13.19 | 3.46 | 4.058 | 478 | .000 |
| Anarchic | 13.66 | 3.16 | 12.72 | 3.34 | 3.037 | 478 | .003 |

Table 4.90 illustrates the mean difference in the scores of forms of thinking styles of govt and-private sector university teachers. It is observed that the average score of Monarchic thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=14.48, SD=3.25) and private sector teachers (M=13.99, SD = 3.18), t (478) = 1.581, P =.114). Hierarchic thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=15.57, SD=2.93) and private sector (M=14.61, SD =.3.06), t (478) = 3.38, P =.001). Oligarchic thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=14.43, SD=3.05) and private teachers (M=13.19, SD = 3.46), t (478) = 4.058, P =.000). Anarchic thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=13.66, SD=3.16) and private sector teachers (M=12.72, SD = 3.34), t (478) =3.037, P =.003).The p values regarding hierarchic, oligarchic, and anarchic are significant at a 0.05 level of significance. There-is no significant-difference in govt and private university instructors' opinions about monarchic thinking style, as the p-value (t (478) = 1.581, P =.114) is not significant.

$H_O$ 3.3 There is no significant difference between public and private university teachers in levels of thinking style.

**Table 4.91**

*Differences in public and private university teachers regarding levels of thinking style (N=480)*

| | Public N=311 | | Private N=169 | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Levels | M | SD | M | SD | t | df | Sig (2-tailed |
| Local | 14.31 | 3.15 | 13.4 | 3.15 | 2.987 | 478 | .003 |
| Global | 13.83 | 2.94 | 13.38 | 2.89 | 1.612 | 478 | .108 |

Table 4.91 demonstrates the mean dissimilarity in the scores of public and private sector university teachers' levels of thinking styles. It is observed that the average score of local thinking style of public sector teachers (M=14.31, SD= 3.15) and private sector teachers (M=13.4, SD= 3.15), t (478) =2.987, P =.003). Global thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=13.83, SD= 2.94) and private sector teachers (M=13.38, SD = 2.89), t (478) = 1.612, P =.108). The p-value regarding local thinking style is significant at a 0.05 level of significance. There is no difference in govt and private university teachers' opinions regarding global thinking style, as the p-value (t (478) = 1.612, P =.108) is insignificant.

$H_O$ 3.4 There is no noteworthy difference between govt and private university instructors regarding the scope of thinking style.

**Table 4.92**

*Differences in public and private university teachers regarding scopes of thinking style (N=480)*

| Scope | Public N=311 | | Private N=169 | | t | Df | Sig (2-tailed |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | SD | M | SD | | | |
| Internal | 13.92 | 3.32 | 13.32 | 3.77 | 1.791 | 478 | .074 |
| External | 15.40 | 3.02 | 14.44 | 3.29 | 3.221 | 478 | .001 |

Table 4.92 explains the mean dissimilarity in the scores of public and private sector university teachers' scope of thinking styles. It is observed that the average score of internal thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=13.92, SD=3.32) and private sector teachers (M=13.32, SD = 3.77), t (478) =1.791, P =.074). External thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=15.40, SD= 3.02) and private sector teachers (M=14.44, SD = 3.29), t (478) =3.221, P =.001). The p-value regarding external thinking style is significant at a 0.05 level of significance. There is no noteworthy difference-in govt and private university teachers' opinions about internal thinking style, as the p-value (t (478) =1.791, P =.074) is not significant.

$H_O$ 3.5 There is no difference between govt and private university teachers regarding the learning of thinking style.

**Table 4.93**

*The difference in both sectors university teachers regarding learning of thinking style (N=480)*

| | Public N=311 | | Private N=169 | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Learning | M | SD | M | SD | t | df | Sig (2-tailed |
| Liberal | 14.95 | 3.24 | 14.37 | 3.09 | 1.899 | 478 | .058 |
| Conservative | 13.02 | 3.30 | 12.66 | 3.53 | 1.130 | 478 | .259 |

Table 4.93 demonstrates the mean difference in the scores of learning of thinking styles of govt and private sector university teachers. It is observed that the average score of liberal thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=14.95, SD=3.24) and private (M=14.37, SD = 3.09), t (478) = 1.899, P =.058) and conservative thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=13.02, SD=3.30) and private sector teachers (M=12.66, SD = 3.53), t (478) = 1.130, P =.259). The p values are not significant at the 0.05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis regarding the learnings (liberal and conservative) of teachers' thinking styles at the public and private university level is failed to reject.

$H_O4$ There is no difference between public and private university teachers regarding their job embeddedness.

**Table 4.94**

*Differences in Public and Private University Teachers Regarding Job Embeddedness (N=480)*

| | Public N=311 | | Private N=169 | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | SD | M | SD | t | df | Sig (2-tailed |
| Organizational Fit | 11.56 | 2.91 | 10.98 | 3.10 | 2.055 | 478 | .040 |
| Community Fit | 11.06 | 2.82 | 10.73 | 3.05 | 1.199 | 478 | .231 |
| Organizational Links | 10.68 | 2.51 | 10.02 | 2.64 | 2.711 | 478 | .007 |
| Community Links | 10.39 | 2.73 | 10.06 | 2.62 | 1.281 | 478 | .201 |
| Organizational Sacrifice | 10.56 | 2.74 | 10.18 | 2.63 | 1.467 | 478 | .143 |
| Community Sacrifice | 10.21 | 3.1 | 9.91 | 3.2 | 1.012 | 478 | .312 |

Table 4.94 depicts t-test statistics applied to public and private sector university teachers' scores on job embeddedness subscales. It is observed that there is a significant difference in govt and private university teachers' opinions regarding organizational fit (t (478) =2.055, p=.040) and organizational links (t (478) =2.711, p=.007). There is no significant difference to other sub-scales of job embeddedness. The average score of public sector teachers regarding community fit (M=11.06, SD=2.82) and private university teachers (M=10.73, SD =3.05), t (478) = -1.199, P =.231). Score of public sector teachers about community links (M= 10.39, SD=2.73) and private university teachers (M=10.06, SD =2.62), t (478) = 1.281, P =.201). Public sector university teachers score regarding organizational sacrifice (M=10.56, SD=2.74) and private

sector teachers (M=10.18, SD =.2.63), t (478) = 1.467, P =.143). Community sacrifice score of public sector teachers (M=10.21, SD=3.1) and private university teachers (M=9.91, SD = 3.2), t (478) = -1.012, P =.312). Significant differences are found in teachers' opinion regarding organizational fit and organizational links, but no significant differences are found in the opinion of public and private university teachers regarding community fit, community links, organizational sacrifice, and community sacrifice.

$H_O$ 4.1 There is no difference between govt and private university teachers related to fit (comfort) with organization and community.

**Table 4.95**

*The difference in Public and Private University Teachers Regarding Fit in Job Embeddedness (N=480)*

| | Public N=311 | | Private N=169 | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Fit | M | SD | M | SD | t | df | Sig (2-tailed |
| Organizational Fit | 11.56 | 2.91 | 10.98 | 3.1 | 2.055 | 478 | .040 |
| Community Fit | 11.06 | 2.82 | 10.73 | 3.05 | 1.199 | 478 | .231 |

Table 4.95 portrays t-test statistics applied to public and private sector teachers' scores regarding fit in organization and community. It is observed that there is a significant difference in public and private university teachers' opinions regarding

organizational fit (t (478) =2.055, p=.040) but no significant difference in community fit. The average score of public sector teachers regarding community fit (M=11.06, SD=2.82) and private university teachers (M=10.73, SD =3.05), t (478) = -1.199, P =.231). The p-value related to community fit is not-significant at the 0.05 level.

$H_O$ 4.2 There is no significant difference between public and private university teachers related to links (connections) with organization and community.

**Table 4.96**

*The difference regarding Links with Job Embeddedness (N=480)*

| | Public N=311 | | Private N=169 | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Link | M | SD | M | SD | t | df | Sig (2-tailed |
| Organizational Links | 10.68 | 2.51 | 10.02 | 2.64 | 2.711 | 478 | .007 |
| Community Links | 10.39 | 2.73 | 10.06 | 2.62 | 1.281 | 478 | .201 |

Table 4.96 portrays t-test statistics applied to scores of both sector university educators' opinions regarding links of job embeddedness. It is observed that there is a significant difference in both university teachers' opinions regarding organizational links (t (478) =2.711, p=.007). However, there is no significant difference in teachers' opinions related to community links. Score of public sector teachers about community links (M= 10.39, SD=2.73) and private university teachers (M=10.06, SD =2.62), t (478) = 1.281, P =.201). The p-value related to community links is not significant at the 0.05 level of significance.

$H_O$ 4.3 There is no difference between govt and private university teachers related to sacrifice for the organization and community.

**Table 4.97**

*The difference in public and private university teachers regarding sacrifice job embeddedness (N=480)*

| Sacrifice | Public N=311 | | Private N=169 | | t | df | Sig (2-tailed |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | SD | M | SD | | | |
| Organizational Sacrifice | 10.56 | 2.74 | 10.18 | 2.63 | 1.467 | 478 | .143 |
| Community Sacrifice | 10.21 | 3.1 | 9.91 | 3.2 | 1.012 | 478 | .312 |

Table 4.97 portrays t-test statistics applied to scores of public and Private Sector University teachers' opinions regarding sacrifice related to job embeddedness. Public sector university teachers score regarding organizational sacrifice (M=10.56, SD=2.74) and private sector teachers (M=10.18, SD =.2.63), t (478) = 1.467, P =.143). Community sacrifice score of public sector teachers (M=10.21, SD=3.1) and private university teachers (M=9.91, SD = 3.2), t (478) = -1.012, P =.312). It is observed that there is no difference in both sector university teachers' opinions regarding organizational sacrifice and community sacrifice. The p values related to organizational and community sacrifice are not significant at the 0.05 level.

$H_O$ 5 There is no significant difference in teachers' of-different departments regarding functions of thinking styles at the university level.

**Table 4.98**

*Analysis Of Variance on Means Comparison among Teachers of Different Departments regarding Functions of Thinking Styles (N=480)*

| Variables | Departments | *N* | Mean | *df* | F | Sig |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Functions of thinking styles | Social sciences | 119 | 3.64 | 476 | 3.936 | .009 |
| | Management sciences | 130 | 3.86 | | | |
| | Computer sciences | 121 | 3.71 | | | |
| | Engineering | 110 | 3.63 | | | |

Table 4.98 illustrates the results related to the functions of teachers' thinking styles. Analysis of variance is applied to determine the significant difference in functions of thinking style among the respondents of different departments at the university level. It is observed that teachers of management sciences departments have the highest mean score (M= 3.86), whereas teachers of engineering departments have the lowest score (M=3.63). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicates that the difference in mean scores of instructors regarding functions of thinking styles is statistically significant (F (476) = 3.936, p=.009). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 5) is rejected.

$H_O$ 6 There is no difference in teachers of different departments about forms of thinking styles at the university level.

**Table 4.99**

*Analysis Of Variance on Means Comparison among Teachers of Different Departments regarding Forms of Thinking Styles (N=480)*

| Variables | Departments | *N* | Mean | *df* | F | Sig |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Forms of thinking styles | Social sciences | 119 | 3.52 | 476 | 4.417 | .004 |
| | Management sciences | 130 | 3.63 | | | |
| | Computer sciences | 121 | 3.63 | | | |
| | Engineering | 110 | 3.40 | | | |

Table 4.99 demonstrates the results related to the teachers' thinking styles. Analysis of variance is applied to determine the significant difference in thinking style among the respondents of different departments at the university level. It is observed that teachers of management sciences and computer sciences departments have the same highest mean score (M= 3.63), whereas teachers of engineering departments have the lowest score (M=3.40). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicates that the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding forms of thinking styles is statistically significant (F (476) = 4.417, p=.004). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 6) is rejected.

$H_O$ 7 There is no significant difference in teachers of different departments regarding levels of thinking styles at the university level.

**Table 4.100**

*Analysis Of Variance on Means Comparison among the Teachers of Different Departments regarding Levels of Thinking Styles (N=480)*

| Variables | Departments | *N* | Mean | *df* | F | Sig |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Levels of thinking styles | Social sciences | 119 | 3.41 | 476 | 3.041 | .029 |
| | Management sciences | 130 | 3.59 | | | |
| | Computer sciences | 121 | 3.45 | | | |
| | Engineering | 110 | 3.36 | | | |

Analysis of variance is applied to determine the significant difference in levels of thinking styles among the respondents of different departments at the university level. Table 4.100 portrays the results related to the levels of thinking styles of the teachers. It is observed that teachers of management sciences departments have the highest mean score (M= 3.59), whereas teachers of engineering departments have the lowest score (M=3.36). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicates that the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding levels of thinking styles is statistically significant (F (476) = 3.041, p=.029). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 7) is rejected.

$H_O$ 8 There is no significant difference in teachers of different departments regarding scopes thinking styles at the university level.

**Table 4.101**

*Analysis Of Variance on Means Comparison among the Teachers of Different Departments regarding the Scope of Thinking Styles (N=480)*

| Variables | Departments | *N* | Mean | *df* | F | Sig |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Scope of thinking styles | Social sciences | 119 | 3.60 | 476 | 3.165 | .024 |
| | Management sciences | 130 | 3.71 | | | |
| | Computer sciences | 121 | 3.56 | | | |
| | Engineering | 110 | 3.46 | | | |

Analysis of variance is applied to determine the significant difference in the scope of thinking styles among the teachers of different departments at the university level. Table 4.101 describes the results related to the scopes of the teachers' thinking styles. It is observed that teachers of management sciences departments have the highest mean score (M= 3.71), whereas teachers of engineering departments have the lowest score (M=46). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicates that the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding the scope of thinking styles is statistically significant (F (476) = 3.165, p=.024). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 8) is rejected.

$H_O$ 9 There are no significant differences in teachers of different departments regarding the learning of thinking styles at the university level.

**Table 4.102**

*Analysis Of Variance on Means Comparison among the Teachers of Different Departments regarding Learnings of Thinking Styles* (N=480)

| Variables | Departments | *N* | Mean | *df* | F | Sig |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Learnings of thinking styles | Social sciences | 119 | 3.37 | 476 | 2.450 | .063 |
| | Management sciences | 130 | 3.56 | | | |
| | Computer sciences | 121 | 3.48 | | | |
| | Engineering | 110 | 3.37 | | | |

Analysis of variance is applied to determine the significant difference in learnings of thinking styles among the respondents of different departments at the university level. Table 4.102 represents the results related to the levels of thinking styles of the teachers. It is observed that teachers of management sciences departments have the highest mean score (M= 3.56), whereas teachers of engineering and social sciences departments have the same lowest score (M=3.37). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicates that the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding learnings of thinking styles is statistically not significant (F (476) = 2.450, p=.063). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 9) is filed to reject.

$H_O$ 10 There is no significant difference in teachers of different departments related to fit (comfort) in organization and community at the university level.

**Table 4.103**

*Analysis Of Variance on Means Comparison among the Teachers of Different Departments with Reference to Dimensions (Fit with Organization and Community) of Job Embeddedness (N=480)*

| Variables | Departments | *N* | Mean | *df* | F | Sig |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Fit with organization and community | Social sciences | 119 | 3.75 | 476 | 2.384 | .069 |
| | Management sciences | 130 | 3.83 | | | |
| | Computer sciences | 121 | 3.70 | | | |
| | Engineering | 110 | 3.55 | | | |

Table 4.103 represents the results related to dimensions of job Embeddedness. Analysis of variance is applied to determine the significant difference in Fit with Organization and Community among the respondents of different departments at the university level. It is observed that teachers of management sciences departments have the highest mean score (M= 3.83), whereas teachers of engineering departments have the lowest score (M=3.55). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicates that the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding fit with organization and community is statistically not significant (F (476) = 2.384, p=.069). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 10) is failed to reject.

$H_O$ 11 There is no significant difference in teachers of different departments related to links with organization and community at the university level.

**Table 4.104**

*Analysis Of Variance on Means Comparison among the Teachers of Different Departments regarding Dimensions (Links with Organization and Community) Job Embeddedness* (N=480)

| Variables | Departments | *N* | Mean | *Df* | F | Sig |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Links with organization and community | Social sciences | 119 | 3.48 | 476 | .476 | .699 |
| | Management sciences | 130 | 3.47 | | | |
| | Computer sciences | 121 | 3.47 | | | |
| | Engineering | 110 | 3.38 | | | |

Table 4.104 represents the results related to dimensions (links with Organization and Community) of the teachers' job Embeddedness. Analysis of variance is applied to determine the significant difference in these dimensions of Job Embeddedness among the respondents' different departments at the university level. It is observed that teachers of social sciences departments have the highest mean score (M= 3.48), whereas teachers of engineering departments have the lowest score (M=3.38). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicates that the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding links with organization and community is statistically not significant (F (476) = .476, p=.699). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 11) is failed to reject.

$H_O$ 12 There is no significant difference in teachers of different departments related to sacrifice for organization and community at the university level.

**Table 4.105**

*Analysis Of Variance on Means Comparison among the Teachers of Different Departments regarding Dimensions (Sacrifice for Organization and Community) Job Embeddedness (N=480)*

| Variables | Departments | *N* | Mean | *df* | F | Sig |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sacrifice for organization and community | Social sciences | 119 | 3.37 | 476 | 2.304 | .076 |
| | Management sciences | 130 | 3.50 | | | |
| | Computer sciences | 121 | 3.51 | | | |
| | Engineering | 110 | 3.27 | | | |

Table 4.105 represents the results related to dimensions of job Embeddedness. Analysis of variance is applied to determine the significant difference in sacrifice for organization and Community among the respondents of different departments at the university level. It is observed that teachers of computer sciences departments have the highest mean score (M= 3.51), whereas teachers of engineering departments have the lowest score (M=3.27). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicates that the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding sacrifice for organization and community is statistically not significant (F (476) = 2.304, p=.076). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 12) is failed to reject.

$H_O$ 13 There are no significant differences in teachers regarding thinking styles based on qualifications at the university level.

**Table 4.106**

*Analysis Of Variance on Means Comparison among teachers based on qualification regarding Functions of Thinking Styles (N=480)*

| Variables | Qualification | *N* | Mean | *Df* | F | Sig |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Functions of thinking styles | M.A. | 102 | 3.82 | 477 | 7.562 | .001 |
| | M.Phil. | 279 | 3.75 | | | |
| | Ph.D. | 99 | 3.51 | | | |

Analysis of variance is applied to determine the significant difference in functions of thinking styles among the respondents based on qualification at the university level. Table 4.106 elucidates the results related to the functions of teachers' thinking styles. It is evident from this table that the highest mean score (M= 3.82) is observed against the teachers having M.A qualifications. At the same time, Ph.D. teachers have the lowest score (M=3.51). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicates that the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding functions of thinking styles is statistically significant (F (477) = 7.562, p=.001). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 13) is rejected.

$H_O$ 14 There are no significant differences in teachers' forms of thinking styles based on qualifications at the university level.

**Table 4.107**

*Analysis Of Variance on Means Comparison among Teachers on the basis of Qualification regarding Forms of Thinking Styles (N=480)*

| Variables | Qualification | *N* | Mean | *df* | F | Sig |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Forms of thinking styles | M.A. | 102 | 3.65 | 477 | 6.360 | .002 |
| | M.Phil. | 279 | 3.58 | | | |
| | Ph.D. | 99 | 3.37 | | | |

Analysis of variance is applied to determine the significant difference in forms of thinking styles among the respondents based on qualification at the university level. Table 4.107 reveals the results related to the forms of thinking styles. It is evident from this table that the highest mean score (M= 3.65) is observed against the teachers having M.A qualifications. At the same time, Ph.D. teachers have the lowest score (M=3.37). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) illustrates that the difference in mean scores of educators regarding forms of thinking styles is statistically significant (F (477) = 6.360, p=.002). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 14) is rejected.

$H_O$ 15 There are no significant differences in teachers regarding levels of thinking styles based on qualifications at the university level.

**Table 4.108**

*Analysis of Variance on Means Comparison among teachers based on qualification regarding Levels of Thinking Styles (N=480)*

| Variables | Qualification | *N* | Mean | *df* | F | Sig |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Levels of thinking styles | M.A. | 102 | 3.52 | 477 | 3.940 | .020 |
| | M.Phil. | 279 | 3.49 | | | |
| | Ph.D. | 99 | 3.3 | | | |

Analysis of variance is applied to determine the significant difference in levels of thinking styles among the teachers based on qualification at the university level. Table 4.108 portrays the results related to teachers' levels of thinking styles. It is evident from this table that the highest mean score (M= 3.52) is observed against the teachers having an M.A degree. At the same time, Ph.D. teachers have the lowest score (M=3.3). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicates that the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding levels of thinking styles is statistically significant (F (477) = 3.940, p=.020). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 15) is rejected.

$H_O$ 16 There is no significant differences in teachers regarding scopes of thinking styles based on qualification at the university level.

**Table 4.109**

*Analysis Of Variance on Means Comparison among teachers based on qualification regarding the Scope of Thinking Styles (N=480)*

| Variables | Qualification | *N* | Mean | *df* | F | Sig |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Scope of thinking styles | M.A. | 102 | 3.63 | 477 | 2.969 | .052 |
| | M.Phil. | 279 | 3.63 | | | |
| | Ph.D. | 99 | 3.45 | | | |

Analysis of variance is applied to determine the significant difference in the respondents' scope of thinking styles based on qualifications at the university level. Table 4.109 explains the results related to the scope of teachers' thinking styles. It is evident from this table that the highest mean score (M= 3.63) is observed against the teachers having M.A and M.Phil. Qualification. Whereas Ph.D. teachers have the lowest mean score (M=3.45). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) illustrates that the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding the scope of thinking styles is statistically significant (F (477) = 2.969, p=.052). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 16) is failed to reject.

$H_O$ 17 There are no significant differences in teachers' learning or thinking styles based on qualifications at the university level.

**Table 4.110**

*Analysis Of Variance on Means Comparison among teachers based on qualification regarding Learnings of Thinking Styles (N=480)*

| Variables | Qualification | *N* | Mean | *Df* | F | Sig |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Learnings of thinking styles | M.A. | 102 | 3.56 | 477 | 6.461 | .002 |
| | M.Phil. | 279 | 3.48 | | | |
| | Ph.D. | 99 | 3.26 | | | |

One way ANOVA is applied to determine the significant difference in learnings of thinking styles among the teachers based on qualification at the university level. Table 4.110 describes the results related to the learning of teachers' thinking styles. It is evident from this table that the highest mean score (M= 3.56) is observed against the teachers having M.A qualifications. At the same time, Ph.D. teachers have the lowest score (M=3.26). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicates that the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding the learning of thinking styles is statistically not significant (F (477) = 6.461, p=.002). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 17) is reject.

$H_O$ 18 There is no significant difference in teachers related to fit (comfort) in organization and community based on qualification at the university level.

**Table 4.111**

*Analysis Of Variance on Means Comparison among Teachers based on qualification regarding Dimensions (Fit with Organization and Community) Job Embeddedness* (N=480)

| Variables | Qualification | *N* | Mean | *Df* | F | Sig |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Fit with organization and community | M.A. | 102 | 3.74 | 477 | 9.971 | .001 |
| | M.Phil. | 279 | 3.82 | | | |
| | Ph.D. | 99 | 3.39 | | | |

Table 4.111 represents the results related to dimensions of job Embeddedness. Analysis of variance is applied to determine the significant difference in dimensions of embeddedness among the teachers based on qualification at the university level. It is observed that the highest mean score (M= 3.82) is observed against the teachers having M.Phil. qualifications. At the same time, Ph.D. teachers have the lowest score (M=3.39). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) points out that the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding fit with organization and community is statistically significant (F (477) = 9.971, p=.001). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 18) is rejected.

*HO 19* There is no difference in teachers related to links (connections) with organization and community based on qualification at the university level.

**Table 4.112**

*Analysis Of Variance on Means Comparison among Teachers based on qualification regarding Dimensions (Links with Organization and Community) of Job Embeddedness (N=480)*

| Variables | Qualification | *N* | Mean | *df* | F | Sig |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Links with organization and community | M.A. | 102 | 3.51 | 477 | 4.676 | .010 |
| | M.Phil. | 279 | 3.50 | | | |
| | Ph.D. | 99 | 3.25 | | | |

Table 4.112 represents the results related to dimensions (links with organization and community) of the teachers' job Embeddedness. Analysis of variance is applied to determine the significant difference in dimensions of Job Embeddedness among the teachers based on qualification at the university level. It is observed that the highest mean score (M= 3.51) is observed against the teachers having M.A qualifications. In comparison, Ph.D. teachers have the lowest score (M=3.25). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) illustrates that the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding links with organization and community is statistically significant (F (477) = 4.676, p=.010). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 19) is rejected.

$H_O$ 20 There is no difference in teachers-related sacrifice for organization and community based on qualification at the university level.

**Table 4.113**

*Analysis Of Variance on Means Comparison among Teachers based on qualification regarding Dimensions (Sacrifice for Organization and Community) Job Embeddedness (*N=480*)*

| Variables | Qualification | *N* | Mean | *Df* | F | Sig |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sacrifice for organization and community | M.A. | 102 | 3.48 | 477 | 6.945 | .001 |
| | M.Phil. | 279 | 3.49 | | | |
| | Ph.D. | 99 | 3.14 | | | |

Table 4.113 explains the results related to dimensions (Sacrifice for Institute and Community) of the teachers' job Embeddedness. Analysis of variance is applied to determine the significant difference in job Embeddedness among the teachers on qualification at the university level. This table illustrates the highest mean score (M= 3.49) against the teachers having M.Phil. Qualification. Whereas Ph.D. teachers have the lowest score (M=3.14). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) illustrates that the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding sacrifice for organization and community is statistically significant (F (477) = 6.945, p=.001). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 20) is rejected.

$H_O$ 21 There are no significant differences in teachers regarding functions of thinking styles based on experience at the university level.

**Table 4.114**

Analysis Of Variance on Means Comparison among teachers based on experience regarding Functions of Thinking Styles (N=480)

| Variables | Experience | *N* | Mean | *df* | F | Sig |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Functions of thinking styles | 1-5 | 143 | 3.69 | 476 | 1.412 | .239 |
| | 6-10 | 130 | 3.71 | | | |
| | 11-15 | 146 | 3.78 | | | |
| | above 15 | 61 | 3.60 | | | |

One way ANOVA is applied to determine the significant difference regarding these thinking styles based on the university experience. Table 4.114 elucidates the results related to the functions of the teachers' thinking styles. It is evident from this table that the highest mean score (M= 3.78) is observed against the teachers having 11-15 years' experience. At the same time, teachers' responses with above 15 years' experience show the lowest score (M=3.60). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) illustrates the difference in mean scores of instructors regarding functions of thinking styles is statistically not significant (F (476) = 1.412, p=.239). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 21) is failed to reject.

$H_O$ 22 There is no significant differences in teachers regarding forms of thinking styles based on experience at the university level.

**Table 4.115**

*Analysis Of Variance on Means Comparison among teachers basis of experience about Forms of Thinking Styles* (*N*=480)

| Variables | Experience | *N* | Mean | *df* | F | Sig |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Forms of thinking styles | 1-5 | 143 | 3.49 | 476 | 1.210 | .306 |
| | 6-10 | 130 | 3.55 | | | |
| | 11-15 | 146 | 3.62 | | | |
| | above 15 | 61 | 3.52 | | | |

Table 4.115 explains the results of the forms of thinking styles of the educators. ANOVA is applied to determine the significant difference between these thinking styles based on the university experience. It is evident from this table that the highest mean score (M= 3.62) is observed against the teachers having 11-15 years' experience. At the same time, responses of teachers having 1-5 years' experience show the lowest score (M=3.52). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) illustrates that the difference in mean scores of instructors regarding forms of thinking styles is statistically not significant (F (476) = 1.210, p=.306). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 22) is failed to reject.

$H_O$ 23 There are no significant differences in teachers regarding levels of thinking styles based on experience at the university level.

**Table 4.116**

*Analysis Of Variance on Means Comparison among teachers based on experience regarding levels of Thinking Styles (N=480)*

| Variables | Experience | *N* | Mean | *Df* | F | Sig |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Levels of thinking styles | 1-5 | 143 | 3.37 | 476 | 2.155 | .093 |
| | 6-10 | 130 | 3.45 | | | |
| | 11-15 | 146 | 3.55 | | | |
| | above 15 | 61 | 3.41 | | | |

Table 4.116 explains the results about the levels of thinking styles of the educators. ANOVA is applied to determine the significant difference regarding these thinking styles based on the university experience. It is evident from this table that the highest mean score (M= 3.55) is observed against the teachers having 11-15 years of experience. At the same time, responses of teachers having 1-5 years' experience show the lowest score (M=3.37). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) describes the difference in mean scores of educators regarding levels of thinking styles as statistically not significant (F (476) = 2.155, p=.093). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 23) is failed to reject.

$H_O$ 24 There is no significant differences in teachers regarding scopes of thinking styles based on experience at the university level.

**Table 4.117**

*Analysis Of Variance on Means Comparison among teachers basis of experience regarding the Scope of Thinking Styles (N=480)*

| Variables | Experience | *N* | Mean | *df* | F | Sig |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Scope of thinking styles | 1-5 | 143 | 3.54 | 476 | 1.535 | .204 |
| | 6-10 | 130 | 3.58 | | | |
| | 11-15 | 146 | 3.68 | | | |
| | above 15 | 61 | 3.51 | | | |

Table 4.117 elucidates the results related to the scope of the teachers' thinking styles. ANOVA is applied to determine the significant difference regarding these thinking styles based on experience at the university level. . It is evident from this table that the highest mean score (M= 3.68) is observed against the teachers having 11-15 years of experience. At the same time, teachers' responses with above 15 years' experience show the lowest score (M=3.51). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) presents the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding levels of thinking styles is statistically not significant (F (476) = 1.535, p=.204). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 24) is failed to reject.

$H_O$ 25 There is no significant difference in teachers related to learning of thinking styles based on experience at the university level.

**Table 4.118**

*Analysis Of Variance on Means Comparison among teachers based on experience regarding Learnings of Thinking Styles (N=480)*

| Variables | Experience | *N* | Mean | *df* | F | Sig |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Learnings of thinking styles | 1-5 | 143 | 3.38 | 476 | 1.482 | .219 |
| | 6-10 | 130 | 3.43 | | | |
| | 11-15 | 146 | 3.54 | | | |
| | above 15 | 61 | 3.44 | | | |

Table 4.118 elucidates the results related to the learning of the teachers' thinking styles. ANOVA is applied to determine the significant difference regarding these thinking styles based on experience at the university level. . It is evident from this table that the highest mean score (M= 3.54) is observed against the teachers having 11-15 years of experience. At the same time, responses of teachers having 1-5 years' experience show the lowest score (M=3.38). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) describes the difference in mean scores of instructors regarding learnings of thinking styles is statistically not significant (F (476) = 1.482, p=.219). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 25) is failed to reject.

$H_O$ 26 There is no difference in instructors related to fit (comfort) in organization and community based on experience at the university level.

**Table 4.119**

Analysis Of Variance on Means Comparison among the teachers based on experience regarding Dimensions (Fit with Organization and Community) Job Embeddedness (N=480)

| Variables | Experience | *N* | Mean | *df* | F | Sig |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Fit with organization and community | 1-5 | 143 | 3.70 | 476 | .874 | .455 |
| | 6-10 | 130 | 3.63 | | | |
| | 11-15 | 146 | 3.79 | | | |
| | above 15 | 61 | 3.70 | | | |

Table 4.119 explains the results related to dimensions (Fit with Organization and Community) of the teachers' job embeddedness. ANOVA is applied to determine the significant difference regarding these fit with organization and community based on experience at the university level. . It is evident from this table that the highest mean score (M= 3.79) is observed against the teachers having 11-15 years' of experience. At the same time, responses of teachers having 6-10 years' experience show the lowest score (M=3.63). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) describes the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding fit with organization and community as statistically not significant (F (476) =.874, p=.455). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 26) is failed to reject.

$H_O$ 27 There is no significant difference in teachers related to links (connections) with organization and community based on experience at the university level.

**Table 4.120**

Analysis Of Variance on Means Comparison among teachers basis of experience regarding Dimensions (Links with Organization and Community) Job Embeddedness (*N*=480)

| Variables | Experience | *N* | Mean | *Df* | F | Sig |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Links with organization and community | 1-5 | 143 | 3.41 | 476 | 1.643 | .179 |
| | 6-10 | 130 | 3.51 | | | |
| | 11-15 | 146 | 3.50 | | | |
| | above 15 | 61 | 3.29 | | | |

Table 4.120 reveals the results related to dimensions (links with Organization and Community) of the teachers' job embeddedness. ANOVA is applied to determine the significant difference between these links between organization and community based on the university experience. It is evident from this table that the highest mean score (M= 3.51) is observed against the instructors having 6-10 years of experience. At the same time, teachers with over 15 years of experience show the lowest score (M=3.29). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicates that the mean difference scores of teachers regarding links with organization and community are statistically not significant (F (476) = 1.643, p=.179). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 27) is failed to reject.

$H_O$ 28 There is no significant difference in instructors related to sacrifice for organization and community based on experience at the university level.

**Table 4.121**

Analysis Of Variance on Means Comparison among teachers basis of experience Regarding Dimensions (Sacrifice for Organization and Community) Job Embeddedness (N=480)

| Variables | Experience | *N* | Mean | *df* | F | Sig |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sacrifice for organization and community | 1-5 | 143 | 3.36 | 476 | 1.797 | .147 |
| | 6-10 | 130 | 3.53 | | | |
| | 11-15 | 146 | 3.33 | | | |
| | above 15 | 61 | 3.51 | | | |

ANOVA is applied to determine the significant difference regarding sacrifice for organization and community based on the university experience. Table 4.121 describes results related to dimensions (Sacrifice with Organization and Community) of the teachers' job embeddedness. It is evident from this table that the highest mean score (M= 3.53) is observed against the instructors-having 6-10 years of experience. At the same time, responses of teachers having 1-5 years' experience show the lowest score (M=3.29). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) describes the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding links with organization and community is statistically not significant (F (476) = 1.643, p=.179). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 28) is failed to reject.

**4.5 Summary**

This chapter reflected the information about the analysis of data and the interpretation of that information. Data were collected from the sample-of four-hundred and eighty respondents working in selected universities. For instance, mean difference, t-test, and ANOVA were applied to examine the collected data. Analysis of data is presented in

two sections. Demographic information and investigation related to both questionnaires were presented in section number one. The research objectives and hypotheses information were presented in section number two. T-test statistics revealed no significant differences in subscales of thinking styles among male and female university teachers except for local thinking styles. Results related to job embeddedness also illustrated no significant differences in subscales of job embeddedness among male and female university teachers. The difference was found only in organizational links. Significant differences were found related to these (legislative, executive, judicial, hierarchical, oligarchic, anarchic, local, and external) subscales of thinking styles among university teachers in the public and private sector except monarchic, global, internal, liberal, and conservative thinking style. Analysis of variance explored no significant difference in teachers' thinking styles about their job experience. There were significant differences in the opinion of teachers regarding thinking styles at the departmental levels. The following chapter will summarize the findings, discussion, conclusion, and recommendation.

# CHAPTER 5

## SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### 5.1 Summary

This chapter illustrates the study's findings on the thinking styles and job embeddedness of govt and non-govt sector-universities educators of Islamabad. The findings of the study played a significant role. The conclusion was grounded on findings. The study was based on eight objectives and twenty-eight null hypotheses. The foremost motive of this study was to make the demographic comparison of the sector, gender, qualification, experience, and department with reference to the thinking style and job embeddedness of university teachers. The study determined to compare the thinking styles of university teachers with their job embeddedness and find out significant differences at a 0.05 level. Information was collected from the sample of four hundred and eighty respondents working in selected public and private sector universities. The objectives of the current research study were: to assess the thinking styles of university educators, to analyze the job embeddedness of university-level educators, to find out gender-based differences in thinking styles of educators., and to assess the gender base differences regarding job embeddedness of educators. Comparative analysis of teachers' thinking styles and job embeddedness in government and private sectors. A comparative study was planned to attain these objectives. Twenty-eight null hypotheses were framed for this research work.

Data were collected by using two separate inventories. One was related to thinking styles, and the second was related to job embeddedness. Robert Sternberg (2007) devised a questionnaire related to thinking style. Sternberg postulated thirteen thinking styles in this inventory distributed into five main categories. The second questionnaire was related to occupational embeddedness. This term (occupational embeddedness) was defined as the formal and informal job factors related to individual links, fit, and sacrifice (Mitchell et al., 2001). The job embeddedness questionnaire consisted of 6 different dimensions. The study population was based on five govt and four non-govt sector universities in Islamabad. Four common departments (management sciences, social sciences, engineering, computer sciences) were selected from each university. Faculty members in govt and non-govt sector universities were not in equal number. So proportionate stratified random sampling technique was used to maintain the balance between the samples.

The sample of the study was public and private universities teachers. A total of four hundred and eighty (480) university teachers were selected from the target population, including two hundred and six (206) male and two hundred and seventy-four female teachers. Among the, three hundred and eleven (311) were from public sector universities, and one-hundred and sixty-nine (169) were from private sector universities. Thirty-five percent (35%) sample size was selected from the target population. A detail of the sample size was presented in chapter three. Four departments were selected from each university, i.e., social sciences, management science, computer science, and engineering. 35% of the total population was selected as a sample from each department. According to data, one hundred and ten (110) university teachers had done Ph.D. degrees, three hundred and ten (310) university teachers had MPhil degrees,

and only sixty (60) teachers had master's degrees. Experience-wise distribution of respondents revealed that 29.8 percent of the respondent had been teaching from one to five years, 27.1 percent from six to ten years, and 30.4 percent of teachers had been teaching from eleven to fifteen years. Only 12.7 percent of teachers had been teaching above fifteen years.

The study was delimited to five public and four private sector universities because the researcher has limited time and resources. These universities are located in Islamabad. The researcher obtained an official letter from the university (NUML). After that, the researcher obtained permission for data collection through the application from the heads/deans of the concerning departments. Four hundred and eighty university educators were selected from five public and four private sector universities in Islamabad. Data were collected with the help of two separate inventories. After data collection, inventories were coded and entered in the SPSS by the researcher. Information collected through these inventories were-examined in light of hypotheses and research objectives. For the analysis of data, different statistical tests were used. Inferential and descriptive techniques, e.g., ANOVA, mean difference, and t-test were used to test the hypotheses of this study. Results of the research work were analyzed in the light of objectives. The results obtained through these tests have been presented in the form of tables in chapter four. The reliability of questionnaires was measured through Cronbach Alpha.

## 5.2 Findings

The researcher has designed eight objectives and twenty-eight null hypotheses. Descriptive statistics were used to measure hypotheses number one and two. An independent sample t-test was used to measure objective numbers three, four, five, and six. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to measure objective numbers seven and eight. The following findings were made in the light of analysis and interpretation.

The following findings were made in the light of analysis and interpretation.

### 5.2.1 Teachers' Views about Thinking Styles at University Level

The first objective was to analyze teachers' thinking styles at the university level. To measure this objective descriptive statistics were used. Table 4.76 illustrates the mean scores of thinking styles of teachers, i.e.-legislative (3.6),-executive (3.7),-judicial (3.6), monarchic (3.5), hierarchical (3.8), oligarchic (3.4), Anarchic (3.3), global (3.4), local (3.4), internal (3.4), external (3.7) conservative (3.2), liberal (3.6). It was depicted from the results that the highest mean score was found in hierarchical (3.8) thinking styles, and the lowest mean score was in conservative (3.2) thinking styles. It was concluded that the teachers usually agreed on legislative, executive, judicial, hierarchical, and external-thinking styles. In contrast, they have often agreed on monarchic, oligarchic, anarchic, global, global, conservative-local, and internal thinking styles.

### 5.2.2 Teachers' Views about Job Embeddedness at University Level

The second objective was to measure the job embeddedness of educators at the university level. To measure this objective descriptive statistics were used. Table 4.77 shows the means of the occupational embed (on the job and off the job) of teachers, i.e., fit organization (3.7), fit community (3.6), links organization (3.4), links community

(3.4), sacrifice organization (3.4), sacrifice community (3.3). It was depicted from the mean scores that the teachers usually agreed on fit-organization and fit-community. They often agreed on links between organization, community, sacrifice organization, and community. It was concluded that the means of the fit organization (3.7) and fit community (3.6 are comparatively higher than others.

### 5.2.3 Gender Base Differences Regarding the Thinking Styles of University Teachers.

The third objective was related to gender base differences regarding the thinking styles of university teachers. Thirteen null hypotheses were designed to measure this objective. The results indicated no differences in teachers' ways of thinking at the university level.

1. Null hypothesis ($H_O1$) was related to significant difference in thinking styles of teachers at university level. It was observed that significant difference in local thinking style of male and female university teachers (t (478) =2.408, p=.016) but both group don't differ significantly with respect to other thinking styles. Legislative thinking styles of male (M=14.79, SD=3.15) and female (M=14.55, SD =2.95), t (478) =.839, P =.402). Executive thinking styles of male (M=14.83, SD=2.97) and female (M=15.20, SD =3.12), t (478) = -1.308, P =.191). Judicial thinking styles of male (M=14.95, SD=3.15) and female (M=14.92, SD =2.95), t (478) =.113, P =.910). Hierarchic thinking styles of male (M=15.18, SD=3.82) and female (M=15.27, SD =.3.15), t (478) = -.338, P =.735). Monarchic thinking styles of male (M=14.49, SD=3.16) and female (M=14.18, SD = 3.28), t (478) =.1.028, P =.305). Oligarchic

thinking styles of male (M=14.03, SD=3.12) and female (M=13.96, SD = 3.35), t (478) =.235, P =.815). Anarchic thinking styles of male (M=13.42, SD=3.04) and female (M=13.26, SD = 3.41), t (478) =.515, P =.607). Global thinking styles of male (M=13.87, SD= 2.81) and female (M=13.52, SD = 3.00), t (478) =1.285, P =.200). Internal thinking styles of male (M=14.04, SD=3.43) and female (M=13.47, SD = 3.50), t (478) =1.788, P =.074). External thinking styles of male (M=15.15, SD= 2.86) and female (M=14.99, SD = 3.35), t (478) =.543, P =.588). Liberal thinking styles of male (M=14.79, SD=3.15) and female (M=14.71, SD = 3.23), t (478) =.266, P =.791) and conservative thinking styles of male (M=13.10, SD=3.14) and female (M=12.74, SD = 3.55), t (478) = 1.140, P =.255). No significant differences were found related to subscales of thinking styles among male and female university teachers except local thinking style.

a. Null hypothesis 1.1 was related to the gender-based significant difference in teachers regarding functions of thinking styles at the university level. Average score of male teachers regarding legislative thinking styles (M=14.79, SD=3.15) and female (M=14.55, SD =2.95), t (478) =.839, P =.402). Executive thinking styles of male (M=14.83, SD=2.97) and female (M=15.20, SD =3.12), t (478) = -1.308, P =.191). Judicial thinking styles of male (M=14.95, SD=3.15) and female (M=14.92, SD =2.95), t (478) =.113, P =.910). The p values are not significant at the 0.05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected regarding the thinking style's functions (legislative, executive, and judicial).

b. Null hypothesis 1.2 was related to the gender-based differences in teachers' opinions regarding forms (hierarchical, monarchic, oligarchic, and

anarchic) of thinking styles at the university level. It was observed that the average score of male teachers regarding hierarchic thinking styles (M=15.18, SD=3.82) and female (M=15.27, SD =.3.15), t (478) = -.338, P =.735). Monarchic thinking styles of male (M=14.49, SD=3.16) and female (M=14.18, SD = 3.28), t (478) =.1.028, P =.305). Oligarchic thinking styles of male (M=14.03, SD=3.12) and female (M=13.96, SD = 3.35), t (478) =.235, P =.815). Anarchic thinking styles of male (M=13.42, SD=3.04) and female (M=13.26, SD = 3.41), t (478) =.515, P =.607). The p values were not significant at the 0.05 level of significance. Therefore null hypothesis regarding forms of thinking style was failed to reject.

c. Null hypothesis 1.3 was related to gender-based differences in university teachers' regarding levels (global and local) of thinking styles. The average score of male teachers regarding global thinking styles (M=13.87, SD= 2.81) and female (M=13.52, SD = 3.00), t (478) =1.285, P =.200). Local thinking styles of male (M=14.39, SD=3.00) and female (M=13.68, SD = 3.31), t (478) = 2.408, P =.016). There was no gender-based difference in the opinion of teachers regarding global thinking style. However, a significant difference between male and female university teachers (t (478) =2.408, p=.016).

d. Null hypothesis 1.4 was related to gender-based differences in teachers' opinions regarding the scope (internal and external) of thinking styles at the university level. The average score of male teachers regarding internal thinking styles (M=14.04, SD=3.43) and female (M=13.47, SD = 3.50), t (478) =1.788, P =.074). External thinking styles of male (M=15.15, SD= 2.86) and female (M=14.99, SD = 3.35), t (478) =.543, P =.588). The p

values were not significant at the 0.05 level of significance. Therefore null is failed to reject.

e. Null hypothesis 1.5 was related to gender-based differences in teachers' opinions regarding learning (liberal and conservative) thinking styles at the university level. The average score of male teachers regarding liberal thinking styles (M=14.79, SD=3.15) and female (M=14.71, SD = 3.23), t (478) =.266, P =.791) and conservative thinking styles of male (M=13.10, SD=3.14) and female (M=12.74, SD = 3.55), t (478) = 1.140, P =.255). The p values were not significant at the 0.05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis regarding learning (liberal and conservative) of thinking styles at the university level is rejected. Results related to this hypothesis illustrated no significant differences in male and female university educators.

### 5.2.4 Gender-based Differences Regarding Job Embeddedness of University Teachers

2. The null hypothesis (Ho2) was related to gender-based differences in teachers' opinions about job embeddedness at the university level. There was a significant difference in organizational links between male and female university teachers (t (478) =2.325, p=.020), but both groups do not differ significantly from other sub-scales of job embeddedness. It was perceived that the average score of male teachers regarding organizational fit (M=11.28, SD=3.08) and female (M=11.42, SD =2.92), t (478) = -.504, P =.614). Score of male teachers about community fit (M= 10.89, SD=2.96) and female (M=10.98, SD =2.86), t (478) = -.330, P =.742). Male teachers score regarding community Links (M=10.13, SD= 2.72) and female (M= 10.38, SD =2.67), t (478) = -1.033, P =.302). Organizational Sacrifice, male teachers score

(M=10.51, SD=2.59) and female (M=10.37, SD =.2.79), t (478) = .564, P =.573). Community sacrifice score of male teachers (M=9.88, SD=3.33) and female (M=10.27, SD = 2.97), t (478) = -1.353, P =.177). No significant differences were found related to subscales of job embeddedness among male and female university teachers except for organizational links.

a. Null hypothesis 2.1 was related to gender-based differences regarding fit (comfort) with organization and community at the university level. The average score of male teachers regarding organizational fit (M=11.28, SD=3.08) and female (M=11.42, SD =2.92), t (478) = -.504, P =.614). Score of male teachers about community fit (M= 10.89, SD=2.96) and female (M=10.98, SD =2.86), t (478) = -.330, P =.742). The p values were not significant at the 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis related to fit (comfort) with organization and community at the university level was rejected.
b. Null hypothesis 2.2 was related to gender-based differences in teachers related to links (connections) with organization and community at the university level. Male teachers score regarding community Links (M=10.13, SD= 2.72) and female (M= 10.38, SD =2.67), t (478) = -1.033, P =.302). Male teachers score regarding organizational links (M=10.76, SD=2.49) and female (M=10.21, SD =.2.61), t (478) = .2.325, P =.020). There was no gender-based difference in the opinion of teachers regarding links with the community. However, it was observed a significant

difference in the organizational links of male and female university teachers (t (478) =2.325, p=.020).

c. Null hypothesis 2.3 was related to gender-based differences in teachers' opinions about sacrifice for organization and community at the university level. The score of male teachers regarding organizational sacrifice (M=10.51, SD=2.59) and female (M=10.37, SD =.2.79), t (478) = .564, P =.573). Community sacrifice score of male teachers (M=9.88, SD=3.33) and female (M=10.27, SD = 2.97), t (478) = -1.353, P =.177). The p values were not significant at the 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis about sacrifice for workplace and community at the university level was rejected.

### 5.2.5 Government and Private Sector University Teachers' Opinions about Their Thinking Styles.

3. The null hypothesis ($H_O3$) was related to differences between government and private university instructors' opinions about their thinking styles. Significant differences were found related to these (legislative, executive, judicial, hierarchic, oligarchic, anarchic, local, and external) subscales of thinking styles among university teachers in public and private sectors except monarchic, global, internal, liberal, and conservative thinking style (t (478)=1.581, p=.114, t =1.612, p=.108, t=1.791, p=.074, t =1.899, p=.058, t=1.130, p=.259 respectively). The p values regarding these thinking styles were insignificant.

    a. Null hypothesis 3.1 was related to the difference in public and private university teachers' opinions regarding thinking style functions. The average score of legislative thinking styles of public sector teachers

(M=14.92, SD=2.97) and private (M=14.16, SD =3.10), t (478) =.2.63, P =.009). Executive thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=15.29, SD=3.07) and private sector teachers (M=14.59, SD =2.99), t (478) = 2.406, P =.017). Judicial thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=14.77, SD=2.85) and private sector teachers (M=13.96, SD =2.75), t (478) =3.016, P =.003).The p values were significant at the 0.05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis regarding functions (legislative, executive, and judicial) of teachers' thinking styles at the public and private university level was rejected.

b. Null hypothesis 3.13 was related to the difference in public and private university teachers' opinions regarding thinking styles. The average score of Monarchic thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=14.48, SD=3.25) and private sector teachers (M=13.99, SD = 3.18), t (478) = 1.581, P =.114). Hierarchic thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=15.57, SD=2.93) and private sector (M=14.61, SD =.3.06), t (478) = 3.38, P =.001). Oligarchic thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=14.43, SD=3.05) and private teachers (M=13.19, SD = 3.46), t (478) = 4.058, P =.000). Anarchic thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=13.66, SD=3.16) and private sector teachers (M=12.72, SD = 3.34), t (478) =3.037, P =.003).The p values regarding hierarchic, oligarchic, and anarchic were significant. There was no difference in the opinion of public and private university teachers regarding monarchic thinking style, as the p-value (t (478) = 1.581, P =.114) was not significant.

c. Null hypothesis 3.3 was related to the difference in public and private university teachers' opinions regarding levels of thinking style. It was

observed that the average score of local thinking style of public sector teachers (M=14.31, SD= 3.15) and private sector teachers (M=13.4, SD= 3.15), t (478) =2.987, P =.003). Global thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=13.83, SD= 2.94) and private sector teachers (M=13.38, SD = 2.89), t (478) = 1.612, P =.108). The p-value regarding local thinking style was significant at a 0.05 level. There was no significant difference in the opinion of public and private university teachers regarding global thinking style, as the p-value (t (478) = 1.612, P =.108) is not significant.

d. Null hypothesis 3.4 was related to the difference in public and private university teachers' opinions regarding the scope of thinking style. The average score of internal thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=13.92, SD=3.32) and private sector teachers (M=13.32, SD = 3.77), t (478) =1.791, P =.074). External thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=15.40, SD= 3.02) and private sector teachers (M=14.44, SD = 3.29), t (478) =3.221, P =.001). The p-value regarding external thinking style was significant at a 0.05 level. There was no significant difference in the opinion of public and private university teachers regarding internal thinking style, as the p-value (t (478) =1.791, P =.074) is not significant.

e. The null hypothesis was related to the difference in public and private university teachers' opinions regarding the learnings of thinking styles. The average score of liberal thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=14.95, SD=3.24) and private (M=14.37, SD = 3.09), t (478) = 1.899, P =.058) and conservative thinking styles of public sector teachers (M=13.02, SD=3.30) and private sector teachers (M=12.66, SD = 3.53), t (478) = 1.130, P =.259). The p values were not-significant at the 0.05 level.

Therefore, the null hypothesis regarding learnings (liberal and conservative) of teachers' thinking styles at the public and private university level is failed to reject.

### 5.2.6 Public and Private Universities Teachers' Opinions about Their Job Embeddedness

4. The null hypothesis ($H_O$ 4) was related to differences between government and private university teachers' opinions about their job embeddedness. Significant differences were found in teachers' opinions regarding organizational fit and organizational links. However, no significant differences are found in public and private university teachers regarding community fit, community links, and community and workplace sacrifice. The public and private university teachers' opinion regarding organizational fit (t (478) =2.055, p=.040) and organizational links (t (478) =2.711, p=.007). There is no significant difference concerning other sub-scales of job embeddedness.

    a. Null hypothesis 4.1 was related to the dissimilarities between govt and non-govt university instructors' opinions regarding fit with organization and community. There was a significant difference in public and private university teachers' opinions about organizational fit (t (478) =2.055, p=.040) but no significant difference in community fit. The average score of public sector teachers regarding community fit (M=11.06, SD=2.82) and private university teachers (M=10.73, SD =3.05), t (478) = -1.199, P =.231). The p-value related to community fit was not significant at a 0.05 level of significance.

b. Null hypothesis 4.2 was related to the difference between government and private university teachers' opinions about links with the organization and community. There was a significant difference in public and private university teachers' opinions regarding organizational links (t (478) =2.711, p=.007), but there was no significant difference in teachers' opinions related to community links. The p-value related to community links was not significant at the 0.05 level of significance.

c. Null hypothesis 4.3 was related to the dissimilarities between government and private university teachers' opinions about sacrifice for organization and community. Public sector university teachers score regarding organizational sacrifice (M=10.56, SD=2.74) and private sector teachers (M=10.18, SD =.2.63), t (478) = 1.467, P =.143). Community sacrifice score of public sector teachers (M=10.21, SD=3.1) and private university teachers (M=9.91, SD = 3.2), t (478) = -1.012, P =.312). The p values related to organizational and community sacrifice were not significant at the 0.05 level of significance.

### 5.2.7 Departmental Based Differences Regarding the Thinking Styles of University Teachers

5. The null hypothesis ($H_O5$) was related to differences in teachers of different departments regarding functions of thinking styles. Analysis of variance was applied to determine the significant difference in thinking style functions among the respondents of different departments at the university level. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) illustrated that the difference in mean scores of instructors regarding

functions of thinking styles was statistically significant (F (476) = 3.936, p=.009). It was observed that teachers of management sciences departments had the highest mean score (M= 3.86), whereas teachers of engineering departments had the lowest score (M=3.63). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$5) was rejected.

6. The null hypothesis ($H_O$6) was related to significant differences in teachers of different departments about forms of thinking styles at the university level. Analysis of variance was applied to determine the significant difference in forms of thinking style among the respondents of different departments at the university level. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) demonstrated that the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding forms of thinking styles was statistically significant (F (476) = 4.417, p=.004). It is observed that teachers of management sciences and computer sciences departments had the same highest mean score (M= 3.63), whereas teachers of engineering departments had the lowest score (M=3.40). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 6) was rejected.
7. The null hypothesis ($H_O$7) was related to significant differences in teachers of different departments about levels of thinking styles at the university level. Analysis of variance was applied to determine the significant difference in levels of thinking styles among the respondents of different departments at the university level. It was observed that teachers of management sciences departments had the highest mean score (M= 3.59), whereas teachers of engineering departments had the lowest score (M=3.36). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) describes that the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding levels of thinking styles was statistically significant (F (476) = 3.041, p=.029). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 7) was rejected.
8. The null hypothesis (HO8) was related to significant differences in teachers of different departments regarding the university level's scope of thinking styles.

ANOVA was applied to determine the significant difference in the scope of thinking styles among the teachers of different departments at the university level. Teachers of management sciences departments had the highest mean score (M= 3.71), whereas teachers of engineering departments had the lowest score (M=46). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) describes that the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding the scope of thinking styles was statistically significant (F (476) = 3.165, p=.024). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 8) was rejected.

9. The null hypothesis ($H_O$9) was related to significant differences in teachers of different departments about learning thinking styles at the university level. ANOVA was applied to determine the significant difference in learning thinking styles among the respondents of different departments at the university level. It was observed that teachers of management sciences departments had the highest mean score (M= 3.56), whereas teachers of engineering and social sciences departments had the same lowest score (M=3.37). ANOVA results illustrated the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding the learning of thinking styles was statistically not significant (F (476) = 2.450, p=.063). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 9) was filed to reject.
10. The null hypothesis ($H_O$10) was related to a significant difference in teachers of different departments related to fi (comfort) in organization and community at the university level. Analysis of variance was applied to determine the significant difference in dimensions (Fit with Organization and Community) of Job Embeddedness among the respondents of different departments at the university level. It was observed that teachers of management sciences departments have the highest mean score (M= 3.83), whereas teachers of engineering departments have the lowest score (M=3.55). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) described the

difference in mean scores of teachers regarding fit with organization and community as statistically not significant (F (476) = 2.384, p=.069). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 10) is failed to reject.

11. The null hypothesis ($H_O$11) was related to significant differences in teachers of different departments related to links (comfort) in organization and community at the university level. ANOVA was applied to determine the significant difference in these dimensions of job embeddedness among the respondents of different departments at the university level. It was observed that teachers of social sciences departments had the highest mean score (M= 3.48), whereas teachers of engineering departments had the lowest score (M=3.38). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicated that the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding links with organization and community was statistically not significant (F (476) = .476, p=.699). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 11) failed to reject.
12. The null hypothesis ($H_O$12) was related to significant differences in teachers of different departments' regarding sacrifice for the workplace and community at the university level. ANOVA was applied to determine the significant difference in these dimensions of job embeddedness among the respondents of different departments at the university level. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) showed that the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding sacrifice for organization and community was statistically not significant (F (476) = 2.304, p=.076). Teachers of computer sciences departments had the highest mean score (M= 3.51), whereas teachers of engineering departments had the lowest score (M=3.27). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 12) failed to reject.

### 5.2.8 Qualification Based Differences Regarding the Thinking Styles of University Teachers

The null hypothesis ($H_O$13) was related to teachers' differences regarding functions of thinking styles based on qualifications at the university level. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicated that the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding functions of thinking styles was statistically significant (F (477) = 7.562, p=.001). ANOVA was applied to determine the respondents' significant differences in thinking styles based on qualifications at the university level. The highest mean score (M= 3.82) is observed against the M.A qualification teachers. In contrast, Ph.D. teachers had the lowest score (M=3.51). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 13) was rejected.

13. The null hypothesis ($H_O$14) was related to teachers' differences regarding forms of thinking styles based on qualifications at the university level. Analysis of variance was applied to determine the significant difference in forms of thinking styles among the respondents based on qualifications at the university level. The highest mean score (M= 3.65) was observed against the M.A qualification teachers. At the same time, Ph.D. teachers had the lowest score (M=3.37). The ANOVA results indicated that the difference in teachers' mean scores regarding forms of thinking styles was statistically significant (F (477) = 6.360, p=.002). So the null hypothesis was rejected.
14. The null hypothesis ($H_O$15) was related to teachers' differences regarding levels of thinking styles based on qualifications at the university level. ANOVA was applied to determine the significant difference in thinking styles among the teachers based on qualifications at the university level. The highest mean score (M= 3.52) was observed against the teachers having an M.A degree. In comparison, Ph.D. teachers

had the lowest score (M=3.3). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) showed that the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding levels of thinking styles was statistically significant (F (477) = 3.940, p=.020). So the null hypothesis was rejected.

15. The null hypothesis ($H_O$16) was related to differences in teachers' opinions regarding the scope of thinking styles based on qualifications at the university level. Analysis-of-variance was applied to determine the significant difference in the respondents' scope of thinking styles based on qualifications at the university level. The highest mean score (M= 3.63) was observed against the teachers having M.A and M.Phil. Qualification. Whereas Ph.D. teachers had the lowest mean score (M=3.45). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicated that the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding the scope of thinking styles was statistically significant (F (477) = 2.969, p=.052). So the null hypothesis failed to reject.
16. The null hypothesis ($H_O$17) was related to differences in teachers' opinions regarding the learning of thinking styles based on qualifications at the university level. One-way ANOVA was applied to determine the significant difference in the learning of thinking styles among the teachers based on qualifications at the university level. The highest mean score (M= 3.56) was observed against the teachers having M.A qualifications. At the same time, Ph.D. teachers had the lowest score (M=3.26). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) points out that the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding the learning of thinking styles is statistically not significant (F (477) = 6.461, p=.002). So the null hypothesis failed to reject.

### 5.2.9 Qualification Based Differences Regarding Job Embeddedness of University Teachers

17. The null hypothesis ($H_O$18) was related to a significant difference in teachers' opinions related to fit (comfort) in organization and community based on qualification at the university level. ANOVA was applied to determine the significant difference in dimensions (Fit with Organization and Community) of job embeddedness among the teachers based on qualifications at the university level. The highest mean score (M= 3.82) was observed against the teachers having M.Phil. Qualification. Whereas Ph.D. teachers had the lowest score (M=3.39). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) showed that the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding fit with organization and community was statistically significant (F (477) = 9.971, p=.001). So the null hypothesis was rejected.
18. The null hypothesis ($H_O$19) was related to a significant difference in teachers related to links (connections) with organization and community based on qualification at the university level. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) demonstrated the difference in mean-scores of teachers regarding links with organization and community was statistically significant (F (477) = 4.676, p=.010). ANOVA was applied to determine the significant difference in dimensions of job embeddedness among the teachers based on qualifications at the university level. The highest mean score (M= 3.51) was observed against the teachers having M.A qualifications. In comparison, Ph.D. teachers had the lowest score (M=3.25). So the null hypothesis was rejected.
19. The null hypothesis ($H_O$20) was related to a significant difference in teachers related to sacrifice for organization and community based on qualification at the university level. Analysis of variance is applied to determine the significant difference in dimensions of job embeddedness among the teachers based on qualifications at the university level. It is evident from this table that the highest

mean score (M= 3.49) is observed against the teachers having M.Phil. qualifications. At the same time, Ph.D. teachers have the lowest score (M=3.14). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) illustrated that the difference in mean scores of educators regarding sacrifice for organization and community is statistically significant (F (477) = 6.945, p=.001). So the null hypothesis was rejected.

### 5.2.10 Experience Based Differences Regarding Thinking Styles of University Teachers

20. The null hypothesis ($H_O$21) was related to significant differences in teachers regarding functions of thinking styles based on experience at the university level. ANOVA was applied to determine the significant difference between these thinking styles based on experience at the university level. . Highest mean score (M= 3.78) was observed against the teachers having 11-15 years' experience. At the same time, teachers' responses with above 15 years' experience showed the lowest score (M=3.60). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) described that the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding functions of thinking styles was statistically not significant (F (476) = 1.412, p=.239). So the null hypothesis ($H_O$ 21) is failed to reject.
21. The null hypothesis ($H_O$22) was related to significant differences in teachers regarding forms of thinking styles based on experience at the university level. ANOVA was applied to determine the significant difference between these thinking styles based on experience at the university level. . Highest mean score (M= 3.62) was observed against the teachers having 11-15 years' experience. At the same time, responses of teachers having 1-5 years' experience showed the lowest score (M=3.52). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) showed that the difference in mean

scores of teachers regarding forms of thinking styles was statistically not significant (F (476) = 1.210, p=.306). So the null hypothesis failed to reject.

22. The null hypothesis ($H_O$23) was related to significant differences in teachers regarding levels of thinking styles based on experience at the university level. ANOVA was applied to determine the significant difference between these thinking styles based on experience at the university level. . Highest mean score (M= 3.55) was observed against the teachers having 11-15 years of experience. Whereas responses of teachers having 1-5 years' experience showed the lowest score (M=3.37). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) showed that the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding levels of thinking styles was statistically not significant (F (476) = 2.155, p=.093). So the null hypothesis failed to reject.
23. The null hypothesis ($H_O$24) was related to significant differences in teachers' opinions regarding scopes of thinking styles based on experience at the university level. Analysis of variance was applied to determine the significant difference between these thinking styles based on experience at the university level. The highest mean score (M= 3.68) was observed among the 11-15 years of experienced teachers. Whereas responses of teachers having above 15 years' experience showed the lowest score (M=3.51). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicated that the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding levels of thinking styles was statistically not significant (F (476) = 1.535, p=.204). So the null hypothesis failed to reject.
24. The null hypothesis ($H_O$25) was related to significant differences in teachers' opinions regarding the learning of thinking styles based on experience at the university level. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was applied to determine the significant difference between these thinking styles based on experience at the

university level. The highest mean score (M= 3.54) was observed among the 11-15 years of experienced teachers. Whereas responses of teachers having 1-5 years' experience showed the lowest score (M=3.38). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) described that the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding the learning of thinking styles was statistically not significant (F (476) = 1.482, p=.219). So the null hypothesis failed to reject.

### 5.2.11 Experience-Based Differences Regarding Job Embeddedness

25. Null hypothesis ($H_O$26) was related to a significant difference in teachers regarding fit (comfort) in organization and community based on experience at the university level. ANOVA was applied to determine the significant difference regarding these dimensions based on experience. The highest mean score (M= 3.79) was observed against the teachers having 11-15 years of experience. At the same time, responses of teachers having 6-10 years' experience showed the lowest score (M=3.63). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) showed the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding fit with organization and community was statistically not significant (F (476) =.874, p=.455). So the null hypothesis failed to reject.
26. The null hypothesis ($H_O$27) was related to a significant difference in teachers' opinions regarding links (connections) with organization and community based on experience at the university level. ANOVA was applied to determine the significant difference between these links with organization and community based on experience at the university level. The highest mean score (M= 3.51) was observed against the teachers having 6-10 years of experience. In comparison, teachers' responses with above 15 years' experience showed the lowest score (M=3.29). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealed that the difference in mean scores of

teachers regarding links with organization and community was statistically not significant (F (476) = 1.643, p=.179). So the null hypothesis failed to reject.

27. The null hypothesis ($H_O$28) was related to a significant difference in teachers' opinions regarding sacrifice for organization and community based on experience at the university level. ANOVA was applied to determine the significant difference regarding sacrifice for organization and community based on experience. The highest mean score (M= 3.53) was observed against the teachers having 6-10 years of experience. In comparison, teachers' responses with 1-5 years' experience showed the lowest score (M=3.29). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) showed that the difference in mean scores of teachers regarding links with organization and community was statistically not significant (F (476) = 1.643, p=.179). So the null hypothesis failed to reject.

### 5.3 Discussion

Based on the literature, it has been established that thinking styles are significant while reviewing organizational performance and satisfaction. There are many thinking styles; people might show a varying amount of each style of thinking. Everyone has a specific thinking style. Thinking styles are not good or bad; they are only different. This research was focused on thinking styles and job embeddedness. Many writers have discussed different thinking styles in their theories. A brief description of those styles was presented in the literature review. Sternberg's (2007) TMSG (theory of mental self-government) was selected for the current study. In this theory, he has presented thirteen thinking styles. Thirteen thinking styles are grouped under five dimensions. Five dimensions were named functions, forms, levels, scopes, and learnings (Sternberg, 2009; Zhang &Sternberg, 2006). The theory of job embeddedness was designed by Mitchell et al. (2001). This theory explains the reasons for retention in organizations.

Mitchell et al. (2001) presented three main dimensions, appropriate links, and sacrifice to explain this concept. These dimensions are considered both in the organization and in the community. The outcome of this research may be used to recruit the right man for the right job and promote individuals whose competencies match the organizational requirements. Further, extensive training programs may be conducted for university-level employees based on identifying desired thinking styles.

Zhang and Sachs (1997) stated that men were more-holistic than women. Sternberg and Zhang (2005) found that males got higher scores than females in the judicial sub-scale. Zhang (1999) reported that male teachers' liberal and monarchic style scores were higher than females; Cilliers and Sternberg (2001) found that females preferred executive style more than males. The current study observed that male teachers' mean score was higher than female teachers. The research's primary purpose was to analyze thinking styles and assess teachers' job embeddedness at the university level in the public and private sectors. Further, it aimed to compare both sectors in the same context. The effort was also made to explore the relationship between thinking styles and educators' job embeddedness at the university level. This research work was based on nine research objectives.

Objective No.1 "to analyze teachers' thinking styles at the university level." Based on the results discussed in chapter four, it was found that high mean scores were found in hierarchical legislative, executive, judicial, and external thinking styles, whereas the lowest mean score was found in anarchic and conservative thinking styles of university teachers. This finding is supported by the results of Ying et al. (2013). They illustrated that the dominant thinking styles among the teachers were hierarchical and analytical. Balgalmis (2010) conducted a research study in Turkey about the

thinking styles of administrators. Findings revealed that the most preferential ways of thinking were hierarchical, legislative, and external. These administration thinking styles were similar to the current study, which showed the university teachers' opinions.

People with legislative thinking styles preferred the tasks and situations required to plan new ideas, create their laws, enjoy giving demands, and design new strategies (Zhang, 2004). This style is prevalent in teachers at university levels in both sectors. The followers of the executive thinking style are not innovative. They used to follow existing methods to solve the problems and implement laws (Grigorenko & Sternberg, 1995). Employees have a judicial way of thinking and assessing other employees' work in the same organization. They always tried to evaluate the work of other people and made conclusions. Their findings are always based on their judgment (Bernardo et al., 2002). They examine the fundamental thought in the logical position and dislike investigation. They lean toward issues that enable them to dissect and assess the existing objectives and thoughts (Sardar, 2020). The external way of thinking is also common in instructors at the college level. The followers of this style tend to work together with other employees. They are very social and enjoy group work. They feel comfortable contacting others and easily adjust to the new gathering (Sternberg & Wagner, 1991, Zhang & Sternberg, 2002).

As mentioned in the literature, all thinking styles were essential in their place. Thinking styles are only different; they are not categorized as good or bad. Everyone has a specific thinking style (Riding & Cheema, 1991). The paradigm of style increases our belief in what people prefer to do. Individuals have a profile of styles. They are not locked into any one. Several theories related to thinking were used to explore people’s intellectual effectiveness (Gregore, 1985). These theories are considered traditional

theories because they are limited to one-dimensional styles, for instance, reflective versus impulsive styles. Different theories and models of cognition learning or thinking styles have been proposed (Kolb, 1976; Entwistle, 1981; Biggs, 1987; Sternberg, 1988, 1997; Riding, 1991). Sternberg's thinking style theory is different from others. Different ways of thinking judicial, hierarchical, moderate, internal, and external were distinguished by Zhang and Sternberg (1998) as positively foreseeing the exhibition of college students of Hong Kong. Yenice and karasakaloglu (2008) contemplated the research work. Their work's main focus was to search the relationship between ways of thinking and pupils' success. The most favored thinking styles were legislative, hierarchical, executive, and judicial, while the least popular thinking styles were local and liberal. The most preferred styles consisted of the current study, whereas the least preferred styles were not matched with the current study.

Objective No. 2 "to assess the level of job embeddedness of university teachers." Results showed that the mean scores of fit organization and fit community were comparatively higher than links and sacrifice with organization and community. Vogel and Feldman (2009), proposed that person-environment fit is an interpreter of organizational commitment, and this point of view supports the current research. As literature review revealed that all six dimensions are essential and associated with employees' job embeddedness. Different studies gave different results about these dimensions. Lee and colleagues (2004) studied the organizational outcomes of the embedded workforce. They found that organizational embeddedness was considerably associated with higher job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior. Their-results indicate that different job embeddedness increased attendance and job performance.

Cho et al. (2009) tried to reproduce Lee and colleagues' research work (2004) by analyzing organizational embeddedness with hierarchical citizenship conduct and occupation performance among South Korean governing bodies. They predict that structural fits, administrative links, and organizational sacrifice would be identified with organizational citizenship conduct. They resisted that institutional citizenship behavior encourages the connection between on-the-job embeddedness and occupation performance. Their investigation exhibited that organizational connections, fit, and sacrifice were positively related to organizational citizenship conduct. The consolidated powers keep an employee from separating his or her job (Burton & Sablynski, 2004). Mitchell and Lee (2001) recommended that there when people have numerous connections with organizations and community; these associations are probably going to keep the workers away from leaving regardless of whether they consider leaving because of a specific reason or conditions, for instance, getting another offer, organization migration to a non-favored area. Accordingly, a high on the job embeddedness representative remains with the current organization regardless of the organizational conditions are not perfect. Job embeddedness is the construct with numerous measurements that illustrates the several links that an employee has with the organization (Mitchell & Lee, 2001).

To address objective No. 3, “To explore the gender base differences regarding teachers' thinking styles at the university level. To measure this objective, number five null hypotheses were designed. These hypotheses were based on dimensions of thinking styles. The t-test was used to find out the opinion of male and female educators. No significant differences were found related to subscales of thinking styles among male and female university teachers except for local thinking styles. There was a significant

difference in the opinion of male and female university teachers regarding local thinking styles. The mean score of male teachers was higher than female teachers. It means male teachers' pay more attention to concreate details of the given tasks and good at record-keeping than female teachers. Details and facts are more essential for comparing to the overall picture. This conclusion of the current study is supported by the findings of Boroujerdi and Hasani, K. (2014). They reported no relationship between a person's characteristics, i.e., gender, education, work experience, and style of thinking. The present study's results consisted of the results of the study directed by Othman & Ibrahim. (2017) stated that male and female leaders perform similarly. Study of Smith (2005) supported this study. That study also illustrated that there was no significant difference in the point of view of males and females in their thinking and leadership styles.

Regarding gender, the findings of the current research were conflicting with many studies. Previous studies conducted by Grigorenko and Sternberg (2007) suggested differences in thinking styles between males and females. Manning (2002) also supported this study, who examined that there was no significant difference observed in males' and females' leadership styles. Aljojo. N (2017) conducted a study on thinking styles and found a-significant-difference between-male and-female-students. He found only three thinking styles, hierarchic external, and local, common in male and female participants. The current study's results were also not in line with previous research by Grigorenko and Sternberg. The study conducted by Yang et al. (2013) not support the current study. They reported that a significant difference was found in the thinking style of males and females.

Objective four, “To explore gender-based differences regarding job embeddedness of university teachers.” three null hypotheses were designed to measure objective number four. Analysis of data about job embeddedness of university teachers illustrated similarities in their opinion based on gender regarding job embeddedness at public and private sector universities. Mitchell et al. (2001) indicated that job embeddedness has some similarities with job satisfaction and organizational commitment. These findings are consistent with Iqbal et al. (2017), who investigated differences related to job satisfaction between govt and private-teachers at the school level in a comparative study. They found no difference in teachers' point of view about their job satisfaction at public and private sector schools. Numerous demographic studies were conducted on gender. Results are conflicting in gender-based studies. Some studies illustrated that women are more committed than men, while some studies found males are more dedicated to organization and females are more committed to the community (Martin & Roodt 2008).

Similarly, Singh & Kodwani (2012) explained that males and females practice dissimilar socio-psychological certainties in the organization, and they are likely to differ in their organizational commitment. Carrington et al. (2005) illustrated that job fulfillment can be characterized as a person's disposition regarding jobs and the relationship to laborer inspiration. The general point of view is that if employees are satisfied, they will be more averse to leaving the organization. This study's findings are supported by the study designed by Taskin (2017), as their research work reflected non-significant gender-based differences regarding organizational commitment.

The fifth objective was ‘to compare teachers thinking styles at the university level in the public and non-govt sector.’ There were thirteen thinking styles. Every style

was measured individually under five dimensions. So five sub null hypotheses were designed to measure the fifth objective. Data were analyzed using a t-test. Sternberg et al. (2005) identify thirteen thinking styles. Thirteen ways of thinking were discussed under five dimensions, e.g., the functions, forms, levels, scope, and learnings.

In equivalence to government, people carry out three functions. The result of the data analysis reflected that there were found significant differences in the opinion of instructors in govt and private sector about the legislative, executive, and judicial thinking styles. Government sector teachers' mean scores were higher than the mean score of private sector university teachers. These thinking styles elaborate on individuals' preferences. Some individuals prefer to follow existing rules and regulations; they do not like change, but some formulate their own rules. They prefer a change in their surroundings. Some people are judgmental; they prefer to judge ideas, rules, and procedures.

Mental self-government theory deals with four diverse forms. Monarchic, hierarchic, oligarchic, and anarchic are four forms. The data analysis depicted that the opinion of both sectors of university teachers about hierarchic, oligarchic, and anarchic thinking styles differed significantly. However, there was no significant-difference in public and private university teachers' opinions about monarchic thinking styles. Public sector university teachers' mean scores were higher than the mean score of private sector university teachers. These styles were related to the method a person may use to organize information processing. People with a monarchic style focus on one goal, whereas in a hierarchic style, individuals follow the hierarchy depending on their importance and priority. Oligarchic individuals have difficulty in setting priorities,

anarchic thinking style individuals are flexible in their approach. They are unable to set priorities (Sternberg & Zhang, 2006).

As the government has more concern with policy-making, either general or specific, so the government-operates at two-levels, such as global-and-local. Results related to levels of thinking styles reflected a significant difference in teachers' opinion about local thinking style at public and private sector universities. The mean score of public sector university teachers was higher than private-sector university teachers. Individuals with having local thinking style tend to focus on concrete problems requiring detailed work. They were often oriented toward the pragmatics of a situation (Sternberg, 2008).

Data analysis findings revealed no significant difference in public and private university teachers' opinions about global thinking styles. People with a global thinking style had a predilection to deal with large matters. There was found to be a significant difference in the opinion of public and private university teachers regarding local thinking styles. The mean score of govt sector teachers was higher than private-sector teachers. There were two scopes (internal and external) of thinking styles. The p-value regarding external thinking style was significant. There was no significant difference in the opinion of public and private university teachers regarding internal thinking style. Individuals with an external thinking style are socially more sensitive. They like the projects and tasks that allow them to work with others in groups. Findings related to this hypothesis reflected no differences in public and private sector university teachers' opinions regarding internal thinking style. Individuals having internal thinking styles tend to be introverted. Internal thinking style individuals have a preference to work in isolation. They are creative and like to deal with analytical problems (Zhang, 1999).

Individuals with an internal thinking style are socially less sensitive than people with an external thinking style. There was a significant difference in public and private university educators' opinions about external thinking styles. These individuals are more suitable for a situation where group work is required (Sternberg, 2006).

Finally, there are two learnings in self-development theory. Individuals have a liberal thinking style like new challenges. They never follow existing rules; instead, they go away from the current rules and procedures. Data analysis revealed no significant difference in govt and private university teachers' opinions regarding liberal thinking style. Individuals with having conservative thinking style tend to focus on tasks and situations where they follow existing rules and procedures (Sternberg & Wagner, 1997). It was observed that there were significant differences in legislative, executive, judicial, hierarchic, oligarchic, anarchic, local, and external thinking styles of the university educators in the govt and private sectors. In contrast, both groups do not differ significantly concerning monarchic, global, internal, liberal, and conservative thinking styles.

There were six measurements of job embeddedness. The sixth objective was 'to compare differences in teachers' job embeddedness in the public and private sectors. Three null hypotheses were designed to measure this objective. For data analysis t-test was used. This statistical test measured the differences between public and private university instructors. Data analysis revealed that significant differences were found in teachers' opinions regarding organizational fit and organizational links. It was observed that public sector university teachers had a higher mean score than private university teachers. Public sector universities provide more facilities than the private sector. These organizations are committed to realizing their staff's potential.

That is why teachers of public sectors are more committed to the organization. They had strong links with their organization because of job security, and the public sector is considered less demanding than the private sector. There was no difference in public and private university educators' opinions regarding community fit, community links, organizational sacrifice, and community sacrifice.

Results showed that public sector teachers were more contented with their profession and fit with the organization than private-sector teachers. Public sector employees have job safety and other facilities, i.e., house allowance, medical allowance, social security benefits, and conveyance allowance. Harter et al. (2002) reported that employees' satisfaction, loyalty, profitability, and safety lead to work engagement. The results of this study were consistent with the research study of Saks (2006). He recommended that work engagement was connected to a person's behavior, assertiveness, and intentions. Consequently, involved workers were more attached to their organization and would have a lower tendency to leave that organization. They were fit in their organization.

Public and private sectors teacher had the same point of view regarding community links as the community is equally essential for all government and private sector educators. They are fit in their community. Private sector teachers may be left their current job for better opportunities, but they cannot leave their community. Mitchell and Lee (2001) recommended that when employees have various connections to the community, these connections keep them from leaving regardless of whether they consider leaving because of specific conditions. The data analysis results regarding links with the community reflected no significant differences in university teachers' opinions related to the community. Community links are related to society, an

individual's social ties with the other members of the same society or geographical area. For example, an individual may have good friends or various relatives within a short separation from home. However, there were significant differences in university instructors' opinions regarding links with the organization in the public and private sectors. The mean scores of govt and non-govt university educators were higher than private-sector teachers. It showed that public sector teachers had more links with their organization as the public sector offers many benefits. Organizational connections are portrayed as formal links between individuals and organizations (Mitchell et al., 2001). Social relationships are based on these links, for example, colleagues, administrators, and the working groups of which one is a part. In this theory, the more connections a worker has to their organization, the more likely the individual will be hesitant to give up the organization.

The data analysis results depicted no significant differences in public and private university instructors' points of view associated with sacrificing for organization and community. Sacrifice related to the organization is reflected in the apparent expense of quantifiable or psychological benefits that may be relinquished by leaving a job (Mitchell et al., 2004). An individual who leaves the present workplace may need to give up his work relationship, position in an occupation chain of command, and benefits that s/he gets from the organization. So, teachers of both sectors had the same feeling concerning sacrifice for community and organization as community sacrifice was portrayed as the observed sacrifice if a person left his/her living place. For instance, an individual finds more opportunities and accepts a position in an alternate area; one may need to sell his or her home, leave a wonderful community, lose esteemed social connections, or give up a suitable work environment. If individuals value the place

where they live, they will be progressively hesitant to give up their job. As indicated by the job embeddedness theory, community sacrifice assumes a significant job in a worker's choice to leave or remain in the organization (Mitchell et al., 2001). Mitchell and Lee (2001) suggested that a person's choice to leave an organization is not made in separation but is formed by the individual's surroundings. An employee who has various links with friends and colleagues in the organization is more embedded with his/her job.

The seventh objective was to explore teachers' thinking styles about demographic variables (university departments, faculty members' qualifications, and experience) at the university level. This objective was based on demographic variables. Researchers collect demographic variables to describe the nature and distribution of the sample used with inferential statistics. As can be seen from different researches, teachers' thinking style preferences were affected by many variables, such as gender, academic discipline, qualification, job experience, and age. This objective presented three demographic variables, e.g., university departments, qualifications, and experience. Fifteen null hypotheses were designed to measure these variables. Results related to departmental-based differences reflected significant differences in teachers' opinions regarding functions, forms, levels, and scope of thinking styles. In the factor-wise analysis, it was observed that teachers of management sciences had higher mean scores in these thinking styles, whereas low mean scores were found against the engineering department. Teachers of the management sciences department were more innovative, executive, and judgmental than the engineering department. They preferred to pay more attention to the overall picture and ignored the details. Whereas no significant differences in teachers' opinions about the learning of thinking styles. The

results of this study were consistent with Cenberci (2018). He conducted the study with the participation of various Pamukkale University Education Faculty departments. There were significant differences in teachers' opinions regarding functions, forms, levels, and scope of thinking styles. It has been found that males used global, internal, and conservative thinking styles more than females. This research's results were also similar to the research conducted by Sünbül (2004) at Selçuk University; it has been found that there were significant differences in monarchic thinking, hierarchic thinking, and oligarchic thinking, anarchic thinking, and internal thinking style dimensions according to academic disciplines. Emir et al. (2011) conducted a study on the senior students of Science Education, Social Sciences and Gifted Education departments from Istanbul University; it has been revealed that there were differences in monarchic, oligarchic, anarchic, global, local, internal, external, and conservative thinking according to academic disciplines. Therefore, academic disciplines' effect on the differentiation of thinking styles has been considered, and academic discipline was also accepted as a variable. This study was also consistent with the current study. There were significant differences in teachers' opinions about functions, forms, and learnings of thinking styles based on qualification. High mean scores were found against teachers having a master's degree. These teachers were more task-oriented, executive, and organized. The reason may be they are young and energetic. Teachers having Ph.D. qualifications had a low mean score. They are less innovative and never accept change easily. Simultaneously, no significant difference was found between university teachers' level and scope of thinking styles. High mean scores were observed against master's degree holder teachers, and low mean scores were found for Ph.D. degree holder teachers. Variables such as work experience had an impact on teachers' ways of thinking. Results related to teachers' experiences revealed no significant difference in

teachers' opinions regarding functions, forms, levels, scope, and learnings of thinking styles. This study's results consisted of the study “Thinking styles and teachers' characteristics” conducted by Zhang and Sternberg (2002).

The eighth objective was to compare teachers’ job embeddedness about demographic variables (university departments, faculty members’ qualifications, and experience) at the university level. No significant differences were found in different departments’ teachers regarding fit, links, and sacrifice with organization and community. Teachers of all departments had the same opinion. Factor-wise analysis observed that teachers of management sciences had high mean scores about fit with organization and community, and low mean scores were observed against the engineering department. The social sciences department's teachers had high mean scores about links with organization and community, whereas computer sciences teachers had a high mean score in sacrifice for organization and community. There was a difference in teachers' opinions regarding fit, links, and sacrifice for organization and community based on qualification. The highest mean scores were found against M.Phil. degree holder teachers, and low mean scores were found against Ph.D. faculty members. Results also revealed no significant difference among teachers related to fit, links, and sacrifice for organization and community based on experience. These findings are consistent with Iqbal et al. (2017), who investigated differences related to job satisfaction between public and private teachers in a comparative study. They found no difference in teachers' views about their job satisfaction at public and private sector schools. Numerous demographic studies were conducted. Scott and LePine (2007) illustrated that job fulfillment can be characterized as a person's disposition about jobs and the relationship to laborer inspiration. The general point of view is that if employees

are satisfied, experienced, and qualified, they will be more averse to leave the organization.

## Conclusions

The conclusion was given in light of the obtained findings of the present study. This study was carried out to compare university teachers' thinking styles and job embeddedness and determine the significant difference at 0.05. The study was based on eight objectives and twenty-eight null hypotheses. This study also examines the influence of different demographic variables such as university location (public and private), teachers' gender, departments, qualification, and experience on teachers' thinking styles and job embeddedness. Data were collected using two separate inventories from the sample of four hundred and eighty respondents working in selected public and private sector universities. The population of the study was based on five public and four private sector universities in Islamabad. Four common departments (management sciences, social sciences, engineering, computer sciences) were selected from each university. Faculty members in public and private sector universities were not in equal numbers. So proportionate stratified-random-sampling technique was used to maintain the balance between the samples.

The first objective was to assess teachers thinking styles at the university level. The research findings found high mean scores in legislative, executive, judicial, hierarchical, and external thinking styles. In contrast, low mean scores were found in university teachers' anarchic and conservative thinking styles. It was concluded based on results that at higher educational instructions, teachers prefer problems that require them to devise new strategies, appreciate existing theories, and evaluate them using their research-based knowledge. Keeping in mind the importance of time, they put their

goals in a hierarchy depending on their importance and priorities. Results also revealed that teachers at this level good at developing intrapersonal relationships. They preferred to collaborate with others within the team. At the same time, low mean scores showed that fewer teachers tend to adopt random and non-complaints in a particular order to solve the problem. Fewer teachers were a follower of conservative ways of thinking and preferred the least possible change.

The second objective was to assess teachers' job embeddedness at the university level. Job embeddedness was a positive variable needed by every organization to make its employees achieve the organization's objectives. Despite the various benefits of job embeddedness in the workplace, many challenges are associated with it. Various factors such as job performance, organizational climate, and institutional justice had been linked in the literature to be an antecedent of job embeddedness. It was concluded that the means of fit organization and fit community were comparatively higher than links and sacrifice with organization and community. Fit refers to an employee's perceived harmony with the organization or environment; its values, career goals, and plans should be consistent with the job's demands.

The third objective was to compare gender-based differences in teachers' thinking styles at the university level. Thinking styles can be referred to as a dynamic and organized set of characteristics possessed by a person who uniquely influences their behavior in various situations. Gender differences in organizations have attracted significant research interest. There was no significant difference in male and female teachers' thinking styles by going over objective number three except for local thinking styles. The factor-wise analysis revealed that male teachers had a high mean score than female teachers. The advocators of the local thinking style are characterized by being

attracted by practical situations. These individuals preferred to work on a task that required working with concrete details and avoiding conceptual analysis.

The fourth objective was to compare gender-based differences regarding the job embeddedness of teachers at the university level. There were no gender-based differences in teachers' opinions regarding job embeddedness except for links with the organization. Links are the social and financial association between employees and the organization. A significant difference was found in male and female university teachers' opinions regarding links with the organization. Male teachers' scores were higher than female teachers.

The fifth objective was to compare teachers thinking styles at the university level in the public and private sectors. In Pakistan, universities are classified into two main categories. One is the public sector, and the other is private sector universities. The results showed a significant difference in govt and non-govt university teachers' opinions regarding legislative, executive, judicial, hierarchic, oligarchic, local, and external thinking styles. Results showed that public sector teachers were more innovative, task-oriented, judgmental, and social than private-sector teachers. The mean score of public sector university teachers was higher than private-sector teachers.

In contrast, no significant difference was found in global, internal, liberal, and conservative thinking styles. The p values regarding these thinking styles were not significant. It was concluded that teachers of both sectors preferred to deal with broad, abstract, and relatively large and high-level concepts. They often ignore the details. Both sector teachers value familiar situations, and they are characterized by diligence and order. They followed the set rules and procedures and preferred working

independently. They are goal-oriented and introverted, and they refuse to change and would prefer the least possible change.

The sixth objective was to compare teachers' levels of job embeddedness in the public and private sectors. There were six measurements of job-embeddedness. These dimensions were related to organizational embeddedness and community embeddedness. Results reflected a significant difference in university teachers' points of view about fit and links with the organization. There was no significant difference in teachers' points of view related to sacrifice for the organization. The mean score of public sector university teachers was higher in fit and links with the organization than private university teachers. Similarities were found in both sectors' teachers' opinions about links, fit, and sacrifice for the community.

The seventh objective was to explore teachers' thinking styles about demographic variables (university departments, faculty members' qualifications, and experience) at the university level. Results related to departmental-based differences reflected significant differences in teachers' opinions regarding functions, forms, levels, and scope of thinking styles. Whereas no significant differences in teachers' opinions about the learning of thinking styles. In the factor-wise analysis, it was observed that teachers of management sciences had higher mean scores in these thinking styles, whereas low mean scores were found against the engineering department. Teachers of the management sciences department were more innovative, executive, and judgmental than the engineering department. They preferred to pay more attention to the overall picture and ignored the details. There were significant differences in teachers' opinions about functions, forms, and levels of thinking styles based on qualification. High mean scores were found against teachers having a master's degree. These teachers were more

task-oriented, executive, and organized. The reason may be that they are young and energetic. Teachers having Ph.D. qualifications had a low mean score. They are less innovative. They never accept change easily. There was no significant difference in the opinion of teachers about the scope and learnings of thinking styles. High mean scores were observed against master's degree holder teachers, and low mean scores were found for Ph.D. degree holder teachers. Teachers' experiences revealed no significant difference in teachers' opinions regarding functions, forms, levels, scope, and learning styles.

The eighth objective was to explore teachers' job embeddedness in demographic variables (university departments, faculty members' qualifications, and experience) at the university level. No significant differences were found in different departments' teachers' opinions regarding fit, links, and sacrifice with organization and community. It was observed that teachers from all departments had the same opinion. Factor-wise analysis observed that teachers of management sciences had high mean scores about fit with organization and community, and low mean scores were observed against the engineering department. The social sciences department's teachers had a high mean score about links with organization and community, whereas computer sciences teachers had a high mean score for organization and community sacrifice. There was a difference in teachers' opinions regarding fit, links, and sacrifice for organization and community based on qualification. The highest mean scores were found against M.Phil. Degree holder teachers and low mean scores were found against Ph.D. faculty members. Results also revealed no significant difference among teachers related to fit, links, and sacrifice for organization and community based on experience.

## 5.4 Recommendations

i. In conclusion, No.1, the university teachers of govt sectors had a higher mean score on legislative, executive, judicial, hierarchical, oligarchic, anarchic, local, and external thinking styles. So it is recommended that private sector universities arrange workshops and seminars on different thinking styles to provide teachers with awareness about their thinking styles. Authorities may provide proper training about different thinking styles by collaborating with public and private universities to understand their employees' thinking styles.

ii. It was observed from the conclusion of objective No. 2 that job-embeddedness was a positive variable needed by every organization to make its employees achieve the organization's objectives. Various factors such as job performance, organizational climate, and institutional justice had been linked in the literature to be an antecedent of job embeddedness. Despite the various benefits of job embeddedness in the workplace, many challenges are associated with it. It is recommended that training workshops be conducted to educate the employees on creating stability in their job performance, organizational climate, and domestic life.

iii. The factor-wise analysis revealed that male teachers had a high mean score than female teachers. There was no significant difference in male and female teachers' thinking styles by going over objective number three except for local thinking styles. It is recommended that administrators provide equal responsibilities and benefits to male and female teachers. They feel confident and utilize professional practices in an academic environment; it is also recommended that administrators build an environment of teamwork

where everybody can share their ideas with others and learn new things from other colleagues.

iv. The fourth objective was related to male and female teachers' level of job-embeddedness at the university level. There was no significant difference in male and female teachers' opinions regarding job embeddedness except for the organization's links. Links are the social and financial association between employees and their workplaces or the organizations where they are working. Community links are social ties; an employee has with those who live in the same geographical area. It is recommended that organizations organize entertainment clubs, social events, and informal meetings to establish trust foundations; these exercises may build friendships among employees.

v. Results showed that public sector teachers were more innovative, task-oriented, judgmental, and social than private-sector teachers. It was found from the conclusion of objective number five that there was a significant difference in govt and private university educators' opinions regarding legislative, executive, judicial, hierarchic, oligarchic, local, and external thinking styles. It is recommended that the management of the private sector universities provide proper training about different thinking styles through collaboration with public sector universities to understand their employees' thinking styles. This knowledge will help them select the right person for the right job.

vi. The sixth objective was about the job embeddedness of teachers in the public and private sectors. Results reflected a significant difference in

university teachers' points of view about fit and links with the organization. There was no significant difference in teachers' points of view related to sacrifice for the organization. An individual's choice to leave an organization is not made in isolation but is formed by the environment (both work and non-work) in which the individual is 'embedded. So it is recommended that university heads build good work relationships with all team members and attempt to bring people together to celebrate key events, accomplishments, and anniversaries to improve job embeddedness.

vii. The seventh objective was to identify the difference among teachers' thinking styles about demographic variables such as university departments, teachers' qualifications, and experience. It is suggested that universities organize conferences on thinking styles when different scholars share their research findings and highlight the importance of different thinking styles regarding different demographic variables. Teachers will learn about different thinking styles and recognize them because they vary from situation to situation. If a person's thinking style matches the requirements of their role or tasks, it is more likely that the individual will perform more effectively. Thinking styles are not good and bad but only different from each other. Everyone has a specific thinking style. When the teacher acknowledges all students based on their thinking styles, it will increase instructional quality in public and private sector universities.

viii. The eighth objective related job-embeddedness to demographic variables such as university departments, qualifications, and experience. In the 21st century, all specialized fields, including teaching, are globalized and

internalized with each other. It is recommended that the organization may provide a forum to build trust by discussing openly with everybody in the workgroup. Everybody in the group should feel contented and relaxed, talking openly about organizational and global issues.

ix. It is recommended that organizations offer free-time activities, i.e., sports, outdoor events, and a cultural evening for their employees. Private sector universities may embed their teachers to provide them with different incentives, i.e., house rent allowance, medical allowance, social security benefits, and conveyance allowance.

x. It is recommended that the content related to thinking styles, professional development, and job embeddedness may be included in faculty development programs. Implementing these training programs' main idea is to give the university teachers awareness of their thinking styles.

## 5.5 Recommendations for Future Studies

As the present study was delimited in specific ways due to the resources and time constraints, recommendations are proposed for future research.

i. The present study used a quantitative approach only. Future researchers may employ a hybrid approach that combines observations, interviews, and surveys.

ii. The current study was designed to compare teachers' thinking and job-embeddedness at the university level. This research work was delimited to the teaching staff of university-level only. It is recommended that an identical study

may be conducted on clerical staff, supporting staff, security staff, and official administrators of public and private sector organizations.

iii. There is a need to conduct a research study on the same topic, including primary, elementary, and secondary levels.

iv. Future replication and extension studies are needed using other professions, occupational groups, and alternative style assessment instruments.

v. Future studies need to adopt models which reflect the relationship between individual thinking styles and environmental factors.

vi. This study was designed to make the demographic comparison of the sector, gender, qualificatio, experience, department regarding thinking styles, and job embeddedness of the university level teachers in Islamabad. Further investigation is required to find out the between these two constructs in a larger sample. That study may be extended to universities of different provinces to get a comprehensive picture of the problem in a national context.

## 5.7 Limitations of the Study

Due to the limited time and resources, a quantitative approach was used. However, the current study variables might be investigated through a hybrid approach where interviews, observations, and surveys were combined. Departments of social sciences, management sciences, computer sciences, and engineering were selected as the population for this study, and other departments may be added for future research. The proposed research study was geographically delimited to the public and private university teachers of the capital territory of Islamabad; another research may be carried out at the provincial level. This research was limited to identifying the

differences among university teachers' thinking styles and level of job embeddedness; administrative staff may be added for future research. This study was broader enough; therefore, demographic variables were delimited. Only gender, sector, departments, qualification, and experience-based differences were investigated for all sub-factors of variables. Other demographic variables like age and marital status may also be involved in this research regarding thinking style and job embeddedness.

# REFERENCES

Abdi, A. (2012). A study on the relationship of thinking styles of students and their critical thinking skills. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *47*, 1719-1723.

Afzal, S., Din, M., & Qureshi, I. A. (2018). Comparing the Stress Level of Teachers at Public and Private Universities in Pakistan. *Journal of Educational Research (1027-9776)*, *21*(1).

Ahmed, S., Taskin, N., Pauleen, D. J., & Parker, J. (2017). Motivating information technology professionals: The case of New Zealand. *Australasian Journal of Information Systems*, *21*.

Akhtar, M. M. S., & Kalsoom, T. (2012). Issues of universities' governance in Pakistan. *Journal of Elementary Education*, *22*(2), 81-94.

Akram, M. (2019). Psychological Wellbeing of University Teachers in Pakistan. *Journal of Education and Educational Development*, *6*(2), 235-253.

Almenara, J. C., Cejudo, M. D. C. L., & Lozano, J. A. M. (2013). Contributions to e-Learning from a Best Practices Study at Andalusian Universities. International Journal of Educational Technology in Higher Education, 10(1), 226-239.

Al-Sada, M., Al-Esmael, B., & Faisal, M. N. (2017). Influence of organizational culture and leadership style on employee satisfaction, commitment and motivation in the educational sector in Qatar. *EuroMed Journal of Business*.

Aly, J. H. (2007). Education in Pakistan: A white paper (revised). *Documentation to Debate and Finalize the National Education Policy. Islamabad: Government of Pakistan, National Education Policy Review Team*.

Ampofo, E. T., Coetzer, A., & Poisat, P. (2017). Relationships between job embeddedness and employees' life satisfaction. *Employee Relations*.

Arici, H. E., Arasli, H., Çobanoğlu, C., & Hejraty Namin, B. (2019). The Effect Of Favoritism On Job Embeddedness In The Hospitality Industry: A Mediation Study Of Organizational Justice. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, 1-29.

Armstrong, S. J., Cools, E., & Sadler-Smith, E. (2012). Role of cognitive styles in business and management: Reviewing 40 years of research. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 14(3), 238-262.

Aslam, R., Shumaila, S., Azhar, M., & Sadaqat, S. (2011). Work-family conflicts: Relationship between work-life conflict and employee retention–A comparative study of public and private sector employees. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Research in Business*, *1*(2), 18-29.

Ates, A., & Altun, E. (2008). Learning styles and preferences for students of computer education and instructional technologies. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 8(30), 1-7.

Aubin, E. D. S., Blahnik, J. R., & Lucas, V. (2007). *Ways of Thinking about Thinking Styles.* Psyccritiques, 52(8).

Balkis, M., & Isiker, G. B. (2005). The relationship between thinking styles and personality types. *Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal*, *33*(3), 283-294.

Bambacas, M., & Kulik, T. C. (2013). Job embeddedness in China: How HR practices impact turnover intentions. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *24*(10), 1933-1952.

Baş, T., & Ardıç, K. (2002). A comparison of job satisfaction between public and private university academicians in Turkey. *METU studies in Development*, *29*(1-2), 27-46.

Bawaneh, A. K. A., Abdullah, A. G. K., Saleh, S., & Yin, K. Y. (2011). Jordanian students' thinking styles based on Herrmann whole brain model. *International Journal of Humanities and social science*, 1(9), 89-97.

Bawaneh, A. K., Zain, A. N., & Saleh, S. (2010). Investigating tenth grade Jordanian Students' thinking styles based on Herrmann's Whole Brain Model for the purpose of developing new teaching method in modifying science misconceptions. *Educational research*, 1(9), 363-372.

Benjamin, L., Ai-Chee, T., Thomas, M., Hans-Dieter, E., & Yue Wah, C. (2003). Applying knowledge management in university research.

Bergiel, E. B., Nguyen, V. Q., Clenney, B. F., & Stephen Taylor, G. (2009). Human resource practices, job embeddedness and intention to quit. *Management Research News*, 32(3), 205-219.

Bernardo, A. B., Zhang, L. F., & Callueng, C. M. (2002). Thinking styles and academic achievement among Filipino students. *The journal of Genetic psychology*, *163*(2), 149-163.

Biggs, J. B. (1988). Assessing student approaches to learning. *Australian Psychologist*, *23*(2), 197-206.

Biggs, J. B. (1992). From theory to practice: A cognitive systems approach. *Higher education research and development*, *12*(1), 73-85.

Boroujerdi, S. S., & Hasani, K. (2014). The survey thinking style and its relation with creativity in physical education teachers. *International Journal of Educational Management*.

Bramson, H. (1986). *The art of thinking*. Berkeley book.

Budijanto, R. R. (2013). *Thinking Styles, Teamwork Quality and Performance*. University of Canberra.

BULUŞ, M. (2005). The investigation of the thinking styles profile of students in the department of elementary education. *Ege Eğitim Dergisi; Yıl: 2005 Cilt: 6 Sayı: 1*.

Burton, J. P. & Sablynski, C. S. (2004). Job embeddedness: Current research and future directions. *Understanding employee retention and turnover*, 153-187.

Burton, J. P., Holtom, B. C., Sablynski, C. J., Mitchell, T. R., & Lee, T. W. (2010). The buffering effects of job embeddedness on negative shocks. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *76*(1), 42-51.

Busato, V. V., Prins, F. J., Elshout, J. J., & Hamaker, C. (1998). The relation between learning styles, the Big Five personality traits and achievement motivation in higher education. *Personality and individual differences*, 26(1), 129-140.

Busato, V. V., Prins, F. J., Elshout, J. J., & Hamaker, C. (2000). Intellectual ability, learning style, personality, achievement motivation and academic success of psychology students in higher education. *Personality and Individual differences*, 29(6), 1057-1068.

Cabero-Almenara, J., Gutiérrez-Castillo, J. J., Palacios-Rodríguez, A., & Barroso-Osuna, J. (2021). Comparative European DigCompEdu Framework (JRC) and Common Framework for Teaching Digital Competence (INTEF) through expert judgment. Texto Livre: Linguagem E Tecnologia, 14(1).

Candan, H. (2016). A research on the relationship between job embeddedness with performance and burnout of academicians in Turkey. *IOSR Journal of Business and Management*, *18*(3), 68-80.

Cano-Garcia, F., & Hughes, E. H. (2000). Learning and thinking styles: An analysis of their interrelationship and influence on academic achievement. *Educational Psychology*, *20*(4), 413-430.

Carrington, P. J., Scott, J., & Wasserman, S. (Eds.). (2005). *Models and methods in social network analysis* (Vol. 28). Cambridge university press.

Carsten, J. M., & Spector, P. E. (1987). Unemployment, job satisfaction, and employee turnover: A meta-analytic test of the Muchinsky model. *Journal of applied psychology*, *72*(3), 374.

Chaminade, E. (2007). Job Satisfaction Measurement: Using the Maslow's Hierarchy Model and Frederick Herzberg Motivational Factor model.

Cheng, S., & Zhang, L. F. (2017). Thinking styles and quality of university life among deaf or hard of hearing and hearing students. *American Annals of the Deaf*, *162*(1), 8-23.

Cho, Y. B., & Ryu, J. R. (2009). Organizational Citizenship Behaviors In Relation To Job Embeddedness, Organizational Identification, Job Performance, Voluntary Turnover Intention In Korea. *International Business & Economics Research Journal (IBER)*, *8*(7).

Cho, Y. B., & Ryu, J. R. (2009). Organizational Citizenship Behaviors in Relation To Job Embeddedness, Organizational Identification, Job Performance, Voluntary Turnover Intention In Korea. *International Business & Economics Research Journal (IBER)*, *8*(7).

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2013). *Research methods in education*. routledge.

Cools, E., & Van den Broeck, H. (2007). Development and validation of the Cognitive Style Indicator. *The Journal of psychology*, 141(4), 359-387.

Cooper, J., Basson, J., & Schaap, P. (2006). A training programme based on the principles of social constructivism and focused on developing people for the future world of work: An evaluation. *Human Resource Development International*, 9(4), 467-483.

Creswell, J. (2012). W. (1994). Research design: Qualitative and quantitative approaches. *Thousand Oaks*, *88*(2), 207.

Creswell, J. W. (2003). A framework for design. *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*, 9-11.

Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2017). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Sage publications.

De Boer, T. (1999). Thinking style preferences of underprepared first year students in the natural sciences. *South African Journal of Ethnology*, 22(3), 97-102.

DeVellis, R. F., & Thorpe, C. T. (2021). Scale development: Theory and applications. Sage publications.

Dikici, A. (2014). Relationships between thinking styles and behaviors fostering creativity: An exploratory study for the mediating role of certain demographic traits. *Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice*, 14(1), 179-201.

Du Toit, P. H., Steyn, T., & De Boer, A. L. (2001). A whole brain approach to teaching and learning in higher education. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 15(3), 185-193.

Dunn, R. S., & Price, G. E. (1980). The learning style characteristics of gifted students. *Gifted Child Quarterly*, 24(1), 33-36.

EHTİYAR, R., & ERSOY, A. (2018). Job Embeddedness: A Ten Year Literature Review. *Social Sciences Researches in the Globalizing World*, 657.

Ejimofor, F. O. (2007). Principals' transformational leadership skills and their teachers' job satisfaction in Nigeria.

Emir, S. (2013). Contributions of Teachers' Thinking Styles to Critical Thinking Dispositions (Istanbul-Fatih Sample). *Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice*, *13*(1), 337-347.

Entwistle, N. (1981). *Styles of Teaching and Learning: An Integrated Outline of Educational Psychology for Students, Teachers, and Lecturers*, Wiley, New York.

Entwistle, N. J. (2013). Styles of learning and teaching: An integrated outline of educational psychology for students, teachers and lecturers. David Fulton Publishers.

Erkutlu, H., & Chafra, J. (2017). Authentic leadership and organizational job embeddedness in higher education. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi (HU Journal of Education)*, *32*(2), 413-426.

Esmer, E., & Altun, S. (2016). Teacher candidates' thinking styles: an investigation of various variables. *Journal of Education and Training Studies*, *4*(5), 160-172.

Fan, L., & Liu, Y. (2013). The impact of quality of work life on job embeddedness and affective commitment and their co-effect on turnover intention of nurses. *Journal of clinical nursing*, *22*(5-6), 780-788.

Fatemi, M., & Heidarie, A. (2016). Relationship between Thinking Styles and Academic Achievement of the Students. *International Journal of Humanities and Cultural Studies* (IJHCS) ISSN 2356-5926, 2(4), 1353-1361.

Fer, S. (2005). Validity and Reliability of the Thinking Styles Inventory. Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice, 5(1).

Fernández-Gómez, E., Martín-Salvador, A., Luque-Vara, T., Sánchez-Ojeda, M. A., Navarro-Prado, S., & Enrique-Mirón, C. (2020). Content validation through expert judgement

of an instrument on the nutritional knowledge, beliefs, and habits of pregnant women. Nutrients, 12(4), 1136.

Friedman, R. A., & Holtom, B. (2002). The effects of network groups on minority employee turnover intentions. *Human Resource Management: Published in Cooperation with the School of Business Administration, The University of Michigan and in alliance with the Society of Human Resources Management*, *41*(4), 405-421.

Gilley, J. W., Morris, M. L., Waite, A. M., Coates, T., & Veliquette, A. (2010). Integrated theoretical model for building effective teams. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 12(1), 7-28.

Government of Pakistan. (1992-2002). National Education Policy. Islamabad: Ministry of Education.

Government of Pakistan. (1998-2010). National Education Policy. Islamabad: Ministry of Education

Greenberg, M. T., Brown, J. L., & Abenavoli, R. M. (2016). Teacher stress and health effects on teachers, students, and schools. *Edna Bennett Pierce Prevention Research Center, Pennsylvania State University*.

Grigorenko, E. L., & Sternberg, R. J. (1995). Thinking styles. In *International handbook of personality and intelligence* (pp. 205-229). Springer, Boston, MA.

Grigorenko, E. L., & Sternberg, R. J. (1997). Styles of thinking, abilities, and academic performance. *Exceptional children*, 63(3), 295-312.

Gürel, N. A. (2009). Effects of thinking styles and gender on psychological well-being. *Yayınlanmamış yüksek lisans tezi). University of Middle East Tecnical The Graduate School of Social Sciences, Ankara*.

Haider, S. Z. (2008). Challenges in higher education: Special reference to Pakistan and South Asian developing countries. *Nonpartisan education review*, *4*(2).

Halai, N. (2013). Quality of private universities in Pakistan. *International Journal of Educational Management*.

Hamidifar, F. (2010). A study of the relationship between leadership styles and employee job satisfaction at IAU in Tehran, Iran. *Au-GSB e-Journal*, *3*(1).

Harris, K. J., Wheeler, A. R., & Kacmar, K. M. (2011). The mediating role of organizational job embeddedness in the LMX–outcomes relationships. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 22(2), 271-281.

Herrmann, N., & Herrmann-Nehdi, A. (2015). *The Whole Brain Business Book: Unlocking the Power of Whole Brain Thinking in Organizations, Teams, and Individuals*. McGraw-Hill Education.

Holland, J. L. (1973). *Making Vocational Choices: A Theory of Careers*, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.

Holtom, B. C., & Inderrieden, E. J. (2006). Integrating the unfolding model and job embeddedness model to better understand voluntary turnover. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 435-452.

Holtom, B. C., & O'neill, B. S. (2004). Job embeddedness: A theoretical foundation for developing a comprehensive nurse retention plan. *Journal of Nursing Administration*, 34(5), 216-227.

Hom, P. W., Tsui, A. S., Wu, J. B., Lee, T. W., Zhang, A. Y., Fu, P. P., & Li, L. (2009). Explaining employment relationships with social exchange and job embeddedness. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(2), 277.

Howard, T. J., Culley, S. J., & Dekoninck, E. (2008). Describing the creative design process by the integration of engineering design and cognitive psychology literature. *Design studies*, 29(2), 160-180.

Huang, J., & Sisco, B. R. (1994). Thinking styles of Chinese and American adult students in higher education: A comparative study. *Psychological Reports*, *74*(2), 475-480.

Ilie, C., & Cardoza, G. (2018). Thinking styles, gender, and decision making in Latin American management. *Academia Revista Latinoamericana de Administración*.

Iqbal, A. (2010). Employee turnover: Causes, consequences and retention strategies in the Saudi organizations. *The Business Review, Cambridge*, *16*(2), 275-281.

Kagan, J. (1966). Developmental studies in reflection and analysis. In Kidd, A. H., and Rivoire, J. L. (eds.), *Perceptual Development in Children*, International University Press, New York, pp. 487–522.

Kamuche, F. U. (2005). Do learning & teaching styles affect students' performance? An empirical study. *Journal of Business & Economics Research*, 3(9), 35-40.

Karatepe, O. M. (2013). The effects of work overload and work-family conflict on job embeddedness and job performance. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*.

Khalid, S., Irshad, M. Z., & Mahmood, B. (2012). Job satisfaction among academic staff: A comparative analysis between public and private sector universities of Punjab, Pakistan. *International journal of Business and Management*, *7*(1), 126.

Kim, J., & Michael, W. B. (1995). The relationship of creativity measures to school achievement and to preferred learning and thinking style in a sample of Korean high school students. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 55(1), 60-74.

King, P. C., & Zhang, W. (2014). Problem solving: A test of yin-yang thinking. *J. Mgmt. & Sustainability*, *4*, 76.

Kirkman, B. L., & Shapiro, D. L. (2001). The impact of cultural values on job satisfaction and organizational commitment in self-managing work teams: The mediating role of employee resistance. *Academy of Management journal*, *44*(3), 557-569.

Koehler, M. J., Mishra, P., & Yahya, K. (2007). Tracing the development of teacher knowledge in a design seminar: Integrating content, pedagogy and technology. *Computers & Education*, *49*(3), 740-762.

Kolb, D. A. (1976). The Learning Style Inventory: *Technical Manual*, McBer, Boston, MA.

Lee, K. (2004). Workplace deviance, organizational citizenship behavior, and business unit performance: The bad apples do spoil the whole barrel. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior*, *25*(1), 67-80.

Lee, S. Y., & Hong, J. H. (2011). Does family-friendly policy matter? Testing its impact on turnover and performance. *Public Administration Review*, *71*(6), 870-879.

Lee, T. W., Mitchell, T. R., Sablynski, C. J., Burton, J. P., & Holtom, B. C. (2004). The effects of job embeddedness on organizational citizenship, job performance, volitional absences, and voluntary turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, 47(5), 711-722.

Lee, T. W., Mitchell, T. R., Sablynski, C. J., Burton, J. P., & Holtom, B. C. (2004). The effects of job embeddedness on organizational citizenship, job performance, volitional absences, and voluntary turnover. *Academy of management journal*, *47*(5), 711-722.

Lumley, E. J. (2009). *Exploring the relationship between career anchors, job satisfaction and organizational commitment* (Doctoral dissertation, University of South Africa).

Malekian, F., & Malekian, K. (2012). The Study of the Relation between Thought Styles and the Tendency Rate to the type of Educational Media in Students. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 51, 1011-1015.

Malik, M. E., Nawab, S., Naeem, B., & Danish, R. Q. (2010). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment of university teachers in public sector of Pakistan. *International journal of business and management*, *5*(6), 17.

Martin, A., & Roodt, G. (2008). Perceptions of organizational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions in a post-merger South African tertiary institution. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *34*(1), 23-31.

Miiro, F., Othman, A., & Ibrahim, M. B. (2017). Analysing the relationship between sustainable leadership, talent management and organization health as predictors of university transformation.

Miller, A. (1987). Cognitive styles: An integrated model. *Educational psychology*, 7(4), 251-268.

Mitchell, T. R., Holtom, B. C., Lee, T. W., Sablynski, C. J., & Erez, M. (2001). Why people stay: Using job embeddedness to predict voluntary turnover. *Academy of management journal*, 44(6), 1102-1121.

Mobley, W. H. (1982). Some unanswered questions in turnover and withdrawal research. *Academy of management review*, *7*(1), 111-116.

Molen, H. T. (2016). The relationships between trust in supervisor, turnover intentions, and voluntary turnover: Testing the mediating effect of on-the-job embeddedness. *Journal of Personnel Psychology*, *15*(4), 174.

Morote & Perry, S. M. (2016). Happiness at Work: Organizational Culture, Job Embeddedness, and Continuance Commitment. *Job Embeddedness, and Continuance Commitment (February 2, 2016)*.

Moss, L. E., Seitz, W. D., Anton, W. R. Q., & Anton, T. E. (2002). Learning styles, student-centered learning techniques, and student performance in agricultural economics. *NACTA Journal*, 34-38.

Mushtaq, N., & Malik, A. B. (2018). The role of public and private universities of Pakistan as learning organization. *Journal of Research in Social Sciences*, *6*(1), 277-290.

Nagoba, B. S., & Mantri, S. B. (2015). Role of teachers in quality enhancement in higher education.

Nawaz, A. (2010). Impacts of demographic variables on job-satisfaction of the academicians in Universities of NWFP, Pakistan. *Bulletin of Education and Research*, *32*(1).

Nawaz, B., & Muazzam, A. (2015). Performance related pay of university employees: A comparison of public and private sector universities of Pakistan. *Pakistan Business Review*, *17*(1), 183-200.

Naz, B. A., Khan, U. A., Shah, R. U., & Iqbal, J. (2012). A comparative study of the selected administrative practices at public and private sector universities of Pakistan. *International Journal of Learning and Development*, *2*(1), 593-602.

Ng, T. W., & Feldman, D. C. (2010). The relationships of age with job attitudes: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, *63*(3), 677-718.

Nisar, A. (2019, December 20). State of Higher Education. *The Nation.* https://nation.com.pk/20-Dec-2019/state-of-higher-education

Noordin, F., & Jusoff, K. (2009). Levels of job satisfaction amongst Malaysian academic staff. *Asian social science*, *5*(5), 122-128.

Oladeji, O. O., & Ayinde, A. T. (2018). Leadership Styles and Personality Traits as Predictors of Job Embeddedness among Employees of Ibadan Electricity Distribution Company, Nigeria. *Journal of Management*, *6*(2), 8-23.

Olaniyan, O. S., & Hystad, S. W. (2016). Employees' psychological capital, job satisfaction, insecurity, and intentions to quit: The direct and indirect effects of authentic leadership. *Revista de Psicología del Trabajo y de las Organizaciones*, *32*(3), 163-171.

Onana Alima, L., El-Ansary, S., Brand, P., & Haridi, S. (2003). DKS (N, k, f): a family of low communication, scalable and fault-tolerant infrastructures for P2P applications. In *3rd IEEE/ACM International Symposium on Cluster Computing and the Grid (CCGrid2003)* (pp. 344-350). IEEE COMPUTER SOC.

Osowski, C. D. (2018). *Relationship between Job Embeddedness and Turnover Intention of High School Math Teachers* (Doctoral dissertation, Walden University).

Piaw, C. H. (2014). Relationship between thinking styles and ability to pay attention of Malaysian male and female student teachers. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *116*, 4839-4843.

Priola, V., Smith, J. L., & Armstrong, S. J. (2004). Group work and cognitive style: a discursive investigation. *Small group research*, 35(5), 565-595. https://doi.org/10.1177/1046496404265143

Ramey, J. W. (2002). The relationship between leadership styles of nurse managers and staff nurse job satisfaction in hospital settings.

Rasheed, M. I., Humayon, A. A., & Awan, U. (2016). Factors affecting teachers' motivation. *International Journal of Educational Management*.

Rehman, A. (2008. November 5). State of Higher Education in Pakistan. *The Nation.* https://nation.com.pk/05-Nov-2008/status-of-higher-education-in-pakistan

Reitz, O. E., & Anderson, M. A. (2011). An overview of job embeddedness. *Journal of Professional Nursing*, 27(5), 320-327.

Riding, R. J., Glass, A., & Douglas, G. (1993). Individual differences in thinking: Cognitive and neurophysiological perspectives. *Educational Psychology*, *13*(3-4), 267-279.

Riding, R., & Cheema, I. (1991). Cognitive styles—an overview and integration. *Educational psychology*, 11(3-4), 193-215.

Rumbley, L. E., Altbach, P. G., & Reisberg, L. (2012). Internationalization within the higher education context. *The SAGE handbook of international higher education*, *3*, 26.

Sajedi, R. (2017). Relationship between Thinking Styles, Critical Thinking and Creativity among the Students of Semnan University of Medical Sciences.

Sari, H., & Sünbül, A. M. (2004). A comparative analysis of gifted and other high school students' thinking styles in Turkey. In *International Conference on Quality in Education in the Balkan Countries* (pp. 546-565).

Schaufeli, W. B., & Bakker, A. B. (2004). Job demands, job resources, and their relationship with burnout and engagement: A multi-sample study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior*, 25(3), 293-315.

Sheeran, T. J. (2008). AAD Project – Male-female balance: A Struggle. Retrieved from http://aad.english.ucsb.edu/docs/male-female.html.

Singh & Kodwani. (2012). A study of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intent among the IT and ITES sector employees. *Vision*, *16*(1), 27-35.

Sofo, F., Berzins, M., & Colapinto, C. (2008). Thinking Styles of Australian, Chinese and Italian University Students. *International Journal of Diversity in Organisations, Communities & Nations*, 8(2).

Sofo, F., Colapinto, C., Sofo, M., & Ammirato, S. (2013). Adaptive decision making and intellectual styles (Vol. 13). *Springer Science & Business Media.*

Sternberg, F.Z. (2011). *Thinking styles across cultures their relationships with students learning.* New York London: Routledge.

Sternberg, R. J. (1988). Mental self-government: A theory of intellectual styles and their development. *Human development*, 31(4), 197-224.

Sternberg, R. J. (1990). Thinking styles: Keys to understanding student performance. *The Phi Delta Kappan*, 71(5), 366-371.

Sternberg, R. J. (1994). Thinking styles: Theory and assessment at the interface between intelligence and personality. In Sternberg, R. J., and Ruzgis, P. (eds.), *Intelligence and Personality*, Cambridge University Press, New York, pp. 169–187.

Sternberg, R. J. (1997). *Thinking Styles*, Cambridge University Press, New York.

Sternberg, R. J. (1999). *Thinking styles*. Cambridge university press.

Sternberg, R. J., & Grigorenko, E. L. (1993). Thinking styles and the gifted. *Roeper Review*, 16(2), 122-130.

Sternberg, R. J., & Grigorenko, E. L. (1995). Styles of thinking in the school. *European journal for high ability*, 6(2), 201-219.

Sternberg, R. J., & Lubart, T. I. (1996). Investing in creativity. *American psychologist*, 51(7), 677.

Sternberg, R. J., & Wagner, R. K. (1991). MSG thinking styles inventory: *Manual. Star Mountain Projects.*

Sternberg, R. J., & Zhang, L. F. (2005). Styles of thinking as a basis of differentiated instruction. *Theory into practice*, 44(3), 245-253.

Sternberg, R. J., & Zhang, L. F. (2014). *Perspectives on thinking, learning, and cognitive styles*. Routledge.

Sternberg, R. J., and Grigorenko, E. L. (1997). Are cognitive styles still in style? Am. Psychol. 52(7): 700–712.

Sternberg, R. J., Grigorenko, E. L., & Zhang, L. F. (2008). Styles of learning and thinking matter in instruction and assessment. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 3(6), 486-506.

Sternberg, R. J., Grigorenko, E. L., Ferrari, M., & Clinkenbeard, P. (2015). Comment on Sternberg's review of Zhang. *The American Journal of Psychology*, 128(1), 122-125.

Susomrith, P., & Amankwaa, A. (2019). Relationship between job embeddedness and innovative work behaviour. *Management Decision*.. *Management Decision*.

Swidler, A. (2008, September). Comment on Stephen Vaisey's "Socrates, Skinner, and Aristotle: Three ways of thinking about culture in action". *In Sociological Forum (*Vol. 23, No. 3, pp. 614-618). Oxford, UK: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

Tracey, J. B., & Hinkin, T. R. (2008). Contextual factors and cost profiles associated with employee turnover. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, *49*(1), 12-27.

Turki, J. (2012). Thinking styles in light of Sternberg's theory prevailing among the students of Tafila technical university and its relationship with some variables. *American International Journal of Contemporary Research*, 2(3), 140-152.

Usman, S. (2014). Governance and Higher Education in Pakistan: What Roles Do Boards of Governors Play in Ensuring the Academic Quality Maintenance in Public Universities versus Private Universities in Pakistan?. *International Journal of Higher Education*, *3*(2), 38-51.

Vogel, R. M., & Feldman, D. C. (2009). Integrating the levels of person-environment fit: The roles of vocational fit and group fit. *Journal of vocational behavior*, *75*(1), 68-81.

Volpentesta, A. P., Ammirato, S., & Sofo, F. (2011, June). Thinking style and collaborative design learning: An empirical investigation. In *Proceedings of the 2011 15th International Conference on Computer Supported Cooperative Work in Design (CSCWD)* (pp. 716-721). IEEE.

Volpentesta, A. P., Muzzupappa, M., & Ammirato, S. (2008, September). Critical thinking and concept design generation in a collaborative network. *In Working Conference on Virtual Enterprises* (pp. 157-164). Springer, Boston, MA.

Von Hagel Jr, W. J., & Miller, L. A. (2011). Precipitating events leading to voluntary employee turnover among information technology professionals. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 5(2), 14-33.

Watson, J. M. (2018). Job Embeddedness May Hold the Key to the Retention of Novice Talent in Schools. *Educational Leadership and Administration: Teaching and Program Development*, *29*(1), 26-43.

Wechsler, S. M. (2009). Age and gender impact on thinking and creating styles. *European journal of Education and Psychology*, *2*(1), 37-48.

Weisskopf, T. E., Bowles, S., Gordon, D. M., Baily, M. N., & Rees, A. (1983). Hearts and minds: a social model of US productivity growth. *Brookings Papers on Economic Activity*, 1983(2), 381-450.

Westwood, M. J., & Borgen, W. A. (1988). A culturally embedded model for effective intercultural communication. *International Journal for the Advancement of Counselling*, 11(2), 115-125.

William Lee, T., Burch, T. C., & Mitchell, T. R. (2014). The story of why we stay: A review of job embeddedness. *Annu. Rev. Organ. Psychol. Organ. Behav.*, *1*(1), 199-216.

Williamson, I. O., & Holmes IV, O. (2015). What's culture got to do with it? Examining job embeddedness and organizational commitment and turnover intentions in South Africa. *Africa Journal of Management*, *1*(3), 225-243.

Witkin, H. A., Moore, C. A., Goodenough, D. R., & Cox, P. W. (1977). Field-dependent and field-independent cognitive styles and their educational implications. *Review of educational research*, 47(1), 1-64.

Yetim, N., & Yetim, U. (2006). The cultural orientations of entrepreneurs and employees' job satisfaction: The Turkish small and medium sized enterprises (SMEs) case. *Social Indicators Research*, 77(2), 257-286.

Yusof, M. M., Ho, J. A., Imm, S. N. S., & Zawawi, D. (2019). Weeding out Deviant Workplace Behaviour in Downsized Organizations: The Role of Emotional Intelligence and Job Embeddedness. *Asian Journal of Business Research*, *9*(3), 115.

Yuwono, T., Novitasari, D., Sutardi, D., Mustofa, M., & Asbari, M. (2020). Peran Organizational Commitment terhadap Hubungan Work-Family Conflict dan Kepuasan Kerja Karyawan Wanita di Kota Seribu Industri Tangerang. *EduPsyCouns: Journal of Education, Psychology and Counseling*, *2*(1), 524-540.

Zabukovec, V., & Kobal-Grum, D. (2004). Relationship between student thinking styles and social skills. *Psychology Science,* 46, 156-166.

Zelniker, T., Jeffrey, W. E., Dubnikov, A., Dubnikov, G., Golan, Z., Bentin, S., & Wright, J. C. (1976). Reflective and impulsive children: Strategies of information processing underlying differences in problem solving. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development*, 1-59.

Zhang, L. F. (2002). Thinking styles: Their relationships with modes of thinking and academic performance. *Educational Psychology,* 22(3), 331-348.

Zhang, L. F. (2003). Contributions of thinking styles to critical thinking dispositions. *The Journal of Psychology*, 137(6), 517-544.

Zhang, L. F. (2004). Thinking styles: University students' preferred teaching styles and their conceptions of effective teachers. *The Journal of Psychology*, 138(3), 233-252.

Zhang, L. F. (2008). Teachers' styles of thinking: An exploratory study. *The journal of Psychology*, *142*(1), 37-55.

Zhang, L. F., & Fan, W. (2011). 4 The Theory of Mental Self-Government Grows Up. *Style Differences in Cognition, Learning, and Management: Theory, Research, and Practice*, *10*, 46.

Zhang, L. F., & Sachs, J. (1997). Assessing thinking styles in the theory of mental self-government: A Hong Kong validity study. *Psychological reports*, 81(3), 915-928.

Zhang, L. F., & Sternberg, R. J. (2000). Are learning approaches and thinking styles related? A study in two Chinese populations. *The Journal of psychology*, 134(5), 469-489.

Zhang, L. F., & Sternberg, R. J. (2002). Thinking styles and teachers' characteristics. *International Journal of Psychology*, 37(1), 3-12.

Zhang, L. F., & Sternberg, R. J. (2005). A threefold model of intellectual styles. *Educational psychology review*, 17(1), 1-53.

Zhang, L. F., Sternberg, R. J., & Sternberg, R. J. (2006). *The nature of intellectual styles*. Psychology Press.

Zhang, M., Fried, D. D., & Griffeth, R. W. (2012). A review of job embeddedness: Conceptual, measurement issues, and directions for future research. *Human Resource management review*, 22(3), 220-231.

Zhang, R.S. (2001). *Perspectives on thinking learning and cognitive styles*. New York: Routledge.

Zhu, C., & Zhang, L. F. (2011). Thinking styles and conceptions of creativity among university students. *Educational Psychology*, *31*(3), 361-375.

Zulfqar, A., Valcke, M., Devos, G., Tuytens, M., & Shahzad, A. (2016). Leadership and decision-making practices in public versus private universities in Pakistan. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, *17*(1), 147-159.

# APPENDIX A

## Topic Approval Letter

NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF MODERN LANGUAGES
Faculty of Social Sciences
Sector H-9, P.O. Shaigan, Islamabad
Tel: +92-9265100-110 ext: 2096
Web: www.numl.edu.pk

ML.1-2/2017/FSS
Dated: 17-07-2017

To,
Ms. Shazia Qummer

Subject: APPROVAL OF PHD TOPIC AND SUPERVISOR

1. Reference Academic Branch's Notification No. ML.2-5/17/Adms/Acad dated 14-06-2017, the Board of Higher Studies and Research has approved the following vide its meeting held from24th,28th April, 4th,5th & 30th May 2017.

2a. Supervisor's Name & Designation

**Dr. Shazia Zamir**
**Assistant Professor,**
**Department of Education,**
**NUML, Islamabad.**

2b. Topic of Thesis

"**A Comparative Study of Thinking Styles and Job Embeddedness of University Teachers**"

3. You may carry out research on the given topic under the guidance of your Supervisor and submit the thesis for further evaluation within the stipulated time.

4. It is inform you that your thesis should be submit within described period by Jan 2021 positively for further necessary action please. You will also submit Acceptance/published article in "Y" category with thesis for evaluation and defense purpose.

5. As per policy of NUML, all MPhil/PhD theses are to be run on turnitin by QEC of NUML before being sent for evaluation. The university shall not take any responsibility for high similarity resulting due to theses run from own sources.

6. Theses are to be prepared strictly on NUML's format that can be had from Coordinator, MPhil/PhD (Education Department)

Telephone No: 051-9265100-110 Ext: 2091
E-mail: snudrat@numl.edu.pk

Prof. Dr. Sufiana Khatoon Malik
Dean, Faculty of Social Sciences

Cc to
Dr. Shazia Zamir
(Supervisor)

**APPENDIX B**

NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF MODERN LANGUAGES
Faculty of Social Sciences
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Letter No: ML.1-3/Edu/2021 Date: 29th November 2021

To: **Ms. Shazia Qummer (Reg No 587-Phd/Edu/S16)**

Subject: **Approval of Change of PhD Thesis Topic**

1. Reference to Letter No ML.1-3/Edu/2021 dated 19.11.21, it is intimated that the 12th BASR, in its meeting held on 18th November 2021, has validated the change of your Thesis Topic as under:

   **A Comparative Study of Thinking Styles and Job Embeddedness among Public and Private University Teachers**

2. You may continue with the formalities of re-submission of Soft & Hard copies as per NUML Format for the process of Turnitin. You have to submit the draft by **30th November 2021.**

3. The format can be taken from the Coordinator (MPhil /Ph.D.) Dr. Saira Nudrat.

Distribution:
Ms. Shazia Qummer (Ph.D. Scholar)
Dr. Shazia Zamir (Supervisor)


Dr Wajeeha Shahid
Head
Department of Education NUML, Islamabad

**APPENDIX C**

# Department Permission Letter

**DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION**
**FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES**
National University of Modern Languages
Sector H-9, Islamabad
Tel.No: 051-9265100 Ext: 2090

ML.1-5/2017-Edu

Dated: 5-7-2017

***WHOM SO EVER IT MAY CONCERN***

Ms Shazia Qummer Student of Ph.D (Edu) Department of Education of National University of Modern Languages is engaged in project of Research Work.

She may please be allowed to visit your Institution / Library to obtain the required information for her Research Work.

This information shall not be divulged to any unauthorized person or agency. It shall be kept confidential.

Dr Hukam Dad Malik
Head,
Department of Education.

# APPENDIX D

## Validity Certificate

### CERTIFICATE OF VALIDITY

**Comparative Study of Thinking Styles and Job Embeddedness of University Teachers**

By Shazia Qummer

**Ph.D. Scholar, Education, National University of Modern Languages, H-9 Islamabad**

This is to certify that the questionnaires adapted and modified by the researcher towards her thesis have been assessed by me and I found these designed questionnaires adequately to analyze thinking styles and level of job embeddedness of university teachers.

It is considered that the research instruments, developed for the research above titled are according to the objectives and hypotheses of the research. I hereby certify that the questionnaires related to the areas mentioned above are fully comprehensible and valid as for as "Construct" and "Content" of the study are concerned and they can be used for data collection by the researcher with fair amount of confidence.

Name: Dr. Hukam Dad Malik
Designation: HOD, Education Department
Institute: National University of Modern Languages

Signature: _____
Date: 07-07-2017

# APPENDIX E

## Validity Certificate

### CERTIFICATE OF VALIDITY

**Comparative Study of Thinking Styles and Job Embeddedness of University Teachers**

By Shazia Qummer

**Ph.D. Scholar, Education, National University of Modern Languages, H-9 Islamabad**

This is to certify that the questionnaires adapted and modified by the researcher towards her thesis have been assessed by me and I found these designed questionnaires adequately to analyze thinking styles and level of job embeddedness of university teachers.

It is considered that the research instruments, developed for the research above titled are according to the objectives and hypotheses of the research. I hereby certify that the questionnaires related to the areas mentioned above are fully comprehensible and valid as for as "Construct" and "Content" of the study are concerned and they can be used for data collection by the researcher with fair amount of confidence.

Name: Prof Brig® Dr. Allah Bakhsh Malik
Designation: Ex- Head of Education Department NUML
Institute: National University of Modern Languages

Signature: Allah Bakhsh
Date: 20-09-2017

# APPENDIX F

## Validity Certificate

### CERTIFICATE OF VALIDITY

**Comparative Study of Thinking Styles and Job Embeddedness of University Teachers**

By Shazia Qummer

**Ph.D. Scholar, Education, National University of Modern Languages, H-9 Islamabad**

This is to certify that the questionnaires adapted and modified by the researcher towards her thesis have been assessed by me and I found these designed questionnaires adequately to analyze thinking styles and level of job embeddedness of university teachers.

It is considered that the research instruments, developed for the research above titled are according to the objectives and hypotheses of the research. I hereby certify that the questionnaires related to the areas mentioned above are fully comprehensible and valid as for as "Construct" and "Content" of the study are concerned and they can be used for data collection by the researcher with fair amount of confidence.

Name: Dr.Quratul-ain-Hina
Designation: Assistant Professor,
Institute: National University of Modern Languages

Signature: _____
Date: 21-09-2017

# APPENDIX G

## Validity Certificate

### CERTIFICATE OF VALIDITY

**Comparative Study of Thinking Styles and Job Embeddedness of University Teachers**

By Shazia Qummer

**Ph.D. Scholar, Education, National University of Modern Languages, H-9 Islamabad**

This is to certify that the questionnaires adapted and modified by the researcher towards her thesis have been assessed by me and I found these designed questionnaires adequately to analyze thinking styles and level of job embeddedness of university teachers.

It is considered that the research instruments, developed for the research above titled are according to the objectives and hypotheses of the research. I hereby certify that the questionnaires related to the areas mentioned above are fully comprehensible and valid as for as "Construct" and "Content" of the study are concerned and they can be used for data collection by the researcher with fair amount of confidence.

Name: Dr. Wajeeha Shahid
Designation: Assistant Professor,
Manager of Quality Assurance (QA) NUML
Institute: National University of Modern Languages

Signature: _____
Date: 07-07-2017

# APPENDIX H

## Validity Certificate

### CERTIFICATE OF VALIDITY

**Comparative Study of Thinking Styles and Job Embeddedness of University Teachers**

By Shazia Qummer

**Ph.D. Scholar, Education, National University of Modern Languages, H-9 Islamabad**

This is to certify that the questionnaires adapted and modified by the researcher towards her thesis have been assessed by me and I found these designed questionnaires adequately to analyze thinking styles and level of job embeddedness of university teachers.

It is considered that the research instruments, developed for the research above titled are according to the objectives and hypotheses of the research. I hereby certify that the questionnaires related to the areas mentioned above are fully comprehensible and valid as for as "Construct" and "Content" of the study are concerned and they can be used for data collection by the researcher with fair amount of confidence.

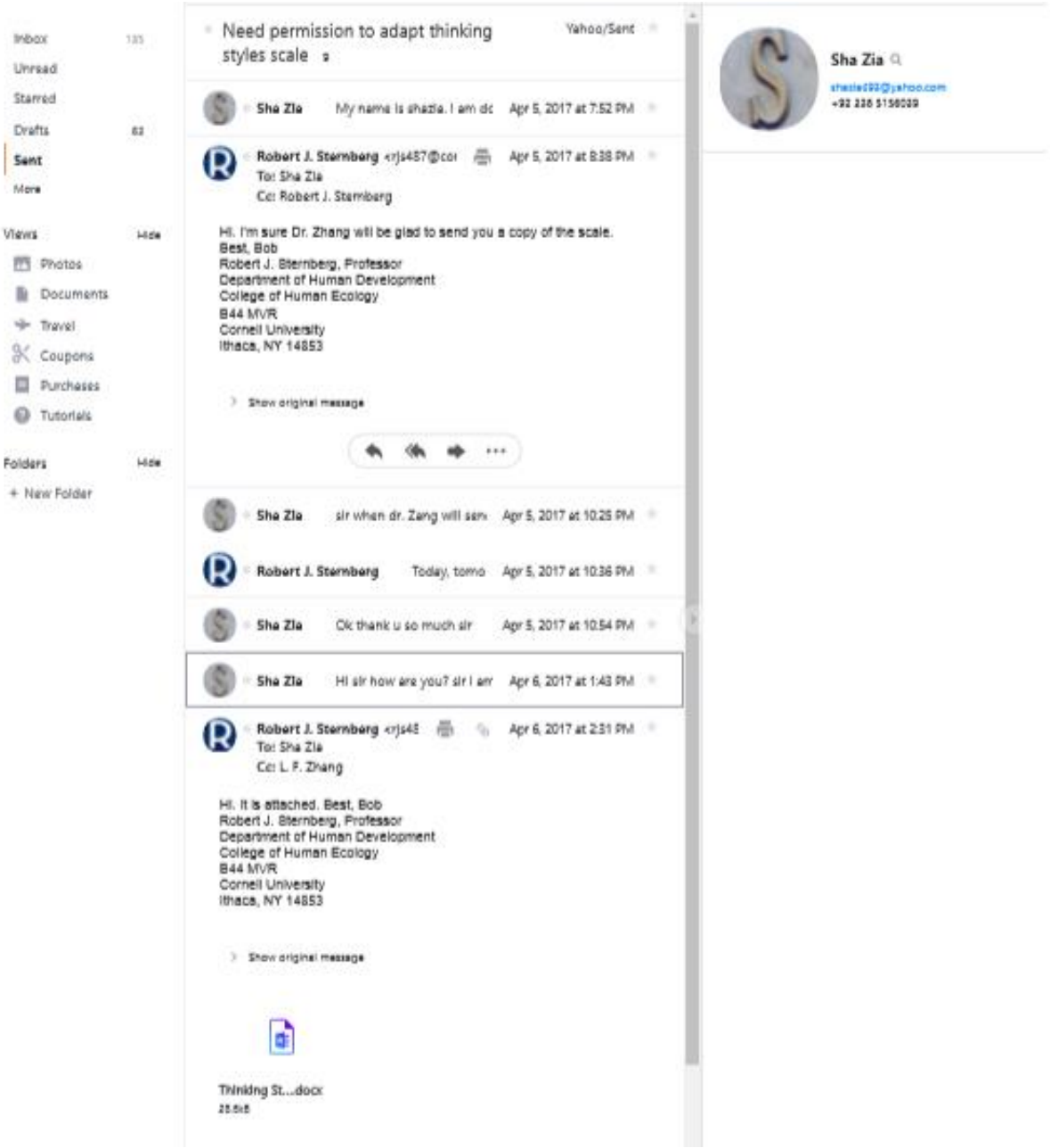
Name: Dr. Muhammad Idrees Malik
Designation: Assistant Professor,

Signature: _____

Date: 19-09-2017

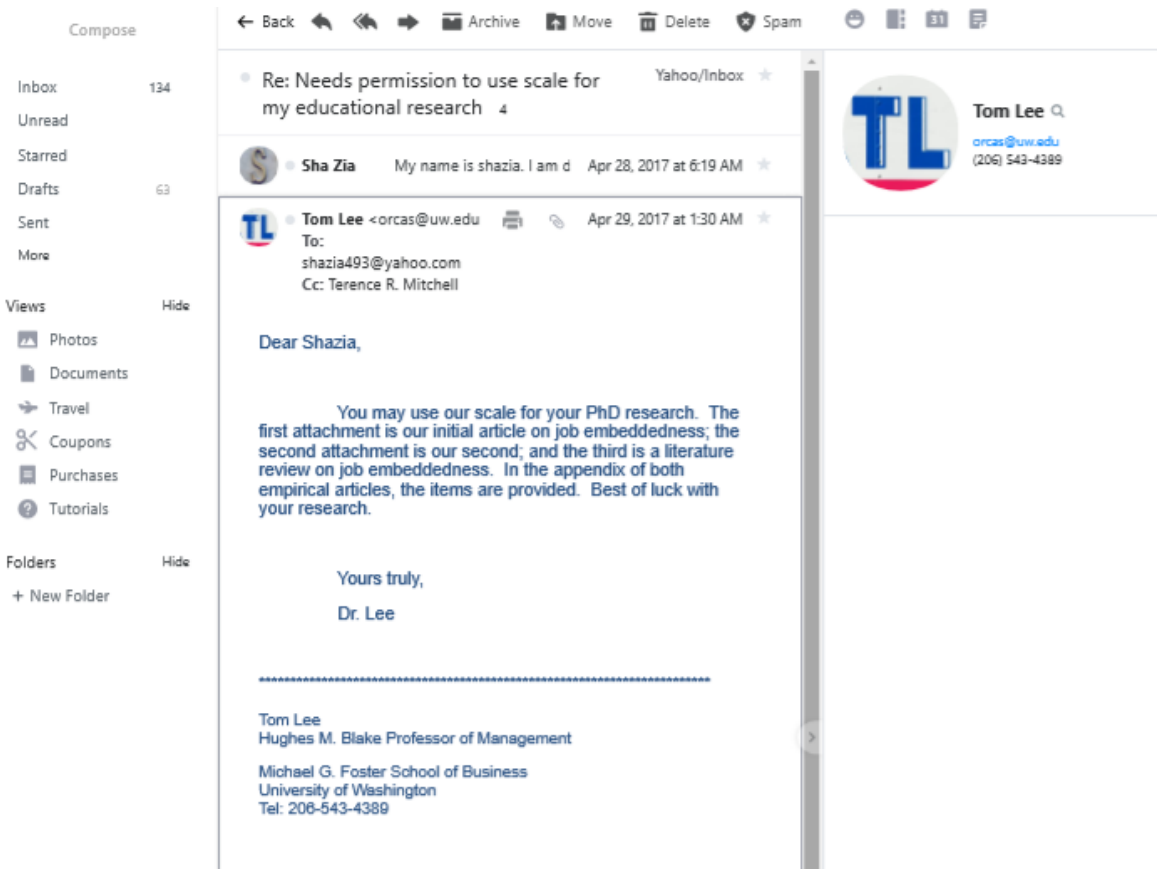
# APPENDIX I

## Tool Permission Letter (Thinking Styles)



**APPENDIX J**

# Tool Permission Letter (Job Embeddedness)



Compose

Inbox 134
Unread
Starred
Drafts 63
Sent
More

Views Hide
Photos
Documents
Travel
Coupons
Purchases
Tutorials

Folders Hide
+ New Folder

Back | Archive | Move | Delete | Spam

Re: Needs permission to use scale for my educational research 4 — Yahoo/Inbox

Sha Zia — My name is shazia. I am d — Apr 28, 2017 at 6:19 AM

Tom Lee <orcas@uw.edu — Apr 29, 2017 at 1:30 AM
To:
shazia493@yahoo.com
Cc: Terence R. Mitchell

Dear Shazia,

You may use our scale for your PhD research. The first attachment is our initial article on job embeddedness; the second attachment is our second; and the third is a literature review on job embeddedness. In the appendix of both empirical articles, the items are provided. Best of luck with your research.

Yours truly,

Dr. Lee

**********

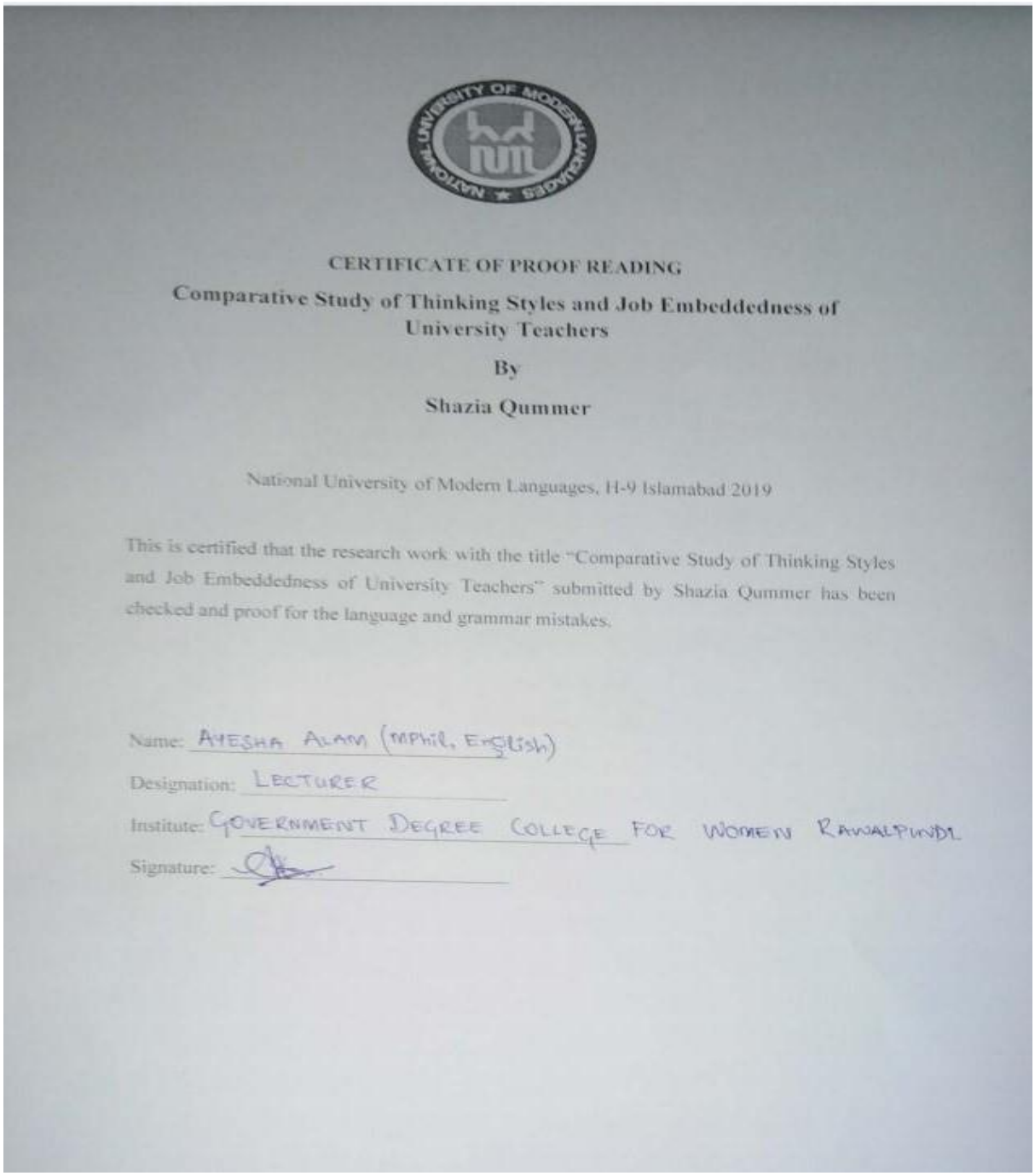
Tom Lee
Hughes M. Blake Professor of Management

Michael G. Foster School of Business
University of Washington
Tel: 206-543-4389

Tom Lee
orcas@uw.edu
(206) 543-4389

## APPENDIX K

## CERTIFICATE OF PROOF READING



CERTIFICATE OF PROOF READING

**Comparative Study of Thinking Styles and Job Embeddedness of University Teachers**

By

Shazia Qummer

National University of Modern Languages, H-9 Islamabad 2019

This is certified that the research work with the title "Comparative Study of Thinking Styles and Job Embeddedness of University Teachers" submitted by Shazia Qummer has been checked and proof for the language and grammar mistakes.

Name: AYESHA ALAM (MPhil, English)

Designation: LECTURER

Institute: GOVERNMENT DEGREE COLLEGE FOR WOMEN RAWALPINDI

Signature:

**APPENDIX L**

# Questionnaire (Thinking Styles)

# Thinking Styles Inventory—Revised II (TSI-R2)

***Sternberg, R. J., Wagner, R. K., & Zhang, L. F.***

***Tufts University, 2007***

## Demographic Section *For University Teachers*

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| University | 1. Public | | 2. Private | |
| Gender | 1. Male | | 2. Female | |
| Department | 1. Social Sciences<br>3. Computer Sciences | | 2. Management Sciences<br>4. Electrical Engineering | |
| Qualification | 1. M.A | 2. M.Phil. | 3. Ph.D. | 4. Any Other |
| Experience | 1-5 | 6-10 | 11-15 | Above 15 |

This questionnaire is about the different strategies and ways people use to solve problems, to carry out tasks or projects, and to make decisions.

Kindly read each statement carefully. There are five options in front of each statement: **Never true-1, occasionally true-2, Often true-3, usually true-4, Mostly true-5**. Please feel free and mark in any one of the blocks according to your own choice.

**Key to symbols used**: - **NT-** Never true**, OT-** occasionally true**, OFT-** Often true**, UT-** Usually true**, MT-** Mostly true.

There are, of course, no right or wrong answers. Please read each statement and circle the number on the scale next to the statement that best indicates how well the statement describes you.

**Dear Respondents:** Please proceed at your own pace, but do not spend too much time on any one statement.

## Legislative thinking style

| S.NO | Statements | NT | OT | OFT | UT | MT |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | I like to play with my ideas and see how far they go. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2. | I like problems where I can try my own way of solving them. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. | When working on a task, I like to start with my own ideas. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. | I like situations where I can use my own ideas and ways of doing things. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

## Executive thinking style

| S.NO | Statements | NT | OT | OFT | UT | MT |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 5. | I am careful to use the proper method to solve any problem. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. | I enjoy working on things that I can do by following directions. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. | I like projects that have a clear structure and a set plan and goal. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. | I like to follow definite rules or directions when solving a problem or doing a task. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

## Judicial thinking style

| S.NO | Statements | NT | OT | OFT | UT | MT |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 9. | I like to check and rate opposing points of view or conflicting ideas. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. | I like projects where I can study and rate different views or ideas. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. | I prefer tasks or problems where I can grade the designs or methods of others. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. | I enjoy work that involves analyzing, grading, or comparing things. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

## Global thinking style

| S.NO | Statements | NT | OT | OFT | UT | MT |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 13. | I care more about the general effect than about the details of a task I have to do. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. | I tend to emphasize the general aspect of issues or the overall effect of a project. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 15. | I like working on projects that deal with general issues and not with nitty-gritty details. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. | In talking or writing down ideas, I like to show the scope and context of my ideas, that is, the general picture. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

## Local thinking style

| S.NO | Statements | NT | OT | OFT | UT | MT |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 17. | In discussing or writing on a topic, I think that the details and facts are more important than the overall picture. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. | I prefer to work on projects that allow me to put in a lot of detailed facts. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. | I like problems where I need to pay attention to details. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. | I pay more attention to parts of a task than to its overall effect or significance. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

## Liberal thinking style

| S.NO | Statements | NT | OT | OFT | UT | MT |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 21. | When faced with a problem, I prefer to try new strategies or methods to solve it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. | I like to do things in new ways not used by others in the past. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23. | I like to change routines in order to improve the way tasks are done. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24. | I like to take old problems and find new methods to solve them. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

## Conservative thinking style

| S.NO | Statements | NT | OT | OFT | UT | MT |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 25. | When I'm in charge of something, I like to follow methods and ideas used in the past. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26. | I like situations where I can follow a set routine. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 27. | I like tasks and problems that have fixed rules to follow in order to complete them. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 28. | When faced with a problem, I like to solve it in a traditional way. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

## Hierarchical thinking style

| S.NO | Statements | NT | OT | OFT | UT | MT |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 29. | When working on a task, I can see how the parts relate to the overall goal of the task. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 30. | In dealing with difficulties, I have a good sense of how important each of them is and in what order to tackle them. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 31. | When there are many things to do, I have a clear sense of the order in which to do them. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 32. | When starting something, I like to make a list of things to do and to order the things by importance. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

## Monarchic thinking style

| S.NO | Statements | NT | OT | OFT | UT | MT |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 33. | I tend to give full attention to one thing at a time. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 34. | If there are several important things to do, I focus on the one most important to me and disregard the rest. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 35. | I like to concentrate on one task at a time. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 36. | I have to finish one project before starting another one. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

## Oligarchic thinking style

| S.NO | Statements | NT | OT | OFT | UT | MT |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 37. | I prefer to work on a project or task that is acceptable to and approved by my peers. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 38. | When there are several important things to do, I do those most important to me and to my colleagues. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 39. | When there are several important things to do, I pick the ones most important to my friends and colleagues. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 40. | When I start a task or project, I focus on the parts most relevant to my peer group. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

## Anarchic thinking style

| S.NO | Statements | NT | OT | OFT | UT | MT |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 41. | When working on a project, I tend to do all sorts of tasks regardless of their degree of relevance to the project undertaken. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 42. | I tend to tackle several problems at the same time because they are often equally urgent. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 43. | I tend to give equal attention to all of the tasks I am involved in. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 44. | I find that when I am engaged in one problem, another comes along that is just as important. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

## Internal thinking style

| S.NO | Statements | NT | OT | OFT | UT | MT |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 45. | When trying to make a decision, I rely on my own judgment of the situation. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 46. | I like to work alone on a task or a problem. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 47. | I like projects that I can complete independently. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 48. | I prefer situations where I can carry out my own ideas, without relying on others. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

## External thinking style

| S.NO | Statements | NT | OT | OFT | UT | MT |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 49. | In a discussion or report, I like to combine my own ideas with those of others. | | | | | |
| 50. | I like to participate in activities where I can interact with others as a part of a team. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 51. | When working on a project, I like to share ideas and get input from other people. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 52. | I like situations where I interact with others and everyone works together. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

**APPENDIX M**

# Questionnaire (Job Embeddedness)

## MEASUREMENT SCALE ITEMS

**(Job Embeddedness Scale (Mitchell Lee, et al., 2006)**

## Demographic Section

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| University | 3. Public | | 4. Private | |
| Gender | 3. Male | | 4. Female | |
| Department | 2. Social Sciences<br>3. Computer Sciences | | 2. Management Sciences<br>4. Electrical Engineering | |
| Qualification | 1. M.A | 2. M.Phil. | 3. Ph.D. | 4. Any Other |
| Experience | 1-5 | 6-10 | 11-15 | Above 15 |

**Instructions:** kindly read each statement carefully. There are five options in front of each statement: **Never true-1, occasionally true-2, Often true-3, usually true-4, Mostly true-5**. Please feel free and mark in any one of the blocks according to your own choice.

**Key to symbols used**: - **NT-** Never true**, OT-** occasionally true**, OFT-** Often true**, UT-** Usually true**, MT-** Mostly true.

## Fit-Organization

| S.NO | Statements | NT | OT | OFT | UT | MT |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | My job utilizes my skills and talents well. | | | | | |
| 2 | I feel like I am a good match for this organization. | | | | | |
| 3 | . If I stay with this organization, I will be able to achieve most of my goals. | | | | | |

## Fit-Community

| S.NO | Statements | NT | OT | OFT | UT | MT |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 4 | I really love the place where I live. | | | | | |
| 5 | This community is a good match for me. | | | | | |
| 6 | The area where I live offers the leisure activities that I like (sports, outdoors, cultural, arts). | | | | | |

## Links-Community

| S.NO | Statements | NT | OT | OFT | UT | MT |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 7 | Family makes the individual more embedded in the community. | | | | | |
| 8 | I consider community links are social ties only with those who live in same geographical region. | | | | | |
| 9 | I own the home where I live. | | | | | |

## Links-Organization

| S.NO | Statements | NT | OT | OFT | UT | MT |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 10 | I regularly interact with my coworkers. | | | | | |
| 11 | My coworker are highly dependent on me. | | | | | |
| 12 | I like team work. | | | | | |

## Sacrifice-Organization

| S.NO | Statements | NT | OT | OFT | UT | MT |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 13 | I have a lot of freedom on this job to decide how to pursue my goals. | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 14 | I would sacrifice a lot if I left this job. | | | | | |
| 15 | I believe the prospects for continuing employment with this organization are excellent. | | | | | |

## Sacrifice-Community

| S.NO | Statements | NT | OT | OFT | UT | MT |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 16 | Leaving this community would be very hard. | | | | | |
| 17 | If I were to leave the community, I would miss my non-work friends. | | | | | |
| 18 | If I were to leave the community, I would miss my neighborhood. | | | | | |