

PUSH AND PULL FACTORS IN RELATION
TO EMPLOYEE JOB SATISFACTION
AND TURNOVER INTENTION: A STUDY OF LECTURERS
IN THE BUSINESS FACULTY OF MALAYSIAN PRIVATE
UNIVERSITIES

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By

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ABSTRACT

The globalization of the higher education sector has resulted in the rise in the number of private universities in Malaysia; however, the number of lecturers reported by MOHE in private universities has shown a decrease from 32,992 in 2010 to 31,112 by 2016 (MOHE, 2016). As it is the aim of the country to be an international hub for higher education, it has become important for MOHE and the university management to reduce turnover of lecturers especially in private universities. The review of literature has highlighted that within HEIs in Malaysia, there is still lack of consensus on the factors that may affect a lecturer's job satisfaction and turnover intention. Nevertheless, literature has revealed that these factors can be classified to push and pull factors and these push and pull factors may affect lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention. Internal pull factors such as intrinsic motivational factors, internal push factors such as role stress factors and external factors which are attraction factors outside the university may have a significant effect on lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention. This research aims to study the impact of six internal pull factors—achievement, recognition, responsibility, the work itself, opportunity for advancement and opportunity for growth; three internal push factors--role overload, role ambiguity, role conflict--and four external pull factors--job opportunity, compensation, working location, and university image--on lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention. This study also examines the relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention as well as the moderating effect of age and gender on the relationship between lecturers' job

satisfaction and turnover intention. Data were obtained from 401 Faculty of Business lecturers from Malaysian private universities via self-administered questionnaires and were analysed using structural equation modelling. This study revealed that internal factors--the work itself, opportunities for advancement, role ambiguity and role overload--have significant relationships with job satisfaction. The findings have also revealed that internal factors--opportunities for advancement, responsibility, role conflict--have significant relationships with turnover intention however only one external pull factor-working location had a significant relationship with turnover intention. Lastly, the study has also produced a significant negative relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction has on turnover intention. The findings of the study has contributed and added value to the current knowledge and understanding of the organisational factors, job related factors and external enviornmental factors that can affect lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention. The study has examined both internal and external factors and has produced a comprehensive job satisfaction and turnover intention model with a different perspective. Although the results of this study have revealed that internal factor have a much stronger effect on lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention as compared to external factors, nevertheless, the study has revealed that working location has emerged as an external factor that has a significant effect on lecturers' turnover intention. It is with hope that the results of this study will aid policy makers, MOHE, university management and researchers on the implementation and enforcement of policies and practices that

can be implemented to improve lecturers' job satisfaction and reduce turnover intention in private universities.

Keywords: Internal Pull Factors, Internal Push Factors, External Pull Factors, Job Satisfaction, Turnover Intention

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APPROVAL SHEET

This thesis entitled “**PUSH AND PULL FACTORS IN RELATION TO EMPLOYEE JOB SATISFACTION AND TURNOVER INTENTION: A STUDY OF LECTURERS IN THE BUSINESS FACULTY OF MALAYSIAN PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES**” was prepared by SUDHASHINI A/P SENGGARAVELLU and submitted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy in Organizational Behaviour at Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman.

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SUBMISSION OF THESIS

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DECLARATION

I **SUDHASHINI A/P SENGGARAVELLU** hereby declare that the dissertation/thesis is based on my original work except for quotations and citations which have been duly acknowledged. I also declare that it has not been previously or concurrently submitted for any other degree at UTAR or other institutions.

SUDHASHINI A/P SENGGARAVELLU

DATE: _____

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AACSB	Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business
AeU	Asia e University
APU	Asia Pacific University of Technology & Innovation
AIU	Al-Bukhary International University
AMIST	Asian Institute of Medicine, Science and Technology
AMOS	Analysis of Moment Structures
AMU	Asia Metropolitan University
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
BMW	Bavarian Motor Works
CFA	Confirmatory factor analysis
CFI	Comparative fit index
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
GOF	Goodness-of-Fit
HEIs	Higher Education Institutions
IBM	International Business Machines
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IMU	International Medical University
IUKL	Infrastructure University Kuala Lumpur
IUMW	International University of Malaya-Wales
KLEC	Kuala Lumpur Education City
KPI	Key Performance Indicators
LAN	Lembaga Akreditasi Negara

LUCT	Limkokwing University of Creative Technology
MAPCU	Malaysian Association of Private Colleges and Universities
MCA	Malaysian Chinese Association
MEF	Malaysian Employees Federation
MFU	Mayfield University
MIU	Manipal International University
ML	Maximum Likelihood
MMU	Multimedia University
MOE	Ministry of Education
MOHE	Ministry of Higher Education
MQA	Malaysian Qualification Agency
MQF	Malaysian Qualification Framework
MRT	Mass Rapid Transit
MSU	Management and Science University
MSV	Maximum Shared Squared Variance
MUST	Malaysia University of Science & Technology
MYRA	Malaysian Research Assessment
MSC	Multimedia Super Corridor
NCCCS	North Carolina Community College System
NHEAP	National Higher Education Action Plan
NHESP	National Higher Education Strategic Plan
NUMM	Newcastle University Medicine Malaysia

NRS	New Remuneration Scheme
ODL	Open and Distance Learning
OECD	Organisation for Economic co-operation and development
OUM	Open University of Malaysia
PAF	Principal axis factor
PCA	Principal component analysis
PHEIs	Public Higher Education Institutions
PPPs	Purchasing Power Parities
PrHEIs	Private Higher Education Institutions
PHEIA	Private Higher Education Institutions Act
PU	Perdana University
QIUP	Quest International University Perak
RMSEA	Root-mean Square-error of approximation
RUI	Raffles University Iskandar Malaysia
SIP	Social Information Processing
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SETARA	Sistem Penarafan Institution Pengajian Tinggi Malaysia / Rating System for Malaysian Higher Education Institutions
SD	Standard Deviation
SYUC	Sunway University
UIAM	Universiti Islam Antarabangsa Malaysia
UiTM	Universiti teknologi MARA
UIM	Universiti Islam Malaysia

UK	United Kingdom
UKM	Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia
UM	University of Malaya
UNESCO	The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UniKL	University of Kuala Lumpur
UNITEN	Universiti Tenaga Malaysian
UNIRAZAK	Universiti Tun Abdul Razak
UNMC	University of Nottingham Malaysia Campus
UniMy	University Malaysia of Computer Science & Engineering
UNISEL	University of Selangor
UPM	Universiti Putra Malaysia
USA	United States of America
USMC	University of Southampton Malaysia Campus
USM	Universiti Sains Malaysia
UTAR	Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman
UTM	Universiti Teknologi Malaysia
UTP	Universiti Teknologi Petronas
WHO	World Health Organisation
WOU	Universiti Terbuka Wawasan

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.0. Introduction

Employees' turnover is a much studied phenomenon and a well-recognized issue encountered by organisations around the world (Ali Shah, Fakhr, Ahmad, & Zaman, 2010). This is because the turnover of skilled employees will disrupt an organisation's productivity. Organisations will have to incur cost with regards to recruiting, selection, hiring and re-skilling employees plus the hidden costs linked with the interruption of team-based assignments and the inability to finish assigned jobs on time. Within the higher education sector, lecturers' turnover is also a critical issue being discussed, not only because of the cost that has to be incurred in replacing lecturers, but lecturers' knowledge and competence in both teaching and research is a key asset to the success of a university. Hence, losing these skilled employees would affect the quality of education delivered by the university. Reducing lecturers' turnover is thus important as lecturers are the operational core of universities and their performance will determine the quality of education delivered to the students and thereby to the nation (Capellaras, 2005).

The education industry plays an important role in creating and fostering a knowledge based and innovation based economy in preparing the country and its people for the future to come (Bajunid & Wong, 2016). In fact, according to former United Nations Secretary General, Annan (1997, para. 19) “Knowledge is power, information is liberating, education is the premises of progress in every society and every family”. Having said this, the education industry is dependent on academics as they play an imperative role in disseminating education, moulding the future generation with the right set of skills towards fostering individual success and assisting in the country’s economic growth.

In Malaysia, the higher education industry is expanding rapidly as the Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE) plans to globalise the higher education of Malaysia for the purpose of developing human capital who are knowledgeable, competent, innovative and of virtuous character; transforming Malaysia into a high income nation by 2020 (Bajunid & Wong, 2016; MOHE, 2015). The globalisation of the Malaysian higher education sector led to a rise in the number of universities in Malaysia primarily, Private Higher Education Institutions (PrHEIs). However, contrary to this, the reported number of lecturers in PrHEIs by MOHE shows a decrease in the number of lecturers. In the year 2010, the reported number of PrHEIs lecturers by MOHE (2011) amounted to 32,992. However MOHE (2014) reported a total number of 24,476 PrHEIs lecturers for the year 2013. As of 2016, the total number of lecturers at PrHEIs is only 31,112, which is still below the reported number back in 2010 (MOHE, 2017). This reduction in lecturers as seen

in the reported total number of lecturers by MOHE could have been caused by numerous factors; one of which is the high turnover of lecturers.

Evidently, various authors have reported on the high turnover rate of lecturers in PrHEIs. According to Munipan (2007), a common problem faced in Malaysian PrHEIs is the high rate of lecturer turnover. In fact Morris, Yaacob, and Wood (2004) and Siron (2005) have stated that there were concerns conveyed by the government of Malaysia on the high lecturer turnover rates in PrHEIs. In the 1990s, high turnover rates were recorded at a private university in Kuala Lumpur Malaysia for a consecutive three year period. The turnover rate at this private university in Kuala Lumpur Malaysia was at 14 % for the year 1997. The turnover rate rose to 29 % in the year 1998 and finally increased to 37 % by the year 1999 (Amin, 2002; Arokiasamy, Ismail, Ahamad, & Othman, 2009). Moreover, The National Higher Education Statistics (2004) reported that the turnover rate of lecturers in public universities was at 18.18% while for private universities it was at 45.45% in 2004 (MOHE, 2015).

According to Choong, Keh, Tan, and Tan (2013), from July 2010 to July 2011, the Malaysian education sector's turnover rate was at 29.28%. The education sector had one of the highest turnover and was ranked third place; the first and second place belong to the hospitality and information technology sectors (Choong et al., 2013). In this new millennium, Abdullah Hashim and Mahmood (2011) found that lecturers' turnover rate in private universities among doctorate

holders was at 12%, while recent statistics on lecturer turnover as reported by Ramasamy and Abdullah (2017) revealed that turnover rate of faculties at private universities was around 18 % as quoted by the human resource personnel of some private universities in in Malaysia.

Lee (2004) reported a shortage of lecturers in Malaysian PrHEIs for degree programmes such as information technology, engineering, medicine and business management. However, according to Abdullah Hashim and Mahmood (2011), not only was there a shortage of qualified academics but lecturer turnover was at an alarming rate at PrHEIs. No doubt that turnover can remove unproductive employees and increase the sharing of knowledge among universities; nevertheless universities are very much dependent on lecturers' intellectual and creative abilities as they will fulfill the goals of the MOHE, the university and the various stakeholders.

The high turnover of lecturers experienced by Malaysian private universities indicated that the PrHEIs are encountering a shortfall of talent that is necessary in generating quality graduates, producing quality research of world class standard and in creating a knowledge and innovative based economy as per the objectives set by MOHE (MOHE, 2016). The loss of talent means that PrHEIs may undergo (1) a rise in expenditure in hiring and replacing lecturers that have resigned, (2) organisations must spend more time now on hiring new employees, (3) there may also be interruption in class lectures, (4) turnover may also affect the research and

development output of a university, (5) disruption in the mentoring of students' final year project supervision, and (6) reduced working spirit among those who choose to remain in their current university (Rathakrishnan, Ng & Tee, 2016; Xu, 2008). Hence it is clear that lecturers serve as the backbone of a university's success (Choong et al., 2013; Rathakrishnan et al., 2016).

The next section of this study will discuss the history and expansion of the Malaysian Higher Education industry, the role of lecturers and challenges faced by lecturers that may have led to the high turnover.

1.1. Background of the Study

1.1.1 Malaysian Institutions of Higher Education

The globalisation of higher education has provided an opportunity for Malaysia to be one of the many countries in Asia that has set out to identify itself as a centre for education excellence in the region. Higher education is defined as an education system that incorporates post-secondary education attainable from colleges and universities (Arokiasamy & Nagappan, 2012). In Malaysia, the higher education sector consists of both public and private institutions. These institutions offer various professional, certificate, diploma, undergraduate and postgraduate programmes. The emergence of Malaysia as a hub for higher education can be traced back to 1957. Upon gaining independence from British

colonial rule, The Education Act of 1961 was established with the purpose of supplying a skilled workforce as the country moved away from a predominantly agricultural economy to an industrialised economy.

University of Malaya (UM) was established on 8th October 1949 in Singapore after the merger between King Edward VII College of Medicine and Raffles College Singapore. As the student number increased and more programmes were offered at the university, two autonomous divisions' were set up, one in Singapore and another was set up in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. Thereafter, UM in Kuala Lumpur was established after changes were made to the status of the divisions.

UM was officially established on 16 June 1962 and is Malaysia's first public university five years after Malaysia achieved its independence. Hence, it was the beginning of Malaysia's expansion of the higher education sector which fostered the country's economic growth. This was then followed by the establishment of Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM) in 1969, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM) in 1970, Universiti Putra Malaysia (formerly known as Universiti Pertanian Malaysia) (UPM) in 1971; and Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM) in 1972.

By the end of 2016, the total number of Public Higher Education Institutions (PHEIs) in Malaysia amounted to 20 public universities, 34 polytechnics and 86 community colleges which are funded by the federal government and indirectly

by the public sector (MOHE, 2016). The number of PHEIs in Malaysia unfortunately was not enough to cater to the growing demand for higher education in Malaysia; as such PrHEIs took up the vital role of catering to the demand for higher education and subsequently aided in the expansion of the higher education sector in Malaysia (Arokiasamy et al., 2009).

1.1.2 Private Institutions of Higher Education

During the Sixth Malaysia Plan (1991-1995), the Malaysian government adopted a policy of expanding the higher education sector by allowing the private sector to also be providers of higher education. This was important due to the demand for a highly knowledgeable and skilled workforce in Malaysia as a result of the shift in the country's economy from an agricultural economy (1960 to 1980) to an industrial economy (1980 to 2000) and finally to a knowledge based economy (2000 onwards) (Arokiasamy & Nagappan, 2012; Marimuthu, 2008; Sadiq Sohail, Jegatheesan, & Abdul Rahman, 2003; Singh, Schapper, & Mayson, 2010). Please refer to Appendix B for the framework on the Malaysian economy.

By the end of 2016 there were a total of 47 private universities, 30 university colleges and more than 500 colleges and institutions (MOHE, 2015). The surge in the number of PrHEIs begun with the privatisation of private higher education and the corporatisation of public universities which led to a series of legislation

developed between 1995 and 1997 to oversee the education sector as seen in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1: The Legislations Governing the Malaysian Education Sector

Legislation	Purpose
Malaysian Qualification Act 2007 replacing Lembaga Akreditasi Negara (LAN) National Accreditation Board 1996	“The quality assurance and accreditation for private education”.
National Council on Higher Education Act, 1996	“The formulation of policies for both public and private education”.
Private Higher Education Institutions Act 1996 (PHEIA) (amended 2009)	“This act permits the establishment of degree granting private universities and the establishment of branch campuses by foreign universities. It also permits private colleges to conduct their courses in English with the approval of the Ministry of Education”.
University and University Colleges Act 1971 (Amended 1996 and 2009)	“Amendment to the Act enabling universities to be corporatised and to modernise the management of the universities to meet the needs of the society and the industry”.
National Higher Education Funding Board Act, 1997 (Amended 2000).	“This act established the higher education funding board to provide loans for both public and private students in tertiary institutions”.
The Education Act 1961 (Amended in 1995)	“Amendment to the Act to reinforce the position of Malay as the national language and extend the use of Malay as the medium of instruction to the private sector”.

(Marimuthu, 2008; MOHE, 2015)

The rapid growth in the number of universities from 16 private universities in 2002 to 47 private universities by the end of 2016 was spurred by the establishment of new universities, the setting up of foreign branch campuses and the upgrading of university colleges to university status. According to Ayob & Yaakub (1999) PrHEIs in Malaysia are categorised as “(1) large companies or organisations that are closely related to the Malaysian government, (2) founded by public listed companies, (3) founded by political parties, (4) independent

private colleges or (5) local branches of foreign universities” (Ayob & Yaakub, 1999).

The establishment of the Private Higher Education Institutions Act (PHEIA) in 1996 came at the right time, as in July 1997 the Malaysian Ringgit weakened from RM2.5 to RM4.2 to the U.S. dollar (Ayob & Yaakub, 1999). The downturn in the Malaysian economy nevertheless provided an opportunity to Malaysian students to obtain their higher education locally rather than overseas. The Malaysian government was able to lessen the outflow of the Malaysian currency as it cost Malaysia approximately USD 800 million in currency outflow in 1995 (Arokiasamy & Nagappan, 2012). Also, the establishment of PrHEIs was important in enrolling students who were unable to secure a place at public universities. Hence, there was an increase in local demand for the Malaysian private higher education.

In 2010, MOHE reported that there were 80,919 foreign students from 20 countries studying in Malaysian PrHEIs (MOHE, 2011). Furthermore, Malaysia is a well known destination for international students as it was ranked 11th worldwide (MOHE, 2011). As of 2016 however, The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) has ranked Malaysia as one of the top 10 preferred international education hubs (“UNESCO recognizes Malaysia”, 2016).

According to MOHE, International students brought in approximately RM4 billion per year to the education sector and contributed RM50 million in direct earnings to Malaysia annually from the year 1997 to the year 2007 (Uda Nagu, 2007). The education sector contributed approximately RM27 billion which is four per cent of Malaysia's gross national income (MOHE, 2015). As Arokiasamy et al. (2009) mentioned, the rapid expansion of PrHEIs provided an impetus for Malaysia to become a high-income nation by 2020 with a target of 200,000 international students ("Malaysia has one of the highest", 2015). In 2010 the total number of international students studying in PrHEIs amounted to 80,919 students. However, as of December 2016, the total number of international students amounted to 172,886 from more than 160 countries with 102,112 out of these international students were studying in Malaysian PrHEIs (MOHE, 2017).

In terms of characteristics, PrHEIs are characterised by the student diversity ranging from--personality, cultural background, race and religion--, contemporary teaching technologies, the change in the public's expectation shifting towards the learner and an increase in faculty workloads which has transformed PrHEIs in Malaysia (Austin, 2002). In terms of the management of PrHEIs, they are managed differently as compared to public universities as they operate in a very competitive environment with aggressive promotional strategies to maximise student output and income generation as the number of age cohort eligible for university education increases (Arokiasamy et al., 2009). In Malaysia, PrHEIs receive no funding from the government hence they are market and profit oriented

where fees are charged for cost recovery (Arokiasamy & Nagappan, 2012; Sivalingam, 2006).

Although greater autonomy is given to PrHEIs to regulate themselves, nevertheless, PrHEIs are subjected to extensive regulations of accreditation and quality assurance from external bodies like the Malaysian Qualifications Agency (MQA) and professional bodies. Furthermore, PrHEIs in Malaysia are aggressively contributing towards research and development as achieved by public universities in Malaysia. Research and publication is an indicator of research productivity and is used to rank faculties and universities; in fact the percentage of journal article publications by public universities was 70.21% while private universities was at 55.24% as of 2010 (Bajunid & Wong, 2016; MOHE, 2015). The number of journal publications by private universities will continue to increase as the number of private universities expand and as more research collaboration takes place between universities to improve the research quality and publication produced in Malaysia (Suryani, Yaacob, Hashima, Rashid & Desa, 2013).

It is important to highlight the fact that PrHEIs are given the important task of nurturing and imparting knowledge to young minds subsequently creating a workforce that is intelligent, skilful and highly resourceful. The quality of education provided by PrHEIs have allowed graduates to obtain better job opportunities both locally and internationally. The number of employed graduates

in fact has increased from 228,100 in 1982 to 12,030,600 in 2010 (MOHE, 2011). Furthermore, in the Eleventh Malaysia Plan (2016-2020) it was reported that 73.2% of private university graduates secured employment. The rate was very close to public universities whereby 75.5% of graduates secured employment (Government of Malaysia, 2015).

In the end, the globalisation of the Malaysian higher education sector benefited Malaysia tremendously as there was a surge in the number of local students and foreign students, allowing the education sector to become a profitable sector; PrHEIs generated more graduates not only producing an educated and knowledgeable Malaysian society but also enabled the various public and private sectors to employ skilled and resourceful employees (Sivalingam, 2006).

The rapid expansion of the Malaysian population, the rise in the aspiration of the citizens of Malaysia and the increasing demand for a skilled work force recognised the viability of the PrHEIs as the backbone for country's national expansion and the advancement of the people of Malaysian (Morris et al., 2004). Lastly it is crucial to note that Malaysia aims to be the sixth largest education exporter by leaning on the private sector to deliver industry relevant education. MOHE will also be investing in Islamic finance, banking and executive education programmes, as well as inviting foreign universities to set up branch campuses in Malaysia. ("Malaysia aims to be the sixth-largest education exporter by 2020", 2012). Having said this, the number of private universities in Malaysia has

burgeoned concentrating particularly within the Klang Valley. The next section will explain why this is so.

1.1.3 Private Universities in Klang Valley Malaysia

The Klang Valley in Malaysia, is also known as greater Kuala Lumpur, and it comprises of the Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur, the Selangor district of Petaling which comprises of Shah Alam, Petaling Jaya and Subang Jaya, the Selangor district of Klang which comprises of Klang, the Selangor district of Gombak which comprises of Selayang and the Selangor district of Hulu Langat which comprises of Ampang Jaya and Kajang. Please refer to Appendix C for the map of Klang Valley Malaysia.

The urbanisation of Klang Valley began with the development of Kuala Lumpur in the mid-19th century. The shift in the economy of Klang Valley from mining, rubber plantation and oil palm plantation to information technology, exporting, investment in electronics, investment in industrial projects involving trans-national corporations and the setting of regional operations and services in Kuala Lumpur allowed Kuala Lumpur to be the epicentre of the country's financial activity (“The Klang Valley has finally arrived to be in a top spot in world business”, 2013).

Klang Valley is a fast growing metropolitan city and has a population of more than 7.2 million people. This is about a fifth of the Malaysian population which amounts to more than 32 million people. There is heavy internal migration to the Klang Valley because it is the epicentre of the country's national administration, commercial businesses and educational institutions. According to Tey (2012) the increase in the population of Klang Valley was also induced by the opportunities of higher learning and employment.

Mok (2011) stated that there are many types of transnational higher education that have been developed in Malaysia primarily in the Klang Valley with the development of international branch campuses like Monash University in Petaling Jaya, Selangor in the year 1998, University of Nottingham in Semenyih, Selangor in the year 2000 and Herriot-Watt University in Putrajaya in the year 2014. Furthermore more international universities have opened branch campuses in Putrajaya, Malaysia such as; Egypt's Al-Azhar University and China's Xiamen University which is reported to have a capacity for 10,000 students (Clark, 2015).

The inception of Cyberjaya in the Klang Valley as a Multimedia Super Corridor (MSC) was also the right location for universities such as Limkokwing University of Creative Technology (LUCT) and Multimedia University (MMU). According to Peresamy, Suryana, and Govindan (2009) Klang Valley is one of the most prominent hubs for education in Malaysia as 34 out of the 47 private universities

are located in there. This means that more than 70% of Malaysian private universities are concentrated in the Klang Valley.

Knight (2011) mentioned that several new initiatives by the Malaysian government point towards the seriousness of Malaysia in transforming itself to an education hub. Besides the development of Educity Iskandar in Johor, the development of Kuala Lumpur Education City (KLEC) is going to further expand the development of PrHEIs in the Klang Valley. The expansion of KLEC as an international educational hub is in accordance with the Malaysian government's policy to make Malaysia the regional centre of education excellence (MOHE, 2015). KLEC is expected to have a student population of nearly 30,000 and one of the many schools that will be offering higher education is the Cambridge Business School ("Malaysia aims to be the sixth-largest education exporter by 2020", 2012).

According to Knight (2011), economic and social motives drive this education hub as there is a need to develop human capital necessary for creating a knowledge and innovation based economy, to showcase Malaysia as a network based regional centre with greater access to the regional education market such as, Russia, India and its subcontinent, the Middle East, China and Central Asia. Furthermore, the Malaysian government is also investing and developing the research infrastructure to place Malaysia as an epicentre of education excellence and as an international network for academic institutions. As of 2014, the Klang

Valley has recorded the highest gross output from education services which amounts to RM6.6.billion (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2015).

In the pursuit of education excellence with the aim of the nation in creating, sustaining and fostering higher education, lecturers are under high expectations and pressure to perform their roles. As such, it is important to understand the roles and responsibilities of a lecturer in meeting the demands of the nation in the quest of expanding and globalising the higher education industry.

1.1.4 Roles of Lecturers/Academic Staff in the Private Higher Education Institutions

Lecturers in this study refers to academics ranking from lecturer to professor. In Malaysia, MOHE adopted the British education system that categorises the role of a lecturer into teaching, research and administration (Arokiasamy et al., 2009). According to Yunus and Pang (2015), lecturers in Malaysia are defined as academics who work in higher education that are hired to teach and are involved in academic administration, student supervision, contribute to research, innovation and development as well as community service. The role of a lecturer according to Judhi and Hamid (2009) consist of four major areas which are pedagogical, managerial, technical and subject designing. Bowen and Shuster (1986), on the other hand, stated that the roles of a lecturer involve (1) instruction, that is the direct teaching of students, (2) research, which are the discoveries of

new knowledge and the creation of original art, (3) public service activities; that are by-products of instructions and research expressed for the benefit of the general public and, (4) institutional governance and operation usually, the role in the policies, decisions and on-going activities falling within the wide-ranging realm of institutional governance.

In Malaysia, a lecturer's role is not only to teach but they are also mentors to their students, they provide academic consultation, they are involved in supervision for class assignments, dissertation and thesis. Lecturers are also involved in academic administration matters and they contribute to the curriculum development of their specialised subject. Lecturers also have to constantly keep up with new knowledge and technologies, they are involved in research and development, and are to publish their findings for the benefit of the community (Awang et al., 2010; Mohd Noor, 2011).

The involvement of lecturers in research activities and publications is in concordance with the objective of MOHE which is driven towards building a knowledge and innovation based economy that is of world class quality research of world class standard (MOHE, 2015). As MOHE globalises the Malaysian Higher education, lecturers may face challenges in the expectations set by universities which are; to be productive in research, to acquire more research grants in improving research quality and in enhancing the university's image, to be accountable for students' learning and development, to participate in university

governance and to also be involved in academic administration (Daly & Dee, 2006; Zhou & Volkwein, 2004). In fact, Albatch and Lewis (1996) stated that the working environment in universities has changed severely in terms of the increased resource allocation and the emphasis on lecturers' productivity and performance.

In relation to this, it comes as no surprise that the role of a lecturer can be broad and challenging as they shoulder heavy responsibilities. Lecturers' role in a university has changed as lecturers are increasingly pressured to be productive while at the same time maintaining the university's and the country's quality standards and this has unfortunately created a challenging working environment for lecturers which causes stress among lecturers. Johnson et al. (2005) comparative study on occupational stress covering 26 occupations, found that the teaching profession was concluded as the most stressful occupation. Furthermore, Gillespie, Walsh, Winefields, Dua, and Stough (2001) and Rajarajeswari (2010) discovered that globally there is an alarming increase in stress among lecturers in universities.

Kavitha (2012) and Rajarajeswari (2010) mentioned that the entry of private universities and foreign universities, have loaded faculty with more work hence, lecturers are expected to play many more roles than just teach. On top of that, the Faculty of Business has experienced extensive stress due to the rise in faculty workload which resulted from the changing nature and work environment in the

higher education sector (Adrian, Cox, Phelps, Schuldt, & Totten, 2014). The changing nature of a lecturers' job and work environment and the increase in student numbers has resulted in lecturers in private universities in the Klang Valley Malaysia to experience large group teaching while at the same time using conventional instructor-student approach (Thomas, Subramaniam, Abraham, Too, & Beh, 2011). Furthermore, the classroom teaching and teaching in large groups comes with many role demands and increased workload as well (Conley & Woosley, 2000). Lecturers in Malaysian universities also experienced conflict in work deadlines and are not clear on how to manage their role as a teacher, academic administrator and researcher which are important in fulfilling a lecturer's Key Performance Indicators (KPI) set by the university (Idris, 2011). Lecturers' stress can lead to many undesirable effects such as job dissatisfaction, tension, depression, fatigue, as well as it increases their chances of having coronary heart disease (Conley & Woosley, 2002). Having said that, this harmful impact of role stress is that it will ultimately reduce lecturers' job satisfaction and push the lecturers out of their universities.

Lecturer turnover may not just be the result of push factors inside the organisation but, may also be due to external pull factors outside of the university. Lecturers' job satisfaction and the pull to leave may be affected by the attractive external factors available outside their university. As a matter of fact, career progression in a single university without considering external job opportunities is not common among faculty members; nevertheless mobility is accepted by the academic

profession as teaching and research skills are readily transferable (Bowen & Shuster, 1986; Daly & Dee, 2006; Zhou & Volkwein, 2004).

Besides that, attraction to external compensation may also arise as lecturers compare the compensation received in their current university with other universities; these comparisons may be done through Malaysian online employment companies like Jobstreet.com. Infact, a Jobstreet 2015 survey on the Malaysian academic average salary revealed that the average salary earned by a lecturer with a Master's qualification was between RM2800 to RM7000 depending on teaching and research experience (Jobstreet Salary Report, 2015). Furthermore, lecturers could in addition be enticed to universities with better prestige because lecturers may aspire for better academic reputation and status in their career as a lecturer (O'Meara, 2014). Research and publication count, according to MOHE is an indicator of research productivity and quality of both public and private universities in Malaysia; hence it is used to rank faculties and academics institutions, subsequently enhancing the university's image and its attractiveness among lecturers (MOHE, 2016; Suryani et al., 2013). Lastly, an appealing university working location plays an essential role in the movement of lecturers from one university to another as these lecturers are lured by the regional/city advantages of the university working location (Yan et al., 2015).

Although lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover may be a result of both internal push factors and external pull factors, nevertheless one of the key factors to

increasing job satisfaction and pulling lecturers to continue to work at their current university is through the motivation of work as lecturers who are motivated will feel happier, more satisfied and are more inclined to work for their faculty and university (Ahsan, Abdullah, Yong, & Alam, 2009). Furthermore, Wan et al. (2015) mentioned that in Malaysia, the nature of a lecturer's job is exciting, satisfying, rewarding and provides a sense of belonging to the university. Sadeghi et al. (2012) stated that a motivated and satisfied lecturer will be effective in promoting the future development of the university; hence this would allow the globalisation of the higher education sector in Malaysia to be achievable.

Lecturers derive satisfaction from their work achievement in seeing their students successfully complete their studies, in the recognition they receive from their peers and students, from the work itself which includes the intellectual fulfilment, joy and desire associated working with children and also the responsibility given to them to monitor and discipline students' behaviour. Opportunities for advancement is also a pulling factor to stay within the organisation as recent research found that Malaysian employees will continue to stay in their organisation if they are offered inspiring work and if their career continues to advance. The research found that 50% of Malaysian employees stay in their present organisation if they are given the opportunity for career advancement ("Survey finds more than 50% Malaysian employees stay put for career progression 2015"; 2015).

Lastly, Bedi, Goldberg, and Gullett (2007) stated that a major binding force which lures academics to universities is the academic learning and creative satisfaction that they enjoy which may be far more enriching than material benefits that other organisations might offer. Jeswani et al. (2009) stated that if lecturers can accomplish their growth objectives with one employee over an extended time period, they will continue to work at the same place. Othman and Dahari (2011) further mentioned that growth is important to lecturers as (1) there is a need for new type of education expertise, (2) there is a need for growth of knowledge and information in every subject area and discipline, (3) there is a need for continuous growth and changes to be made to lecturers roles and responsibilities that require constant learning and upgrading in the way lecturers go about their jobs and the changing structure of their working environment. It is thus important for lecturers to be motivated to work in their current university as motivation increases job satisfaction and is a pulling factor to continue to stay in their current university.

Job satisfaction has been identified as an intervening variable that can effect lecturers' turnover as a decrease in lecturers' job satisfaction may induce lecturers' turnover (Ch'ng, Chong, & Nakesvari, 2010; Cotton & Turtle, 1986; Daly & Dee, 2006; Hom, Lee, Shaw, & Hausknecht, 2017; Ramli, Salahudin, Zainol, & Suandi, 2014; Yücel, 2012; Zhang & Feng, 2011). Finally, demographic variables may also affect job satisfaction and turnover, particularly as more women enter the workforce and as the retirement age of lecturers' increases (Robbin & Judge, 2014). In fact Abubakar and Kura (2015) have even

proposed the study of the relationship of the moderating effects of socio-demographic variables such as age and gender between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention in Malaysia since there have been relatively few studies. In the year 2011, MOHE (2011) recorded a ratio of 35,349 female lecturers to 41,365 male lectures. However in public universities the number of female lecturers was higher than male lecturers at 17,081 to 14,796 lecturers. Whereas for the retirement age, MOHE (2016) is considering reviewing the retirement age of professors which is currently set at 60 years. Hence age and gender may moderate the relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover.

Based on the research background, factors that may pull or push lecturers to stay or leave should be studied. However Johnsrud and Rosser (2002) stated that actual turnover is more difficult to study due to the difficulty of locating organisational members that have left, in addition to having a response rate that is often low. Nevertheless, past research has found that a good proxy for actual turnover is turnover intention (Cohen, Blake & Goodman, 2015; Daly & Dee, 2006; Goi, 2013; Griffeth, Hom, & Geatner, 2000; Lee & Mowday, 1987; Micheals & Spector, 1982; Mobley, 1977; Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth, 1978; Price, 2001; Rathakrishnan et al., 2016). Having gone through the research background of this study, the following is the problem statement and identification of the research gap of this study.

1.2. Problem Statement

First and foremost the study aims to answer the following research gaps; (1) to study the effect of both internal pull factors and internal push factors with lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention in a single conceptual model (Imran, 2017; Khan & Irfan, 2014). Next, to also study the relationship of (2) external pull factors together with internal pull factors and internal push factors with lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention hence studying the effect of both internal and external factors with job satisfaction and turnover intention in a single conceptual model (Ramasamy & Abdullah, 2017). Thirdly (3) the study will also answer the research gap that there is still lack of studies on lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention within the higher education sector (Rathakrishnan et al., 2016) and lastly (4) the study will answer the research gap that there is shortage of studies examining the moderating effect of age and gender on the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention (Abubakar & Kura, 2015).

Having said that, the interest in explaining and reducing turnover has long been a major concern among organization scholars (Daly & Dee, 2006; Kurnat-Thomas, Ganger & Peterson, 2017; Mobley, 1977; Price & Mueller, 1981; Xu, 2008; Yan, Yue, & Niu, 2015). The conceptualisation of turnover intention by Mobley (1977) as the last sequence of the withdrawal cognition led to numerous studies on turnover intention with empirical evidence supporting the notion of turnover

intention as the immediate precursor to actual turnover. There has been scores of research on the study of turnover intention. However, most of these studies have concentrated on certain industries like healthcare (nursing staff, hospital staff; social workers), commercial banks and financial institutions, information technology professionals and manufacturing (Al-Qahtani & Gadhoum, 2016; Biswakarma, 2016; Kurnat-Thomas, Ganger & Peterson, 2017; Oosthuizen, Coetzee & Munro, 2017; Schlechter, Syce & Bussin, 2016). Furthermore these turnover studies have primarily concentrated on studying the impact of internal factors within the organisation on employees' turnover intention rather than the influence of external factors which are outside the organisation on employees' turnover intention (Oosthuizen et al., 2017; Schlechte et al., 2016; Yan, Yue, & Niu, 2015).

Due to the increase in lecturers' turnover in recent years, studies on turnover intention have shifted the focus to the education sector (Daly & Dee, 2006; Rathakrishnan et al., 2016; Yan, Yue, & Niu, 2015). The findings of these studies revealed that internal factors such as demographics, company policies and procedures, career development practices, organisational justice and work-life balance have been found to have a significant consequence on lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention (Choong et al., 2013; Hassan & Hashim, 2011; Idris, 2011; Lew 2011; Mohd Noor, 2011; Morris et al., 2004; Yin-Fah, Foon, Chee-Leong & Osman, 2010).

However within the HEIs in Malaysia, there is still no consensus in the literature on the internal factors that may affect a lecturer's job satisfaction and turnover intention. The review of past studies revealed that internal pull factors - intrinsic motivational factors (Imran, 2017; Jeswani et al., 2009; Lobburi, 2012; Kosi et al., 2015; Panatik et al., 2012; Rageb et al., 2013; Sadeghi et al., 2012; Tan, Mansor, & Huam, 2014) and the internal push factors - role stress factors (Abbas et al., 2012; Khan & Irfan, 2014; Panatik et al., 2012; Rageb et al., 2013) may affect lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention but relatively few studies have examined the push and pull impact of these internal factors on lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention.

Furthermore, it is no longer vital to just examine the link of these internal factors with job satisfaction and turnover intention, but it is also crucial to examine the impact of the external environmental factors that are outside the university on lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention (Owence et al., 2014; Ramasamy & Abdullah, 2017; Semmer et al., 2015; Xu, 2008; Yan et al., 2015). External pull factors such as the availability of attractive alternatives –job opportunity, compensation, working location and university image—have been largely overlooked in further understanding employee job satisfaction and turnover intention (Owence et al., 2014; Ramasamy & Abdullah, 2017; Semmer et al., 2015; Xu, 2008). The review of previous literature has revealed that these four factors have been commonly cited as external pull factors. Nevertheless, relatively

few studies have empirically tested these four factors as an external pull factor affecting both lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention.

Previous researchers on turnover intention and job satisfaction in HEIs by Daly and Dee (2006), Matier (1990) and Xu (2008) have clearly mentioned that future research on lecturers' turnover intention should consider the effect of push and pull factors on job satisfaction and turnover intention into a single conceptual model. Furthermore, it is also vital to know which set of these push and pull factors will have a stronger effect on job satisfaction and turnover intention. To address this research gaps, a research model has been developed to examine the relationship of these push and pull factors on lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention to provide a better understanding on (1) which factors have a significant relationship on lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention and to examine (2) which set of these internal factors and external factors have a more stronger effect on lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention. This study will not only contribute to existing knowledge on lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover studies but will also provide empirical research on the effect of push and pull factors on lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention.

Furthermore, there is still no consensus on the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention among lecturers in Malaysian HEIs as Goi (2013) found a strong negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention while Abdul Aziz and Ramli (2010) found that job satisfaction did not

contribute significantly to the intention to quit. As such, it is essential to examine the relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention. Furthermore, Ramli et al. (2014) and Rathakrishnan et al (2016) have even mentioned that there is still a need to include job satisfaction in lecturers' turnover studies in Malaysia. Lastly, as the number of female lecturers' increases and the retirement age rises in the Malaysian Higher sector, the study of the moderating effect of gender and age on the relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention must be examined. AbuBakar and Kura (2015) have proposed for the study to be conducted in Malaysia as relatively few studies have examined the moderating effect of demographic characteristics such as age and gender with lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention in the Malaysian higher education sector. Furthermore there is still shortage of research pertaining to the study of the moderating effect of age and gender with lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention (Abubakar & Kura, 2015; Hundera, 2014; Tschopp, Grote, & Köppel, 2015).

This research model will examine turnover intention in the context of the Malaysian Higher Education Industry concentrating on the Faculty of Business in private universities. This is due to the rapid increase of private universities in the Klang Valley which by the end of 2016 amounted to 47 private universities, with 34 private universities situated in the Klang Valley (MOHE, 2016). The higher turnover rate of lecturers in private universities (45.45%) as compared to public universities (18.18%) (MOHE, 2014). Furthermore, Ramasamy and Abdullah

(2017) reported that turnover rate of faculties at private universities in Malaysia was around 18 % as quoted by the human resource personnel of some private universities in Malaysia, while Rathakrishnan et al.(2016) study on 253 private universities lecturers in the Klang Valley revealed that job satisfaction explained lecturers' turnover intention.

Furthermore the study will focus on Business Faculties due to the popularity of business programmes which can be seen from its very high student enrolment (MOHE, 2016). Based on a MOHE (2017) report, the total number of business students enrolled in the Faculty of Business at private universities stood at 277,569 students compared to other faculties such as Education with only 88,757 students, Arts and Humanities with 47,984 students, Science, Mathematics and Computers with 61,724 students, Engineering with 83,971 students, Agriculture and Veterinary with 2,753 students and Health and Welfare with 56,581 students. Also, MOHE is emphasising on expanding the number and variety of Business programmes such as business executive education and Islamic banking and finance (Tan, 2014). Hence, it is not surprising that business lecturers are in high demand in Malaysia (Lee, 2004; Tan, 2014).

In terms of job satisfaction, it was reported that social sciences and business lecturers have lower job satisfaction as compared to engineering lecturers whom had higher job satisfaction (Figueroa, 2015; Sabharwal & Corley, 2009; Ward & Sloane, 2000). Furthermore, according to the report from Stanford University, the

Business faculty is one of the faculties with a high turnover rate (Figuerola, 2015; Trei, 2001). Additionally, Anapol (2016) stated that there was high turnover of business lecturers at a reputable university in the United Kingdom (UK) with a reported 11 staff leaving within a period of 14 months; many of staff stated that low job satisfaction and high job stress were their reasons for leaving their university.

Lastly intrinsic motivational factors, stress factors and attraction factors were also found to affect business lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention (Adrian et al., 2014; Ramasamy & Abdullah, 2017; Rathakrishnan et al., 2016; Paul, & Phua, 2011). Bowen and Schuster (1986) stated that "the excellence of higher education is a function of the kind of people it is able to enlist and retain in its faculties" (p. 3). Hence in order to retain lecturers, universities should look into ways to improve job satisfaction and reduce turnover intention. Based on the problem statement presented, the purpose of this study is to investigate the significant factors that affect job satisfaction and turnover intention among lecturers with the aim of understanding and improving job satisfaction and reducing turnover intention in the education industry. As such this study was conducted to address these research gaps.

Based on the research background and problem statement presented, the next section will highlight the research questions and research objectives of the study.

1.3 Research Questions

Based on the research background and problem statement, the research questions of this study are; “Are internal pull factors, internal push factors and external pull factors significantly related to lecturers’ job satisfaction and turnover intention? If yes, which set of these factors have a stronger relationship with lecturers’ job satisfaction and turnover intention? The research questions are thus sub divided into the following:

1. Are there both direct and indirect relationships between internal pull factors (achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, opportunities for advancement, opportunities for growth) and lecturers’ job satisfaction and turnover intention?
2. Are there both direct and indirect relationships between internal push factors (role conflict, role ambiguity, role overload) on lecturers’ job satisfaction and turnover intention?
3. Are there both direct and indirect relationships between attractive external pull factors (job opportunity, compensation, working location, university image) on lecturers’ job satisfaction and turnover intention?

4. Is there a negative relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention?
5. Does age and gender moderate the relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention?

1.4 Research Objectives

Based on the research questions developed, the research objective of this study is to examine the relationships of internal pull factors, internal push factors and external pull factors on lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention. The research objective is thus sub divided into the following:

1. To examine the direct and indirect relationships between internal pull factors (achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, opportunities for advancement, opportunities for growth) and lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention.
2. To investigate the direct and indirect impacts of internal push factors (role conflict, role ambiguity, role overload) on lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention.

3. To determine the direct and indirect influence of attractive external pull factors (job opportunity, compensation, working location, university image) on lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention.
4. To assess the relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention.
5. To investigate the moderating effects of age and gender on the relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention.

The next section will discuss on the scope of the study followed by the significance of the study and outline of the study.

1.5 Scope of the Study

The scope of study of this research is limited to full-time lecturers from local universities in Malaysia. The respondents were limited to full-time Faculty of Business lecturers from private universities in the Klang Valley. The data was collected using a single quantitative data collection method through a self-administrated questionnaire. The study focused on examining the internal pull factors comprising on intrinsic motivational factors, internal push factors which are role stress factors and external pull factors consisting of external attraction factors with the purpose of determining its effect on lecturers' job satisfaction and

turnover intention. Furthermore the study examined the relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention as well as the moderating effect of age and gender on the relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention.

1.6 Significance of the Study

1.6.1 Theoretical Contribution

The findings of the study will contributed and added value to the current knowledge and understanding of the organisational factors, job related factors and external enviornmental factors which draws upon the social information processing theory that can affect lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention. The study will examined both internal and external factors and will produced a comprehensive job satisfaction and turnover intention model with a different perspective. The study would hopefully make significant contribution to job satisfaction and turnover intention studies as there have been limited studies on the relationship of pull and push factors on both lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention (Daly & Dee, 2006; Xu, 2008, Yan et al., 2015; Zhou & Volkwein, 2004)..This study will also contribute towards the literature on the understanding of how age and gender may moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention due to lack of studies in this area (Abubakar & Kura, 2015; Hundera, 2014; Tschopp, Grote, & Köppel, 2015).

1.6.2 Practical Contribution

Firstly this study will provide valuable information to the various stakeholders and policy makers such as MOHE, recruitment bodies, university governance and teacher educators on the significant push and pull factors that affect job satisfaction and turnover intention among lecturers within the private universities in Malaysia. Once these contributing factors have been identified policies and practices may be implemented to reduce turnover and retain genuine talent in the academia.

1.7 Outline of the study

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter will begin with a synopsis of the research with the aim of explaining why the study on turnover intention is imperative. This section will first explain the history of the Malaysian higher education institutions, followed by the development of the PrHEIs, its growth in the Klang Valley and the role of a lecturer. Subsequently, this research will provide the background of the push and

pull factors leading to the identification of the problem. This is then followed by the research questions, research objectives, scope of study and the significance of the study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter provides the theory underlining the study, the conceptual definition, the study of the relationships with review of literature for push and pull factors and the relationship with job satisfaction, turnover intention as well as the relationship of age and gender as moderators to job satisfaction and turnover intention. This is then followed by the conceptual model and the hypotheses.

Chapter 3: Methodology

This chapter describes the methodology of the study which includes the research philosophy, research approach, research design, population size and sample size, sampling procedure, research instrument, data collection method, questionnaire design that includes constructs measurement, pilot test and data analysis that is applied.

Chapter 4: Data Analysis

This chapter presents the results of the findings that include descriptive statistics, assessment of normality and outliers, reliability analysis, exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, path analysis and moderator analysis.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusion and Implications

This chapter offers the summary and implications of the significant results, contribution to theory and practice, limitations of study and lastly recommendation and future direction of the research.

1.8 Conclusion

In Chapter 1, the researcher has introduced the topic of study with a brief review of the various push and pull factors that may affect job satisfaction and turnover intention. The reported problem statement supported the need for study to be conducted. This was followed by the research questions and research objectives. Lastly the researchers presented the scope of study and significance of study. The

next chapter will review the relevant theories, the operational definitions, the review of literature pertaining to push and pull factors on lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention and the moderating effects of age and gender on the relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention. This will then be followed by the conceptual model and hypotheses.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

The review of literature is intended to explain the theoretical foundation behind the antecedents of turnover intention and its relationship with job satisfaction studies. The review of literature in this chapter begins with the relevant theories which are Herzberg, Mausner, & Synderman (1959) Motivation-Hygiene Theory, Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal (1964) Role Stress Theory and Salancik & Pfeffer (1977) and (1978) Social Information Processing Theory which is used to explain the importance of the attraction to external environmental factors. These theories are relevant in understanding the impact that internal pull factors, internal push factors and external pull factors may possibly have on lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention. Mobley's (1977) turnover model is then used to explain the link between job satisfaction and turnover intention. Next, the definition of the terms of each of the variable and the literature review for the relationships among the independent and dependent variables are discussed. At the end of the chapter, the research conceptual framework and hypotheses are presented.

2.1 Theoretical Foundation

2.1.1 Herzberg Motivation-Hygiene Theory

Steers, Mowday, and Shapiro (2004) stated that the word motivation is derived from the Latin word for movement (movere). Atkinson (1964) defined motivation as "the contemporary (immediate) influence on direction, vigor and persistence of action" p. (2). However, Vroom (1964) on the other hand defined motivation as " a process governing choice made by persons among alternative forms of voluntary activity" p. (6).

Having defined motivation, it is important to understand that one of the most important factors affecting human behaviour and work performance is the level of motivation in an individual; as it can affect all aspects of an organisational performance (Wan Yusoff, Tan, & Mohamad Idris, 2013). According to Graham and Messner (1998), motivation has been identified as an important element of job satisfaction. Since the 1950s, many motivation theories have been advanced in the field of organisation and management and these motivation theories are generally categorised into two groups; content theories and process theories.

Content theories such as, Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory (Maslow, 1954), Alderfer's ERG theory (Alderfer, 1972), Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene theory, (Herzberg et al., 1959) and McClelland's theory of needs (McClelland, 1961),

focused on individual needs which attempt to explain what motivates people and is concerned with individual goals. On the other hand, process theories, such as Adams equity theory (Adams, 1965), Vroom's expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) and Porter and Lawler's model (Porter & Lawler, 1968) focus on the "why" and the "how" of motivation, investigating the thinking processes through which people choose one action versus another in the workplace; analysing how an individual's personal factors interact and influence each other to produce certain kinds of behaviour (Rathavoot & Ogunlana, 2003).

Of the many motivation theories that have been developed over the years, the Herzberg et al's (1959) Motivation-Hygiene theory has been acknowledged as an important effort in the understanding of human behaviour and motivation; hence the study has been replicated more than 200 times and there has been numerous extensions of the original study (Derby-Davis, 2014; Herzberg et al., 1965; Herzberg, 1968; Ruthankoon & Ogunlana, 2003; Yusoff et al., 2013; Whitsett & Winslow, 1967). The theory is now deemed as one of the most replicated studies in the field of job attitudes and behaviour (Herzberg, 1968).

Following a widespread review of literature on job attitudes, covering 2,000 articles spread over a period of approximately fifty years, Herzberg et al. (1959) conducted a research to test the implications that there are some factors that causes job satisfaction, while there are some other different factors that cause job dissatisfaction (Whitsett & Winslow, 1967). Using the Flanagan (1954) critical

incidents technique of semi-structured interviews involving 200 engineers and accountants, the study revealed that intrinsic factors cause job satisfaction, while extrinsic factors cause job dissatisfaction. Intrinsic factors also known as job content factors, provide meaningful works that are intrinsically satisfying themselves which from the study is caused by factors such as achievement, recognition, responsibility, the work itself, advancement and personal growth. These factors are positive job attitudes. These intrinsic factors or motivators are directly related to the job content and are largely internal to the individual. Ryan and Deci (2000) stated that employees' experience intrinsic motivation when they do something that is inherently interesting or enjoyable hence the inherent satisfaction rather than some separable consequences.

Extrinsic factors are also known as job context factors. These factors contribute less to employees' motivation needs. Factors that were identified are company policy & administration, supervision, relationship with supervisors, work conditions, salary, relationships with peers, personal life, status and security and relationships with subordinates. These factors are negative job attitudes. They are also known as extrinsic factors or hygiene factors which are external to the individual and is related to Maslow (1954) lower order need that are largely determined by the organisation.

The term internal pull factors was first mentioned by Flowers and Hughes (1973) in the discussion on factors relevant to an employees' job satisfaction and

decision to stay or leave, beginning with the classification of factors inside the company known as job satisfiers or motivational factors encompassing of achievement, advancement, recognition, responsibility, the work itself and growth. These factors inside the company affect an individual's job satisfaction and decision to stay or leave. Wan Yusoff et al. (2013) have even stated that intrinsic motivational factors are considered as pull factors as employees achieve satisfaction from meaningful work that is able to intrinsically satisfy them by their work outcomes, responsibilities, delegated experienced learned and achievement harvested.

Research has reported that teachers who are highly motivated to teach; enjoy the level of responsibility given to them and appreciate the recognition gained from their students achievement will have greater job satisfaction; as such higher levels of employee motivation are directly associated with higher levels of job satisfaction (Castillo et al., 2009; Mertler, 1992; Mertler, 2001; Nanda & Krishna, 2013; Jeswani et al., 2009; Sadeghi, et al., 2012). Research has also found that motivation plays an important role in turnover intention; teachers who were given greater responsibilities in managing their class had higher intention to stay in their current organisation than to leave (Hong & Kaur, 2008). As such academics who are highly motivated will have lower levels of turnover intention (Ali Shah et al., 2010; Conklin & Desselle, 2007; Hong & Kaur, 2008; Olusegun, 2012; Selesho & Naile, 2014).

2.1.2 Role Stress Theory

Biddle (1986) stated that "role theory concerns the important characteristics of social behaviour whereby human beings behave in ways that are different and predictable depending on their respective social identities and situations" (p. 68).

Role theory describes how social structures influence behaviour in family, economic systems, political systems, educational systems and religious institutions (Reilly, 1982). Role theory explains that the portrayal of behaviours by individuals in social encounter as a key determinant of both the boundaries by individuals in a social exchange and its future possibilities (Broderick, 1998).

Every individual in the course of their life is given an array of roles to play; be it at home or at the work place. An employee has many roles at the work place which could be from a particular set of organisations and groups that the person belongs to (Kahn et al., 1964). Roles are important to individuals as they provide important psychological benefits such as increased self-esteem, self-image and, ego fulfilment (Williams & Alliger, 1994). However, individuals will not be able to perform their roles if they experience stress, as they become less satisfied and less productive (Daly & Dee, 2006; Idris, 2011; Lee & Schular, 1980).

Stress according to Beehr, Jex, and Ghosh (2001), is usually seen as a process whereby some characteristics of the work or a workplace produce harmful consequences or responses on the part of the employees. Stress is defined as any characteristic of the job environment that poses a threat to the individual either

though excessive demands or insufficient resources (Gmelch, Lovrich, & Wilke, 1984). Stress occurs when an individual is faced with challenging and demanding environment and the individual is unable to handle the demands and challenges adequately (Dua, 1994). Schuler (1982) stated that stress can be costly; hence academics and practitioners should develop strategies to deal with stress so that it can be effectively managed and reduced.

With regard to role stress, Kahn and Quinn (1970) defined role stress as "anything about an organisation role that produces adverse consequences to an individual" (p.41). Role stress is the tension experienced by any employee which could have been caused by the organisation's job related factors such as the requirements of the job; hence according to the role stress theory, role stress occurs when the organisation produces role expectations and these expectations are conveyed by the respective role senders to the employees (Kahn et al., 1964).

As per the research by Beehr, Walsh, and Taber (1976) and Lee and Schuler (1980), these authors have mentioned that work motivation is valued by organisations as it is a known component in effective job performance. However with regards to role stressors, they are known to affect individuals adversely; dissatisfaction with work, depression, tension and employee turnover intention. Thus, role stress produces negative consequences to individuals (Kahn & Quinn, 1970; Rizzo, House & Lirtzman, 1970). Hence the study of role stress is

important in understanding the effects of the present environment on the individuals' physical, health and mental well-being (Kahn et al., 1964).

Role stress is made up of these three separate constructors; role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload. The unclear role demands and expectations set by the organisation on a teacher may create role ambiguity. When a teacher's workload is excessive, this may lead to role overload and finally when achieving one set of work expectations make meeting another set of work expectations more challenging, a teacher may experience role conflict (Sutton, 1984).

Beehr et al. (1976) stated that role overload, role conflict and role ambiguity are known problems that cause stress to an individual. Research by Beehr et al. (2001), Beehr and Newman (1978), Newman and Beehr (1979) stated that job stressors that have commonly been studied in organisational psychology include role stressors such as role overload, role conflict and role ambiguity which have been linked to psychological strain which includes depression, emotional exhaustion, burnout, job alienation, frustration, anxiety, hostility and finally turnover intention.

In the field of research and theory, job satisfaction is negatively associated with strains of stress and thus influences the individual's level of job satisfaction and turnover intention in the organisation (Beehr, Jex, & Ghosh, 2001; Parasuraman & Alutto, 1984). Furthermore, role overload, role conflict and role ambiguity are consistently associated with psychological and physical ill health (Katz & Kahn,

1978). Peiro, Gonzalez-Roma, Tordera, and Manas (2001) found that all three variables will predict changes over time in emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation. Studies have also revealed that role overload, role ambiguity and role conflict are significantly related to employee health, satisfaction, frustration and turnover intention. Finally, a review of literature on various professions from hospital staff to academics have found a common link between role stress and job satisfaction as well as turnover intention (Glazer & Beehr, 2005; Idris, Hasan, Chin, Ismail, & Abu Samad, 2013; Jex, Beehr, & Roberts, 1992; Lambert & Hogan, 2009).

2.1.3 Social Information Processing Theory

The social information processing (SIP) model holds that employee attitudes and behaviour are directly affected by their perceptions of work (Salancik, & Pfeffer, 1978). Salancik & Pfeffer (1977) and Salancik & Pfeffer (1978) examined the whole approach to work designed and introduced the SIP model. The authors mentioned that the salient content and dimensions of the jobs may be partially due to the results of perceptions that are subject to social influences. Salancik and Pfeffer, (1977) studied the need-satisfaction models and argued that the models denied human adaptability in coping with changing circumstances and that the models did not consider the external environment or social context in which work occurs. Hence the authors pointed out that the need-satisfaction model with its dependence on a direct causal relationship is far too simplistic.

According to Salancik and Pfeffer (1978) “The SIP approach proceeds from the fundamental premise that individuals, as adaptive organisms, adapt attitudes, behaviour, and beliefs to their social context and to the reality of their own past and present behaviour situation. This premise leads inexorably to the conclusion that one can learn most about individual behaviour by studying the informational and social environment within which that behaviour occurs and to which it adapts” (p. 226).

According to Salancik and Pfeffer (1978), factors that affect employees perceptions of work are "(1) the cognitive processing of the job dimensions, (2) the social environment which provides cues as to which dimensions characterise the work environment, (3) social information concerning how the individual should weigh various dimensions of the work, (4) cues concerning how others weigh the work environment and (5) the idea that workers possess the ability to construct their own satisfaction by selectively perceiving and interpreting their social environment and their own past actions" (p. 249).

Salancik and Pfeffer (1978) believe that the SIP approaches to job attitudes argue that job satisfaction is a socially constructed reality. They believed that allowance must be made for the possibility that individuals might rationalise and cognitively construct their environments in order to be at peace with their particular decisions. The SIP model suggests that employees when committed to a situation or are responsible for it can find satisfaction and meaning in it and the critical variable in positive job attitudes is the construction of the environmental and the appropriate attitudinal responses. The psychical and cognitive job demands perceived by individuals will influence their absence behaviour and turnover intentions (Parker, Wall & Cordery, 2001).

According to Gatewood, Gowan, and Lautenschlager (1993), the influence of SIP can be seen in the job choice process. The process begins with the evaluation of information obtained from recruitment sources which includes printed

advertisements, media messages and friends; hence individuals use the information obtained and will decide on the attractiveness of alternatives as compared to the current company they are working at. Having said this, the attractiveness of a workplace might influence a lecturer's decision to accept an academic position (Peterson & Wisenberg, 2006). Employees may compare their current organisational benefits with the attractive alternatives outside of their organisation and, as a result of this comparisons, employees' job satisfaction level and their decision to either stay or leave may be affected (Ahmad & Riaz, 2011).

Mobley et al. (1979) stated that "the attraction of alternatives is defined in terms of expectations that the alternatives will lead to the future attainment of various positive and negative values outcomes" (p. 519). Mobley et al. (1979) argued that satisfaction is an affective response to the evaluation of the job, hence satisfaction is present rather than future oriented, while attraction is future oriented.

External pull factors may attract lecturers to a new workplace due to the attractive external conditions such as attractive job opportunities, attractive compensation, attractive working location and attractive university image (Abdul Aziz & Ramli, 2010; Cappelli & Hamori, 2006; Ho, Downe, & Loke, 2010; Loquercio, Hammersley, & Emmens, 2006; Semmer et al., 2014; Yan et al., 2015). According to Iverson and Roy (1999) environmental variables outside the organization can have a significant effect on job satisfaction. Based on the work of Mowday et al. (1982), an employees' job satisfaction decreases as employees

reevaluate their own values and expectations when confronted with attractive alternatives. In fact, various researches have found a negative relationship between environmental opportunity and job satisfaction (Ahmad & Riaz, 2011; Mueller, Boyer, Price, & Iverson, 1994; Price & Mueller, 1981; Price & Mueller, 1986).

The attractive external environment may also result in turnover intention. March and Simon's (1958) research on turnover suggested that dissatisfaction may "push" employees to look for alternative employment while other factors such as the attractive job opportunities may "pull" employees to consider alternative employment. Mobley's (1977) Intermediate Linkages Model found that turnover intention is the result of a comparison which favours the alternative job. As such, according to Mobley (1977), actual search for alternatives may result in a realistic job opportunity and the alternative is evaluated and compared to the present job.

Furthermore, according to Ryan, Healy, and Sullivan (2009) a faculty member who is a highly productive scholar and his or her work is well known may be more likely to attract interest from other universities as well; hence, he or she will consider leaving for a more prestigious programme or university. Additionally, the Caplow and McGee (1958) seminal study on faculty mobility in arts and sciences faculties at nine major research universities, found that the factors that attracted former faculty members away were salary, work duties, location and prestige. Pamu (2010) stated that main reasons teachers leave are for better

promotional avenues, improved salary and better assignments. Furthermore, the faculty exit study 1197/1998 through 2006/2207 at Pennsylvania State University found that 159 faculty members left due to retirement, 118 left for more attractive positions elsewhere and only 15 were denied tenures or were counselled out of the university (Pennsylvania State University, 2007 October).

2.1.4 Turnover Model

The evolution of the turnover model begun over several decades ago, with the development and introduction of the Theory of Organisational Equilibrium by March and Simon (1958), which suggests that job satisfaction would decrease the desire to move, which will thus reduce employee turnover. This landmark model is known as one of the first and most influential integrative turnover models that explains the turnover process. Since then, numerous turnover models were developed to study employees' turnover intention which has contributed to both positive and negative aspects of turnover intention (AlBattat, Som, & Helalat; 2013; Choi, Ajagbe, Nor, & Suleiman, 2012; Daly & Dee, 2006; Hom & Griffeth, 1991; Jackofsky, 1984; Lee & Mitchell 1994; Long, Ajagbe, Nor, & Shahrin, 2012; March & Simon, 1958; Mitchell & Lee; 2001; Semmer et al., 2014; Supangco, 2015; Steers & Mowday 1981; Wittmer, Shepard, & Martin; 2014;Yücel, 2012).

The Intermediate Linkages Model was developed by Mobley (1977) to explain the relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover. The model theorised that job dissatisfaction led to thinking of quitting, which led to job search, which led to intention to quit and eventually actual turnover. Mobley's (1977) model was an expansion of the March and Simon (1958) turnover model which included the concept of withdrawal cognition, where the variable turnover intention received considerable support in the literature and is considered to be the precursor to actual turnover (AlBattat et al., 2013; Choi et al., 2012; Daly & Dee, 2006; Hom & Griffeth, 1991; Long et al., 2012; Mitchell & Lee; 2001; Semmer et al., 2014; Supangco, 2015; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Wittmer et al., 2014; Yücel, 2012).

Mobley's (1977) intermediate linkages model suggested that the employees' immediate response of job dissatisfaction is the thought of quitting. This immediate response is cognitive rather than behavioural, as such an employee who has the intention to quit will evaluate the utility of search through probability of finding a job and the employee's subjective judgement of the various cost incurred as a result of leaving the present job and searching for a future one. Having said this, job satisfaction affects actual withdrawal behaviour through the intention to search and intention to quit.

The model has been regarded to be the strongest and most consistent predictor to actual turnover and is viewed as being a universal turnover model appropriate to

explain the turnover decision of all workers without regard to an individual's unique circumstances or situation, subsequently this led to other process models to be developed following the factors and steps that precede the turnover decision (Hom, Caranikas-Walker, Prussia, & Griffeth, 1992; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Mobley et al., 1978; Lee, 1996; Mitchell & Lee, 2001; Semmer et al., 2014; Supangco, 2015; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Wittmer et al., 2014; Yücel, 2012).

The intermediate linkages model has also received empirical support and is still being used to explain how job satisfaction affects employee turnover intention (Ahmad & Riaz, 2011; AlBattat et al., 2013; Aydogdu & Asikgil, 2011; Choi et al., 2012; Daly & Dee, 2006; Hom & Griffeth, 1991; Long et al., 2012; Supangco, 2015; Wittmer et al., 2014). As such, job satisfaction is an intervening work-related variable that may have a negative relationship with lecturers' turnover intention (Daly & Dee, 2006; Hom et al., 2016; Zhang & Feng, 2011). Additionally, work related variables categorised as internal pull factors, internal push factors and external pull factors may have an effect on the job satisfaction and turnover intention process (Ahmad & Riaz, 2011; Ali Shah et al., 2010). The next section will define the push and pull variables that may be linked to job satisfaction and turnover intention. As mentioned in Chapter 1, these factors are internal pull factors which are intrinsic motivational factors, internal push factors which are roles stress factors and external pull factors which are external attraction factors.

2.2 Defining the Concepts

2.2.1 Achievement

According to Bowen and Schuster (1986), the benefits that may be attained from the academic profession are intrinsic rewards. Lecturers receive a sense of achievement and satisfaction from their job through intellectual curiosity, interest in ideas, the exercise of rationality, the fascination with complexity, the ability to solve difficult problems, and the participation in decision making affecting one's life. Furthermore, the sense of achievement and accomplishment that lecturers experience with the quality of their students has a powerful affect on the overall satisfaction of lecturers (Rosser, 2005). Hence achievement is a motivating factor to lecturers (Ahuja & Gautam, 2012). In the context of higher education, a lecturer's achievement is elicited through the successful completion of academic work related goals such as observing students success, and/or successfully publishing their research findings and contributing their findings to the nation.

The review of literature on achievement has shown authors have similarly defined achievement as the successful accomplishment of one's work and this elicits an enjoyable emotion that induces job satisfaction (Castilo & Cano, 2004; Herzberg et al., 1959; Oshagbemi, 2003; Wood, 1973; Wood, 1976). The list of definitions for achievement taken from job satisfaction and turnover intention literature within the higher education sector can be seen in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: List of Definitions for Achievement

No	Source	Definition
1.	Castilo and Cano (2004, p. 66)	"The accomplishments of work activities by an employee".
2.	*Herzberg et al. (1959, p.45)	"Achievement includes its opposite, failure and the absence of achievement. Stories involving some specifically mentioned success were put into this category and these included the following: successful completion of a job, solutions to problems, vindication, and seeing the results of one's work" (p.45).
3	Oshagbemi (2003, p. 1210).	"The successful accomplishment of one's job values in the work situation that may result to a pleasurable emotional state known as job satisfaction".
4.	Wood (1973, p. 7) and Wood (1976)	"The successful completion of a job".

*Definition used for this study

In this study, the definition for achievement was taken from Herzberg et al. (1959) based on the definition derived through the Herzberg et al.'s (1959) Motivation-Hygiene Theory. Herzberg et al.'s (1959) stated that "achievement includes its opposite, failure and the absence of achievement. Stories involving some specifically mentioned success were put into this category and these included the following: successful completion of a job, solutions to problems, vindication, and seeing the results of one's work" (p.45).

2.2.2 Recognition

Teaching is a noble profession; one where self-actualisation is achieved from the work one is passionate about. Recognition is important to lecturers and this is received from the many roles that a lecturer is responsible for as a teacher, researcher and academic administrator. The act of praise from recognising the hard work, effort, time and energy is a form of intrinsic motivation to a lecturer. According to Wright (1985), academics are motivated and receive satisfaction when their heads recognise and appreciate their valuable contribution or when employees receive constructive feedback in order to correct their flaws. According to Ng'ethe et al. (2012) employees will continue to stay in their organisation if they receive regular positive feedback and recognition. In the context of higher education a lecturer's recognition is received from the faculty and from students for the accomplishment of academic work such as research publication and contribution to theory and knowledge, students' academic achievement and the publicity of a lecturer's academic work and activities.

There are various definitions of recognition taken from literature within the higher education sector. Recognition according to Yusoff, Tan, and Idris (2013) is normally not present within the employee, however once the desire to achieve recognition occurs within the employee while doing one's job, the employee will be motivated to take the necessary action to achieve that recognition from his peers and colleagues. Herzberg et al. (1959) and Ncube and Samuel (2014) have

provided similar definitions to recognition that is, the credit and gratitude given to an employee for completion of a job. The list of definitions for recognition taken from job satisfaction and turnover intention literature within the higher education sector can be seen in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: List of Definitions for Recognition

No	Source	Definition
1.	*Herzberg et al. (1959, p.44-45)	“Some act of recognition to the person speaking to us. The source could be almost anyone: a supervisor, some other individual in management, the management as an impersonal force, a client, a peer, a professional colleague, or the general public. Some act of notice, praise or blame was involved. Also includes "negative recognition" that is acts of criticism and blame" (p.44-45).
2.	Ncube and Samuel (2014, p. 269)	“Recognition from the completion of a task which is a factor, intrinsic within the work itself”.
3	Yusoff, Tan, and Idris (2013, p. 19)	“Recognition is a desire that is not present at the time the individual noticed, followed by mental desire to achieve something which is followed by physical action to obtain that desire”.

*Definition used for this study

As mentioned earlier, Herzberg et al.'s (1959) Motivation-Hygiene Theory provided an important finding to the relevance of motivational factors affecting employees; hence for this study, the definition for recognition was taken from Herzberg et al. (1959). Herzberg et al.'s (1959) defined recognition as "some act of recognition to the person speaking to us. The source could be almost anyone: a supervisor, some other individual in management, the management as an impersonal force, a client, a peer, a professional colleague, or the general public. Some act of notice, praise or blame was involved. Also includes "negative recognition" that is acts of criticism and blame" (p.44-45).

2.2.3 The Work Itself

One becomes a teacher because the work itself be it teaching or reaserch is a noble profession, where the impact of their work makes a difference to their students' life and society. Stevens (2005) stated the hours spent on research and teaching was most satisfying to faculty members. In fact, lecturers enjoyed their job, especially working with their students as they achieve satisfaction from the various student interactions and experiences through the numerous hours spent nurturing and mentoring their students (Rosser, 2005). In the context of higher education the work itself encompasses teaching, research and academic administration and that most importantly a lecturer's work makes a differences to their students, university and nation, hence the intrinsic nature of the work itself.

The definition by Castilo & Cano (2004) provides a modest explanation of the work itself being the actual job performance that has an effect on lecturers' job satisfaction. However, Mohd Noor and Hassan (2014) defined the work itself as the extent in which the work itself allows lecturers' opportunities to learn and grow, to be responsible and accountable for the task performed. The definition from Herzberg et al. (1959) however explains definition as the work itself that one performs which is a source of good or bad feelings. The list of definitions for the work itself taken from literature within the higher education sector can be seen in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3: List of Definitions for The Work itself

No	Source	Definition
1.	Castilo and Cano (2004, p. 66)	"The work itself is defined as the actual job performance related to job satisfaction".
2.	*Herzberg et al. (1959, p.48)	"The actual doing of the job or the tasks of the job as a source of good or bad feelings about it. Thus the jobs can be routine or varied, creative or stultifying (dull), overly easy or overly difficult. The duties of a position can include an opportunity to carry through an entire operation or they can be restricted to one minute aspect of it" (p.48).
3	Mohd Noor and Hassan (2014, p. 165)	"The work itself is defined as the extent to which the job provides opportunities for employees to learn and grow, whereby there is a stimulating task, responsibility and accountability for the task performed".

*Definition used for this study

For this study, the definition for the work itself was taken from Herzberg et al. (1959). As mentioned previously, Herzberg et al.'s (1959) Motivation-Hygiene Theory forms a bedrock of good motivational practices which is still being used for nearly half a century. Herzberg et al.'s (1959) defined the work itself as "the actual doing of the job or the tasks of the job as a source of good or bad feelings about it. Thus the jobs can be routine or varied, creative or stultifying (dull), overly easy or overly difficult. The duties of a position can include an opportunity to carry through an entire operation or they can be restricted to one minute aspect of it" (p.48).

2.2.4 Responsibility

Saad et al. (2008) stated that the responsibility entrusted upon lecturers in Malaysia when performing their roles is extremely important. Lecturers have admitted that the responsibility given to them to observe and discipline students' behaviour and their learning and development have made their roles more essential and significant to their job (Judhi, & Hamid, 2009). Furthermore Hassan and Abd Rahim Romle (2015) have stated that lecturers' responsibility positively affected their job satisfaction. In the context of higher education a lecturer's responsibility in being accountable and having influence over their teaching methodology and research shows the responsibility that a lecturer has towards their students, university and nation.

The review of literature within the higher education sector has provided a similar meaning for responsibility which is being accountable and having influence for one's work (Castilo & Cano, 2004; Frugar, 2007; Iverson & Maguire, 2000). The list of definitions for responsibility taken from literature within the higher education sector can be seen in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4: List of Definitions for Responsibility

No	Source	Definition
1.	Castilo and Cano (2004, p. 66), Frugar (2007, p. 120)	"Responsibility as the personal or responsibility for the control of one's work which also includes the work of others or being given a new responsibility".
2.	*Herzberg et al. (1959, p.47-48)	"Factors relating to responsibility and authority which includes those sequences of events in which the person speaking reported that he derived satisfaction from being given responsibility for his own work or for the work of others or being given new responsibility. The definition also included stories of a loss of satisfaction or a negative attitude towards the job stemming from a lack of responsibility" (p.47-48).
3	Iverson and Maguire (2000, p. 814)	"Responsibility is defined as the degree to which an individual has influence over his or her job".

*Definition used for this study

This study used the definition taken from Herzberg et al.'s (1959). Herzberg et al. (1959) defined responsibility as “factors relating to responsibility and authority which includes those sequences of events in which the person speaking reported that he derived satisfaction from being given responsibility for his own work or for the work of others or being given new responsibility. The definition also included stories of a loss of satisfaction or a negative attitude towards the job stemming from a lack of responsibility” (p.47-48).

2.2.5 Opportunities for Advancement

Ayob and Yaakub (1999) stated that research exposure enhances the credibility of university lecturers and promotion will depend on their research and publication. As such, lecturers are motivated by their advancement opportunities as it is part of their job content; subsequently it is a pulling factor to stay within the organisation. In the context of higher education, a lecturer's opportunity for advancement to advance from lecturer, senior lecturer, assistant professor, associate professor and finally professor at their existing university is important in their academic career as it shows the credibility of their academic work, hence opportunity for advancement is an intrinsic motivation. Authors have defined opportunities for advancement similarly as the possibility of change in status/ rank/position in the organisation where one is working (Castilo & Cano, 2004; Hassan, 2014; Herzberg et al., 1959; Iverson & Maguire, 2000; Martin, 1979; Price & Mueller, 1981). The list of definitions for opportunities for advancement can be seen in

Table 2.5 which have been taken from the literature within the higher education sector.

Table 2.5: List of Definitions for Opportunities for Advancement

No	Source	Definition
1.	Castilo and Cano (2004, p. 66), Frugar (2007, p. 120)	“Opportunities for advancement as the designation of an actual change in the job status”.
2	Hassan (2014, p. 284)	“Advancement opportunities within the organisation improves job satisfaction and reduces turnover intention”.
3.	*Herzberg et al. (1959, p.46)	"The possibility of changes in the status or position of the person in the company. In situations in which an individual transferred from one part of the company to another without any change in status but with increased opportunities for responsible work, the change was considered an increase in responsibility and not advancement (p.46).
4	Martin (1979, p. 313)	“The degree of movement between different status levels in an organisation”.
5	Price and Mueller (1981, p. 545)	“Opportunities for advancement as the amount of potential movement from lower to higher status strata within an organisation”.

*Definition used for this study

For this study, the definition for opportunities for advancement was taken from Herzberg et al. (1959). As mentioned previously, this study has used the definition taken from Herzberg et al.'s (1959) Motivation-Hygiene due to its wide acceptance in job satisfaction and turnover studies. Herzberg et al.'s (1959) defined opportunities for advancement as “the possibility of changes in the status or position of the person in the company. In situations in which an individual transferred from one part of the company to another without any change in status but with increased opportunities for responsible work, the change was considered an increase in responsibility and not advancement (p.46).

2.2.6 Opportunities for Growth

Academics in universities join the teaching profession to enjoy creative satisfaction from continual growth from both teaching and research. In concordance with the Eleventh Malaysia Plan (2016-2020), to improve the growth opportunities for lecturers, MOHE have encouraged universities to develop strategic collaborations with international research institutions and foreign universities to enhance research & development activities, especially in new emerging technologies, by implementing attachment programmes to enable lecturers to share knowledge, explore new ideas to raise their research quality and promote the exchange of faculty members. Opportunities for growth in the context of higher education is the growth attained by a lecturer from increased

responsibilities in education, opportunities to grow professionally by acquiring or enhancing skills through education, professional conferences, workshops, seminars and other professional activities.

Wood (1973) and Wood (1976) defined opportunities for growth as the likelihood that an employee is able to enhance in his own skills in his career. However Herzberg et al. (1959) and, Ng'ethe et al. (2012) have defined it even further by not only mentioning that the individual is able to progress in his or her own skill but to correct deficiencies in the employees' performance and provide abilities that the organisation can invest in. The list of definitions for opportunities for growth taken from literature within the higher education sector can be seen in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6: List of Definitions for Opportunities for Growth

No	Source	Definition
.	*Herzberg et al. (1959, p.45-46)	"The possibility of changes in his situation involving objective evidences that the possibilities for his growth were now increased or decreased. An example of this is a change in status that officially includes the likelihood that the respondent would be able to rise in a company, or the converse. It also includes the likelihood that the individual would be able to move onwards and upward within his organization but also a situation in which he is able to advance in his own skills and in his profession. This category includes stories in which a new element in the situation made it possible for the respondent to learn new skills or to acquire a new profession (p.45-46).
2	Ng'ethe et al. (2012, p. 2015)	"Growth opportunities are defined as possibilities that training and development will be provided to correct deficiencies in an employees' performance or to provide abilities that the organisation can invest in".
3.	Wood (1973, p. 7) and Wood (1976)	"Opportunities for growth is defined as the likelihood that an individual is able to advance his own skills in his profession".

*Definition used for this study

For this study, the definition of opportunities for growth was taken from Herzberg et al.'s (1959) Motivation-Hygiene theory. Herzberg et al.'s (1959) defined opportunities for growth as “the possibility of changes in his situation involving objective evidences that the possibilities for his growth were now increased or decreased. An example of this is a change in status that officially includes the likelihood that the respondent would be able to rise in a company, or the converse. It also includes the likelihood that the individual would be able to move onwards and upward within his organization but also a situation in which he is able to advance in his own skills and in his profession. This category included stories in which a new element in the situation made it possible for the respondent to learn new skills or to acquire a new profession (p.45-46).

2.2.7 Role Conflict

Jackson and Schuler (1985) stated that since the publication of Kahn et al. (1964) organisation stress studies in role conflict and role ambiguity, over 90 studies were published within two decades. According to Rizzo et al. (1970), when the behaviour of an individual is inconsistent, a kind of role conflict will be experienced by the individual which may result in job dissatisfaction. Furthermore, Murray and Murray (1998) stated that individuals that experience role conflict often express job dissatisfaction; role conflict according to research has shown to be positively related to turnover.

Kahn et al. (1964) stated that there are several types of role conflicts; intra-sender conflict occurs when messages sent from a single member of the role set are incompatible with their position; inter-sender conflict results from pressures of one role sender being in opposition to one or more other senders. Inter-role conflict occurs when the role pressure associated with membership in one organisation is in conflict with pressures stemming from membership in other groups. Other types of conflict are generated directly by a combination of sent pressures and internal forces such as person-role conflict that develops when requirements violate one's values. In the context of higher education, role conflict occurs when a lecturer's work in teaching, academic administration and research and development are in conflict due to time and work deadlines, inadequate resources and/or incompatible request from two or more people in the faculty.

Biddle (1986) and Kahn et al. (1964) have defined role conflict as two or more work events happening simultaneously making it difficult for the employee to determine which one should be given priority. However Murray and Murray (1998), Katz and Kahn (1978) and Rizzo et al. (1970) have further mentioned that the role conflict between two or more tasks may be due to several factors such as the lack of agreement and coordination between the boss and the employee and also conflict between the role perception and roles within the organisation structure, standards and working environment. The following Table 2.7 shows the list of definitions for role conflict.

Table 2.7: List of Definitions for Role Conflict

No	Source	Definition
1.	Biddle (1986)	"The concurrent appearance of two or more incompatible expectations for the behaviour of a person" (p. 82).
2.	Katz and Kahn (1978)	"The "inadequate role sending, lack of agreement or coordination among role senders which produces a pattern of sent expectations which contains logical incompatibilities or which takes inadequate account of the needs and abilities of the focal person" (p. 21).
3.	*Kahn et al. (1964, p.19)	"The simultaneous occurrence of two or more sets of pressures such that compliance with one would make it more difficult to comply with another" (p. 19).
4.	Murray and Murray (1998, p. 45)	"An individual's duties that appear to be inconsistent or in conflict with their self-perception of their role or roles within the organisation structure".
5.	Rizzo et al. (1970, p. 155)	"The dimensions of congruency-incongruency or compatibility-incompatibility in the requirements of the role, where congruency or compatibility is judged relative to a set of standards or conditions which impinge upon role performance".

*Definition used for this study

For this study the definition was taken from Kahn et al. (1964) whereby role conflict is defined as “the simultaneous occurrence of two or more sets of pressures such that compliance with one would make it more difficult to comply with another” (p. 19).

2.2.8 Role Ambiguity

Katz and Kahn (1978) mentioned that role ambiguity occurs when the set of expected behaviours expected for a role are unclear. Role ambiguity has been associated with a decrease in overall job satisfaction, job stress and turnover (Hartenian, Hadaway, & Badovick, 1994; Moore, 2000; Schulz & Alud, 2006). Past research has shown that role ambiguity has also been found to have a clear association with low job satisfaction (Kahn et al., 1964; Netemeyer, Johnston & Burton, 1990; Rizzo et al., 1970; Keller, 1975) and increases the intention to leave (Netemeyer, et al.1990). In the context of higher education, role ambiguity occurs when there is lack of clarity on the expectations, responsibilities and the extent of authority that a lecturer has in the academic work of teaching, academic administration and research publication.

Literature has defined role ambiguity as uncertainty on the authority, lack of information, knowledge and responsibilities about the job; hence this uncertainty will hinder the employee to perform his/her job (Alexander, Lichtenstein, Hyun, & Ulman, 1998; Kahn et al., 1964; Murray & Murray, 1998; Rizzo et al., 1970).

Katz and Kahn (1978) define role ambiguity as the insufficient role sending or the lack of conformity and organisation among role senders and also the possibility of not taking into account the abilities of the employee who is performing the assigned job. The list of definitions for role ambiguity from past literature is shown in Table 2.8.

Table 2.8: List of Definitions for Role Ambiguity

No	Source	Definition
1.	Alexander, Lichtenstein, Hyun, and Ulman (1998, p.415)	“The degree to which information about the task and responsibilities with the job are conveyed by the organisation to its members”.
2.	Katz and Kahn (1978)	“The inadequate role sending, lack of agreement or coordination among role senders which produces a pattern of sent expectations which contains logical incompatibilities or which takes inadequate account of the needs and abilities of the focal person" (p. 21).
3.	*Kahn et al. (1964, p. 25)	"The lack of necessary information available to a given organisational position; resulting in coping behaviour by the role incumbent, which may take the form of attempts to solve the problem to avoid stress, or to use defensive mechanisms which distort the reality of the situation" (p.25).

Table 2.8 Continued

No	Source	Definition
4.	Murray and Murray (1998, p.45)	“An individual’s uncertainty about the functional boundaries of the organisational role”.
5.	Rizzo et al. (1970, p. 145)	“The inexistence or lack of clarity on authority or knowledge that would allow individuals to perform the assigned jobs”.

*Definition used for this study

For this study, the definition was taken from Kahn et al. (1964) whereby role ambiguity is defined as "the lack of necessary information available to a given organisational position; resulting in coping behaviour by the role incumbent, which may take the form of attempts to solve the problem to avoid stress, or to use defensive mechanisms which distort the reality of the situation" (p.25).

2.2.9 Role Overload

Role overload is conceptually different from role conflict and role ambiguity (Peiro et al., 2001). Thiagarajan, Chakrabarty, and Taylor (2006) argued that although there is an apparent overlap conceptually, role overload and role conflict are distinct role stressors. Kahn et al. (1964), mentioned that role overload occurs

as a result of a conflict of priorities whereby the focal person must decide which pressure to comply with and which to hold off. Also, Jones et al. (2007) stated that role overload is a form of individual role conflict, a perception that role demands are overwhelming relative to available capabilities and resources. Furthermore, studies has revealed that role overload was related to job dissatisfaction, fatigue, tensions and resulted in turnover (Beehr et al., 1976; Jensen, Patel, & Messersmith, 2013; Jones et al., 2007; Parasuraman & Alutton, 1984; Idris, 2010). In the context of higher education, role overload occurs when more time and energy is needed to complete a work deadline given to a lecturer which comprises of teaching, research and publication, to the point that a lecturer may not have enough time to spend with family and friends.

Having said that, literature has provided a concise definition of role overload as being too much work to do within the limited time available (Beehr et al., 1976; Kahn et al., 1964; Rizzo et al., 1970; Schaubroeck, Cotton, & Jennings, 1989; Voydanoff, 2002) Katz and Kahn (1978) further added that not only is the work too much to do in the time available but also the demands exceeds the abilities of the employee. The list of definitions for role overload can be seen in Table 2.9.

Table 2.9: List of Definitions for Role Overload

No	Source	Definition
1.	Beehr et al. (1976, p. 41)	“Having too much work to do in the time available”.
2.	Katz and Kahn (1978, p. 21)	“When too much is expected of an individual with the time available or when demands exceed capabilities. Role overload might also occur when an individual receives two or more expectations from role senders and the individual perceives the role expectations are too great to complete sufficiently or comfortably”.
3.	*Kahn et al. (1964,p.20)	“A kind of inter-sender conflict in which various role senders may hold quite legitimate expectations that a person performs a wide variety of tasks, all of which are mutually compatible in the abstract, but may be virtually impossible for the focal person to complete all of them in the given time limit” (p. 20).

Table 2.9 Continued

No	Source	Definition
4.	Rizzo et al. (1970, p. 155)	“The conflict between several roles for the same person required are different or incompatible; hence this causes changes in the person’s behaviour”.
5.	Schaubroeck, Cotton, and Jennings (1989, p 35)	“Role overload is defined as a construct which represents the volume of demand that comprises of the individual’s role”.
6.	Voydanoff (2002)	"The total demands on time and energy associated with the prescribed activities of multiples roles that are too great to perform adequately or comfortably" (p.147).

*Definition used for this study

For this research, role overload was defined using Kahn et al. (1964) as “a kind of inter-sender conflict in which various role senders may hold quite legitimate expectations that a person performs a wide variety of tasks, all of which are mutually compatible in the abstract, but may be virtually impossible for the focal person to complete in the given time limit (p. 20).

2.2.10 Job Opportunity

According to Dardar, Jusoh, and Ramli (2012) job opportunities could exist when employees feel that other employers can better address their needs as employees. As such, Mobley et al. (1979) stated that the variable job opportunities are crucial

in the turnover process. Furthermore, Price (2000) mentioned that an indirect negative impact of job opportunity on turnover through job satisfaction may exist. In the context of higher education, job opportunity refers to the possibility of a lecturer attaining good academic job outside of their current university. Job opportunities refer to the employees' beliefs that they can find a comparable job in another organization (Thatcher, Stepina, & Boyle, 2002). Based on the past research on job opportunity and mobility of employees, job opportunity is defined as the obtainability of substitute work in another organization (Iverson & Maquire, 2000; Price, 2001; Price & Mueller, 1981). The list of definitions for job opportunity is shown in Table 2.10.

Table 2.10: List of Definitions for Job Opportunity

No	Source	Definition
1.	Iverson and Maquire (2000 ,p.814)	"The availability of alternative jobs outside the organization".
2.	*Price (2001, p. 601)	"The availability of alternative jobs in the environment and is the type of labour market variable emphasized by economist" (p. 601).
3.	Price and Mueller (1981)	"The availability of alternative jobs in the organization's environment" (p. 545).
4	Thatcher, Stepina, and Boyle (2002, p. 231)	"Job opportunities refer to the employees' beliefs that they can find a comparable job in another organization".

*Definition used for this study

The definition for job opportunity in this study was taken from Price (2001) and is defined as “the availability of alternative jobs in the environment and is the type of labour market variable emphasized by economist” (p. 601).

2.2.11 Compensation

Compensation is an important factor that may affect both job satisfaction and turnover intention. Employees’ job satisfaction and turnover intention may be affected when employees make comparisons with the compensation received in the external environment, (Taylor, 2002). In the context of higher education, a lecturer would be attracted to better compensation packages available in other universities in terms of the method used to determine the salary, the range of salaries, increment, bonus, fringe benefits and incentives.

Gagne and Forest (2008) and Moore and Amey (1993) defined compensation as being monetary and non-monetary compensation received by an employee in an organisation. However the definition of compensation according to Mondy and Mondy (2014) is “ the total of all rewards provided to employees in return for their services for the purpose of attracting, retaining and motivating employees” (p.248). Table 2.11 shows the list of definitions for compensation.

Table 2.11: List of Definitions for Compensation

No	Source	Definition
1.	Gagne and Forest (2008, p.225)	“Includes monetary compensation such as base pay, pay adjustments, incentives and non-monetary rewards like fringe benefits some of which are legally required; examples such as disability and unemployment insurance and some which are discretionary; such as employee assistance programmes, income protection and wellness programmes”.
2.	*Mondy and Mondy (2014,p. 248)	“The total of all rewards provided to employees in return for their services for the purpose of attracting, retaining and motivating employees” (p.248).
3	Moore and Amey (1993)	“Salary plus other monetary payments or quasi monetary payments such as fringe benefits” (p. 18).

*Definition used for this study

As such, for this study the definition for compensation was taken from Mondy and Mondy (2014) as “salary plus other monetary payments or quasi monetary payments such as fringe benefits” (p. 18).

2.2.12 Working Location

When comparisons are made on the level of attractiveness of a working location of other universities with one's current working location, lecturers job satisfaction (Blood & Hulin, 1967; Gruneberg, Startup, & Tapsfields, 1974) and turnover intention may be affected (Ali Shah et al., 2010; Callow & McGee, 1958; Ingersoll, 2011; Terkla & Wright, 1986). In the context of higher education, lecturers are attracted to a better working location when a lecturer makes a comparison between their home and the location of another university.

Through the review of literature on both job satisfaction and turnover intention, it was found that working location was defined as the geographical location of an organisation rather than an attraction factor (Hunt, Eaton, & Reinstein, 2009; Ingersoll, 2001; Kee, 2011; Mahony, Mondello, Hums, & Judd, 2006). These definitions can be seen in Table 2.12.

Table 2.12: List of Definitions for Working Location

No	Source	Definition
1.	Hunt, Eaton, and Reinstein (2009, p.157)	"Location of the university in the country".
2.	Ingersoll (2001, p.500)	"Location of a school as either being in a rural or urban area".
3.	Kee (2011)	"The geographical location of an organisation" (p.3).

Table 2.12 Continued

No	Source	Definition
4	Mahony et al. (2006, 414)	“The position of the university with regards to the town or city, part of the country and its impact on the employees’ family”.
5	*Self Developed	The attraction to a working location when comparisons are made between home of stay and other universities in terms of accessibility of transportation, time taken commuting, distance, traffic, alternative commuting routes and also the parking facilities of other universities.

*Definition used for this study

Due to the lack of literature defining working location as an attraction factor to lecturers in terms of convenience, a definition was self-developed for this study. Thus, working location is defined as the attraction to a working location when comparisons are made between home of stay and other universities in terms of accessibility of transportation, time taken commuting, distance, traffic, alternative commuting routes and also the parking facilities of other universities.

2.2.13 University Image

Image is a perception of the identity of the organization from the outside seen through externally produced symbols and interpretations made about the company by people outside the organization (Mignonac, Herrbach, & Guerrero, 2004; Whelten & Mackey, 2002). The image of a university has an affect on lecturers’ academic status. As such, one of the factors that affect lecturers’ job satisfaction

and turnover intention is the opportunities to join a more prestigious university (Mckenna & Sikula, 1981, Wenzel & Hollenshead, 1998). Image is defined by Duarte, Alves, and Raposo (2010) as the “simplification of the combinations of a large number of associations and pieces of information connected to an object, person, organisation or place” (p.23). University image on the other hand has been defined as the reputation of the university which is seen through the messages between the organisation and outsiders (Herrbach, Mignonac, & Gatignon, 2006; Whelton & Mackey, 2002). In the context of higher education, a lecturer may be attracted to a better university image when another university has better teaching quality and standards, better facilities, better research funding and has better academic reputation in teaching and research. The list of definitions for university image is shown in Table 2.13.

Table 2.13: List of Definitions for University Image

No	Source	Definition
1.	Herrbach, Mignonac, and Gatignon, (2006, p.1390); Whelten & Mackey, (2002, p.393)	“The reputation of the university which is seen through the messages between the organisation and outsiders”.
2	*Duarte et al. (2010, p. 23)	“The sum of all beliefs that an individual has towards the university” (p.23).

*Definition used for this study.

For this research, the definition of university image was taken from Duarte et al. (2010) defined as the sum of all beliefs that an individual has towards the university” (p.23).

2.2.14 Job Satisfaction

According to Elfering, Odoni, & Meier (2015) job satisfaction is still a central construct in work design and organisation change. Previous studies have found a negative significant relationship between employee job satisfaction and turnover intention (Cotton & Turtle, 1986; Daly & Dee, 2006; Hom et al., 2016; Locke, 1976; Mobley, 1977; Mobley et al., 1978; Mowday et al., 1982; Zhang & Feng, 2011). This is because job satisfaction reflects how well an organisation member

has adjusted career aspirations to the internal factors, hence a satisfied faculty member should be successful and the successful faculty member should be satisfied (Cytrynbaun & Crities, 1989; Moore & Gardner, 1992). The assessment of job satisfaction comprises of an integrated judgement of an individual's job and therefore the affective state and cognitive judgement based on everyday work experiences may be taken into account concurrently (Ho & Au, 2006). In the context of higher education, a lecturer has job satisfaction when there is enjoyment in the day to day work that a lecturer does which comprises of teaching, academic administration and research and development.

Various literature has defined job satisfaction as an affective response from an employee's job (Spector, 1986; Wood, 1973, Woor 1976). Price and Mueller (1981) on the other hand have defined job satisfaction as the degree to which individuals like their jobs. However Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience" (p. 1300). Table 2.14 shows the list of definitions for job satisfaction.

Table 2.14: List of Definitions for Job Satisfaction

No	Source	Definition
1.	* Locke (1976, p. 1300)	“A pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experience” (p. 1300).
2.	Price and Mueller (1981, p. 545)	“The degree to which individuals like their jobs”.
3.	Spector, (1986, p. 693)	“An affective response that an organisational member has toward his or her job and results from an employee’s comparison of actual outcomes with those that are expected”.
4	Wood (1973, p.7) and Wood (1976)	“The conditions of gratification with ones work and its environment, hence symbolising a positive attitude”.

*Definition used for this study.

For this research, the definition for job satisfaction was taken from Locke (1976) and is defined as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experience” (p. 1300).

2.2.15 Turnover Intention

To study the causes of turnover, it would be difficult to locate staff that have left the organisation; hence, turnover intention may be a good proxy to actual turnover. Furthermore, empirical evidence on turnover has revealed that turnover

intention is the best immediate predictor of actual turnover behaviour (Bannister & Griffeth, 1986; Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1991; Lee & Mowday 1987; Micheals & Spector 1982; Mobley, 1977; Mobley et al., 1978; Price, 2001; Steers & Mowday, 1981).

Mobley (1982) stated that, “turnover is the act of leaving an organisation, whereby, it is a time specific event marked by physical separation from the organization” (p.111). Turnover intention represents the last sequence of the withdrawal cognition whereby an employee may consider quitting and may begin searching for an alternative employment (Mobley, 1977).

Literature has defined turnover intention as an employee’s estimated probability of leaving the organisation at some point in the near future (Brough & Frame, 2004). However Mobley et al.’s (1978) defined turnover intention as a result of psychological response to specific organisational conditions which result to a decrease in job satisfaction, thoughts of quitting, thoughts of searching for a substitute job, intention to quit once’s job and the finally the actual turnover. In the context of higher education, a lecturer has turnover intention, when a lecturer is unhappy with their academic job of teaching, academic administration and research publication due to internal and external factors in the organization, hence the lecturer has desire to leave to another university. Table 2.15 shows the list of definitions for turnover intention.

Table 2.15: List of Definitions for Turnover Intention

No	Source	Definition
1	Brough and Frame, (2004, p.8)	“An employee’s estimated probability of leaving the organisation at some point in the near future”.
2	Mobley et al.’s (1978, p.410)	“A psychological response to specific organisational conditions which result in low job satisfaction, thinking of quitting, intention to search for an alternative job, intention to quit and the actual of turnover”
3	*Tett & Meyer (1993, p.259)	“An employee’s conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organisation within a certain time interval”.

*Definition used for this study

For this research, turnover intention was defined as an employee’s conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organisation within a certain time interval (Tett & Meyer 1993).

Table 2.16 below represents the definitions of all variables in this study

Table 2.16: Definitions of all Variables in this Study

No	Construct	Source	Definition
Intrinsic Motivational Factors as the Internal Pull Factors			
1.	Achievement	Herzberg et al. (1959, p.45)	“Achievement includes its opposite, failure and the absence of achievement. Stories involving some specifically mentioned success were put into this category and these included the following: successful completion of a job, solutions to problems, vindication, and seeing the results of one’s work” (p.45).
2.	Recognition	Herzberg et al. (1959, p. 44-.45)	“Some act of recognition to the person speaking to us. The source could be almost anyone: a supervisor, some other individual in management, the management as an impersonal force, a client, a peer, a professional colleague, or the general public. Some act of notice, praise or blame was involved. Also includes “negative recognition” that is acts of criticism and blame”.

Table 2.16 Continued

No	Construct	Source	Definition
3	The Work Itself	Herzberg et al. (1959, p.48)	"The actual doing of the job or the tasks of the job as a source of good or bad feelings about it. Thus the jobs can be routine or varied, creative or stultifying (dull), overly easy or overly difficult. The duties of a position can include an opportunity to carry through an entire operation or they can be restricted to one minute aspect of it".
4.	Responsibility	Herzberg et al. (1959, p. 47-.48)	"Factors relating to responsibility and authority which includes those sequences of events in which the person speaking reported that he derived satisfaction from being given responsibility for his own work or for the work of others or being given new responsibility. It also includes stories in which there was a loss of satisfaction or a negative attitude towards the job stemming from a lack of responsibility".

Table 2.16 Continued

No	Construct	Source	Definition
5.	Opportunities for Advancement	Herzberg, et al. (1959, p. 46)	"The possibility of changes in the status or position of the person in the company. In situations in which an individual transferred from one part of the company to another without any change in status but with increased opportunities for responsible work, the change was considered an increase in responsibility and not advancement.
6.	Opportunities for Growth	Herzberg et al. (1959, p. 45-46)	"The possibility of changes in his situation involving objective evidences that the possibilities for his growth were now increased or decreased. An example of this is a change in status that officially includes the likelihood that the respondent would be able to rise in a company, or the converse. It also includes the likelihood that the individual would be able to move onwards and upward within his organization but also a situation in which he is able to advance in his own skills and in his profession. This category includes stories in which a new element in the situation made it possible for the respondent to learn new skills or to acquire a new profession.

Table 2.16 Continued

No	Construct	Source	Definition
Role Stress Factors as the Internal Push Factor			
7.	Role Conflict	Kahn et al. (1964, p. 19)	"The simultaneous occurrence of two or more sets of pressures such that compliance with one would make it more difficult compliance with another".
8.	Role Ambiguity	Kahn et al. (1964, p. 25)	"The lack of necessary information available to a given organisational position; resulting in coping behaviour by the role incumbent, which may take the form of attempts to solve the problem to avoid stress, or to use defensive mechanisms which distort the reality of the situation".
9.	Role Overload	Kahn et al. (1964, p. 20)	"A kind of inter-sender conflict in which various role senders may hold quite legitimate expectations that a person performs a wide variety of task, all of which are mutually compatible in the abstract, but may be virtually impossible for the focal person to complete all of them in the given time limits".

Table 2.16 Continued

No	Construct	Source	Definition
Attractive Enviornment Factor as the External Pull Factors			
10.	Job Opportunity	Price (2001, p. 601)	"The availability of alternative jobs in environment and is the type of labour market variable emphasized by economist".
11.	Compensation	Mondy and Mondy (2014, p. 248)	"The total of all rewards provided to employees in return for their services for the purpose of attracting, retaining and motivating employees".
12.	Working location	Self Developed	The attraction to a working location when comparisons are made between home of stay and other universities in terms of accessibility of transportation, time taken commuting, distance, traffic, alternative commuting routes and also the parking facilities of other universities.
13.	University Image	Duarte et al. (2010, p. 23)	"The sum of all beliefs that an individual has towards the university".
Intervening Variable			
14.	Job Satisfaction	Locke (1976, p. 1300)	"A pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience".

Table 2.16 Continued

No	Construct	Source	Definition
Dependent Variable			
15.	Turnover Intention	(Tett & Meyer 1993, p.259).	“An employee’s conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organisation within a certain time interval”.

2.2.16 Age

Research had found that the age of an employee plays a significant role in both job satisfaction and turnover intention (Choong et al., 2013; Oshagbemi, 2000; Sharma & Jyoti, 2006; Siassi, Crocetti, & Spiro, 1975). In the field of nursing, Eberhardt, Pooyan, and Moser (1995) found that younger nurses were more likely than older nurses to think of quitting when the level of job satisfaction was low. Furthermore, Tschopp, Grote, & Köppel (2015) found that age-related life stage preference and age-independent preferences moderated the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover.

According to Price (1995), the age of a person is expressed in a chronological manner. In job satisfaction and turnover intention studies, age has been defined by categorising an employee as being younger or older (Robbins & Judge, 2014). Sadeghi et al. reported that when a lecturers' age reaches the age of more than 56 years, they become more satisfied. For this study the definition for age is taken

from Yapa, Rathnayake, Senanayake, & Premakumara (2014) whereby younger lecturers are those aged 40 years old and below, while the definition for older or matured lecturers are lecturers' aged 41 years and above.

2.2.17 Gender

Research had found that gender of an employee plays a significant role in both job satisfaction and turnover intention (Choong et al., 2013; Miller & Wheeler, 1992; Oshagbemi, 1999; Park, 1992; Sharma & Jyoti, 2006). McNeilly and Goldsmith (1991) found that men and women leave their current sales job position because of dissatisfaction with different aspects of the job. However, Hundera (2014) found that relationship between overall job satisfaction and turnover intention was stronger among female lecturers as compared to male lecturers.

Literature in job satisfaction and turnover studies in higher education have defined gender as being male or female (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Miao & Kim, 2009). The World Health Organisation (WHO) defines gender as the socially constructed characteristics of women and men (WHO, 2017). Gender differences regarding attitude, behaviour and outcome have received considerable attention over the last decade (Miao & Kim, 2009). Studies regarding gender have heightened over the years as more women entered the workforce and were found to respond to working conditions such as opportunities for promotion, stress, job satisfaction and intention to leave differently as compared to men

(Wickramasinghe, 2007). Furthermore, Smart (1990) found that working conditions affected women as they tend to be underrepresented in leadership and governance positions.

The next section discusses the hypothesised relationships of the pull and push factors on lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention, as well as the moderating effect of age and gender on the relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention.

2.3 The Relationships between Internal Pull Factors and Job Satisfaction

Pull factors are factors that entice staff to stay with their present organisation. These pull factors are internal to the organisation and can increase job satisfaction (Atchley, 1996). Scanlan, Still, Stewart, & Croaker (2010) stated that internal pull factors are those that keep a person in their position due to positive job attributes such as job satisfaction. Flowers & Hughes's (1973) study on the relationship between employee satisfaction and environmental factors discusses the factors relevant to an individual's decision to stay or leave by classifying them as internal pull factors. According to the authors, internal pull factors are motivational factors encompassing achievement, advancement, recognition, responsibility, the work itself and growth; and these factors may affect an employee's job satisfaction.

The review of literature within the higher education sector have found that internal pull factors which are intrinsic motivational factors have been recognised as significant predictors to job satisfaction (Castillo & Cano, 2004; Daly & Dee, 2006; Dave & Praveen, 2009; Flowers & Hugh, 1973; Ghenghesh, 2013; Hagos & Abrha, 2015; Hong & Kaur, 2008; Olusegun, 2012; Jeswani et al., 2009; Lahey & Vihtelic, 2000; Munaf, 2008; Nanda & Krishna, 2013; Nazim et al., 2010; Paul & Phua, 2011; Sadeghi et al., 2012; Selesho & Naile, 2014; Shah & Jumani, 2015, Sharma & Jyoti, 2009; Shakeel & But, 2015; Stevens, 2005; Wood, 1973; Wood, 1976). The following sections cover the literature review on the association between each of the intrinsic motivational factors and job satisfaction.

2.3.1 The Relationship between Achievement and Job satisfaction

Past research has found a significant relationship between achievement and job satisfaction (Ahuja & Gautam, 2012; Blezek, 1987; Bowen & Radhakrishna, 2001; Castillo & Cano, 2004; Hagos & Abrha, 2015; Lahey & Vihtelic, 2000; Locke, Fitzpatrick & White, 1983; Munaf, 2008; Wood, 1973). Recent studies from Ahuja and Gautam (2012) on 56 Information Technology Data Centers across India involving 145 respondents found that achievement was an important factor affecting employee satisfaction. Within the higher education sector, Locke et al.'s (1983) study comprising of 427 universities and 71 community colleges, found that one of the most important factors that was related to job satisfaction was achievement of the lecturers in their work. With regard to finance faculties,

Lahey and Vihtelic's (2000) study on job satisfaction in the United States involving 305 respondents from 50 states revealed that finance professors are satisfied with the feeling of accomplishment from teaching.

The study by Munaf (2008) found that there was a relationship between achievement and job satisfaction of teaching faculties of selected private and public HEIs in Pakistan and Malaysia. Furthermore, the results of the study involving 60 teaching faculties from both Pakistan and Malaysia found that the sense of achievement in teaching faculties among private and public universities in Malaysia was higher than that of Pakistan. Also, it was found that Malaysian public sector faculties not only perform better than private sector faculties but they were more satisfied with their teaching profession. Research within the Higher education by Hagos and Abrha (2015) on factors affecting job satisfaction of 60 university lecturers in Ethiopia found that achievement was the factor most motivating to the faculty and that this factor contributed to their job satisfaction. As such, based on the review of literature, achievement appears to have a positive association with lecturers' job satisfaction (Ahuja & Gautam, 2012; Hagos & Abrha, 2015; Munaf, 2008; Lahey & Vihtelic, 2000; Locke, Fitzpatrick & White, 1983).

2.3.2 The Relationship between Recognition and Job Satisfaction

Literature has revealed that recognition was found to be positively related to job satisfaction; consistent with the findings of Herzberg et al. (1959) (Bakar, Mohamad, & Banu, 2015; Bowen & Radhakrishna, 2001; Castillo & Cano, 2004; Hagedorn, 2000; Kosi et al., 2015; Ng'ethe et al., 2012; Olsen, Maple, & Stage, 1995; Pham, 2017; Sadeghi et al., 2012; Sharma & Jyoti, 2009, Wright & Custer, 1998).

Wright and Custer (1998) found that recognition had a significant relationship with teachers' perceived esteem which encompasses pride in profession, student respect, principal recognition, programme respect, community support and professional respect with job satisfaction. According to Hagedorn's (2000) study on faculty job satisfaction using Herzberg et al.'s (1959) two factor theory, the sources of job satisfaction among the faculty were quality of work, achievement, recognition, academic freedom, professional development, responsibility and advancement.

Cano and Miller's (1992) study on 414 agricultural lecturers from the University of Ohio found that there was a significant relationship between recognition and job satisfaction. Olsen, Maple, and Stage's (1995) study on a large public research university in the United States found that among women and minority faculty members, perceived recognition and institutional support positively impacted overall job satisfaction.

In India, Sharma and Jyoti's (2009) study on job satisfaction involving 150 university lecturers from The University of Jammu with a response rate of 80% found that recognition is significantly related to job satisfaction of academics. Kosi et al's. (2015) study using 203 teachers in selected schools in Ghana found that recognition is the main motivator of teachers and that there is a significant impact with job satisfaction. In Malaysia, Bakar, Mohamad, and Banu's (2015) research involving 100 female lecturers from five HEIs in Malaysia found that recognition was significant to female lecturers' job satisfaction. Hence, there appears to be a positive relationship between recognition and lecturers' job satisfaction within the higher education sector. Latest research within the higher education by Pham (2017) found that recognition had an influential relationship with lecturers' job satisfaction among 167 lecturers from Universities in Vietnam (Bakar et al., 2015; Cano & Miller, 1992; Kosi et al., 2015; Pham, 2017; Sharma & Jyoti, 2009).

2.3.3 The Relationship between the Work Itself and Job Satisfaction

Literature has revealed that the work itself has been found to be positively related to job satisfaction consistent with the findings of Herzberg et al. (1959) (Abdullah Hashim & Mahmood, 2011; Gilman, Peake, & Parr, 2012; Hong, Lim, Tan, & Abang Othman, 2011; Idris & Romle, 2015; Mohd Noor & Hassan, 2014; Nanda & Krishna, 2013; Oshagbemi, 2000; Paul & Phua, 2011; Peake & Parr, 2012;

Rosser, 2005; Ssesanga & Garrett, 2005; Sharma & Jyoti, 2009; Stevens, 2005). Faculty satisfaction with teaching and research has been consistently found to be very important to overall job satisfaction. Lecturers enjoy working with their students and they achieve satisfaction from the various student interactions and experiences especially through the numerous hours spent nurturing and mentoring their students (Rosser, 2005). Boyer, Altbach, and Whitelaw's (1994) study on professors in 14 countries found that professors reported a high sense of job satisfaction with courses taught. While, Diener's (1985) study of lecturers' job satisfaction found that nine out of 10 faculties declared that interaction with students and having the chance play a role and make an impact in their students' lives is one of the greatest joys of being a lecturer.

Steven's (2005) study on job satisfaction among English academics found that staff in five star departments tend to enjoy the work itself more than other staff. The author further stated that hours spent on the work itself-research was most satisfying to faculty members. This was similar to previous findings in the United Kingdom on lecturers' job satisfaction (Oshagbemi, 1996; Oshagbemi, 1998; Oshagbemi, 2000; Ward & Sloane, 2000).

Cano and Miller (1992) found a significant relationship between the work itself and job satisfaction among agricultural business teachers. Castillo and Cano's (2004) research on 148 faculty members from the College of Food, Agricultural and Environmental Sciences at The Ohio State University with a response rate of

86% also found that the work itself was the most motivating aspect for the faculty. Recent studies by Gilman et al. (2012) similarly found that agricultural teachers rated the work itself highest among job satisfaction indicators, while in India, Sharma and Jyoti (2009) found that the work itself had a significant relationship with the job satisfaction of academics. Nanda and Krishna's (2013) study on job satisfaction of a faculty in a university in Andhra Pradesh, India also found that the work itself was a significant determinant of job satisfaction. In Uganda, according to Ssesanga and Garrett's (2005) research using 182 usable questionnaires, with a response rate of 73% found that lecturers rated the highest satisfaction level from the work itself which involved the interest shown by students in courses taught and the autonomy they have on the content. In a study by Idris and Romle (2015), on the intrinsic factors affecting job satisfaction of 148 lecturers in Nigeria, it was found that the work itself had a positive significant relationship with lecturers job satisfaction.

In Asia, Paul and Phua's (2011) findings on job satisfaction in several business related faculties in Singapore found that the relationship with students or colleagues and the work itself were sources of satisfaction. In Malaysia, Hong et al.'s (2011) study in University Malaysia Sarawak found that lecturers demonstrated the highest level of job satisfaction for the work itself at the university, while Mohd Noor and Hassan (2014) found that lecturers at a private college in Selangor Malaysia had a significant relationship with the work itself and job satisfaction. Abdullah Hashim and Mahmood's (2011) research at two

public universities and four private universities in Malaysia involving 387 lecturers; a response rate of 36 per cent, found that Malaysian lecturers were satisfied with the work itself. Based on the review of literature within the higher education industry, it can be said that there seems to be a positive relationship between the work itself and lecturers' job satisfaction (Abdullah Hashim & Mahmood, 2011; Gilman et al., 2012; Hong et al., 2011; Idris & Romle, 2015; Mohd Noor & Hassan, 2014; Nanda & Krishna, 2013; Paul & Phua, 2011).

2.3.4 The Relationship between Responsibility and Job Satisfaction

According to Matier (1990), the amount of an individual's salary received in the current organisation might constitute as a push to leave; however the degree of autonomy or responsibility experienced in his or her position might be considered a pull to stay. According to Judhi and Hamid (2009), a lecturers' responsibility in moulding their students in both behaviour and learning can affect job satisfaction. Literature has revealed that responsibility has been found to be positively related to job satisfaction, consistent with the findings of Herzberg et al. (1959) (Abdullah Hashim & Mahmood, 2011; Cano & Miller, 1992; Castillo & Cano, 2004; Castillo et al., 1999; Hassan & Abd Rahim Romle, 2015; Idris & Romle, 2015; Lahey & Vihtelic, 2000; Paul & Phua, 2011; Saad et al., 2008; Ssesanga & Garrett, 2005).

Hassan and Abd Rahim Romle's (2015) research on 148 lecturers from a university in Gadau Nigeria, found that responsibility was positively related to job satisfaction. In Singapore, Paul and Phua's (2011) findings on job satisfaction in several business related faculties revealed that lecturers were satisfied with the responsibility given to the lecturers to conduct their work. Lahey and Vihtelic's (2000) study on finance faculty job satisfaction in the United States involving 305 respondents found that finance professors are most satisfied with the amount of responsibility exercised in their jobs. Ssesanga and Garrett's (2005) study on lecturers' satisfaction found that the level of autonomy and responsibility in courses taught was an important source of academic satisfaction. While in Nigeria, Idris and Romle's (2015) study on the intrinsic factors affecting job satisfaction of 148 lecturers found that responsibility had a positive significant relationship with lecturers' job satisfaction.

In Malaysia, Saad et al.'s (2008) study on job satisfaction in a private university in Malaysia found that lecturers were moderately satisfied with the opportunity to be independent while Abdullah Hashim and Mahmood's (2011) research at two public universities and four private universities in Malaysia involving 387 lecturers found that the third most important item that has contributed to lecturers job satisfaction, after interpersonal relationship with students and colleagues was responsibility. The authors concluded that having responsibility and being accountable for one's own work was important to lecturers. Hence it appears that responsibility has a positive relationship with lecturers' job satisfaction (Abdullah

Hashim & Mahmood, 2011; Hassan & Abd Rahim Romle, 2015; Idris & Romle, 2015; Lahey & Vihtelic, 2000; Paul & Phua, 2011; Saad et al., 2008; Ssesanga & Garrett, 2005).

2.3.5 The Relationship between Opportunities for Advancement and Job Satisfaction

Price and Mueller (1981) found that among nurses, promotional opportunities were one of relative importance and is a statistically significant to job satisfaction. Literature has revealed that opportunities for advancement has been found to be positively related to job satisfaction consistent with the findings of Herzberg et al. (1959) (Awang, Hanim Ahmad, & Mohamed Zin, 2010; Kochar, 2008; Noor & Hassan, 2014; Price & Mueller, 1981; Santhapparaj & Alam, 2005; Stevens, 2005; Umaru & Ombugus, 2017). Hassan's (2014) study on 103 technical employees in a company found that advancement opportunities within the organisation improves job satisfaction. Stevens's (2005) study on job satisfaction among/ English academics found that staffs in five star departments were satisfied with their promotion prospects at the university. In India, Kochar's (2008) study on job satisfaction among academics in India found that opportunity for advancement was the second most prominent dimension of job satisfaction among academics. In a research by Umaru and Ombugus (2017) on the determinants of job satisfaction among 167 lecturers, it was found that opportunities for advancement had a significant relationship with job satisfaction.

In Malaysia, Santhapparaj and Alam's (2005) study using 173 usable questionnaires received from three private universities in Malaysia found that one of the factors that had significant relationship to job satisfaction was promotion. In another study conducted by Awang et al. (2010) involving 320 lecturers from a public university in Kelantan, Malaysia found that promotional opportunity had a significant impact on job satisfaction. Finally, Mohd Noor and Hassan's (2014) study found that lecturers at a private college in Selangor Malaysia had a significant relationship with promotional opportunities and job satisfaction. Therefore it can be said that there could be a positive association between opportunities for advancement and lecturers' job satisfaction (Awang et al., 2010; Kochar, 2008; Mohd Noor & Hassan, 2014; Santhapparaj & Alam, 2005; Umaru & Ombugus, 2017).

2.3.6 The Relationship between Opportunities for Growth and Job Satisfaction

According to Foor and Cano (2011), personal growth and satisfaction is the best predictor of a faculty member's overall job satisfaction. Literature has revealed that opportunities for growth has been found to be positively related to job satisfaction consistent with the findings of Herzberg et al. (1959) (Alexander et al., 1998; Diener, 1985; Foor & Cano, 2011, Jeswani et al., 2009; Kochar, 2008;

Miller & Wheller, 1992; Nauman, Habib, Mukhtar, & Jamal, 2010; Samuel & Chipunza, 2009; Sharma & Jyoti, 2009; Umaru & Ombugus, 2017; Viet, 2013).

Providing growth opportunities will have a significant effect on an employees' job satisfaction (Lobburi, 2012). Diener's (1985) research on job satisfaction found that faculty was satisfied with the positive possibilities in their work for the realisation of personal satisfaction and growth and opportunities for intellectual stimulation. Foor and Cano's (2011) research on job satisfaction among selected agriculture faculties involving 323 faculty members in the United States found that personal growth facilitates a greater increase in the level of overall job satisfaction as compared to monetary resources and policy and administration job factors.

Viet (2013) found there was a positive correlation between overall job satisfaction and personal growth among faculty lecturers. In India, Kochar's (2008) study on job satisfaction among academics found that opportunity for growth is the most prominent dimension of job satisfaction among academics. Sharma and Jyoti (2009) also found that opportunities for growth had a significant relationship with the job satisfaction of academics in India. Opportunities for growth is a pull factor as long as lecturers are able to achieve their growth objectives as a lecturer in their university (Jeswani et al., 2009). Literature has thus revealed that there could be a positive association between opportunities for growth and lecturers' job satisfaction.

Based on the review of literature, the hypothesis below was developed to test the significant influence of internal pull factors on job satisfaction:

H1: Lecturers who experience a higher level in the internal pull factors (achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, opportunity for advancement and opportunity for growth) will have a higher level of job satisfaction.

2.4 The Relationships between Internal Push Factors and Job Satisfaction

Push factors are classified as internal push factors as these factors arise from the dissatisfaction resulting from the nature of the individual and the organisation's life itself (McBey & Karakowsky, 2000). Low job satisfaction has been the most common push factor which causes employees to look for another job elsewhere (Atchley, 1996; Capelli & Hamori, 2006; Ho et al., 2010; Khan & Irfan, 2014; McBey & Karakowsky, 2000; Loquercio et al., 2006; Ronra & Chaisawat, 2010).

The push theory has been studied primarily by psychologically oriented researchers who focused on job related perceptions and attitudes (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). Work stressors, low job satisfaction, frustration with ineffective management or overly bureaucratic organisation processes are common push factors (Ali Shah et al., 2010; Atchley, 1996; Cappelli & Hamori, 2006; Ho et al.,

2010; Khan & Irfan, 2014; McBey & Karakowsky, 2000; Loquercio et al., 2006, Ronra & Chaisawat, 2010). Push factors cause discomfort or an adequate amount of dissatisfaction to warrant the generation and evaluation of alternatives (Bertz, Boudreau, & Judge, 1993; Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Scanlan et al., 2009).

Review of past studies have found that internal push factors that is role stress factors have been identified as significant predictors to job satisfaction (Abbas et al., 2012; Conley & Woosley, 2002; Johnson et al., 2005; Kavitha, 2012; Kinman, 2001; Khan & Irfan, 2014; Nilufar et al., 2009; Koustelios, Theodorakis, & Goulimaris, 2004; Matier, 1990; Moore & Gardner, 1992; Panatik et al., 2012; Rajarajeswari, 2010; Usman, Ahmed, Ahmed, & Akbar, 2011). The following sections cover the literature review on the association between each of the role stress factors and job satisfaction.

2.4.1 The Relationship between Role Conflict and Job Satisfaction

Many types of role conflict are prevalent in organisations today. According to Sutton (1984), structural role conflict arises when teachers do not have the authority to do the work expected of them while inter-role conflict arises when teachers perceive that their work and non-working activities interfere with one another. Past research on role conflict has shown that it has contributed to job dissatisfaction (Boles, Wood, & Johnson, 2003; Hartenian et al., 1994; Conley & Woosley, 1999, Coverman, 1989; Daly & Dee, 2006; Kahn et al., 1964; Khan &

Irfan, 2014; Netemeyer et al, 1990; Rageb et al., 2013; Rizzo et al., 1970; Keller, 1975; Sutton, 1984; Usman et al., 2011).

Hartenian et al.'s (1994) study on 253 graduated students who started their first job, revealed that role conflict was associated with job satisfaction and role clarity. Boles et al. (2003) found that there was a significant negative relationship between a sales employee's role conflict and satisfaction with work. In the education sector, Conley and Woosley (1999) found that role conflict was related to job dissatisfaction for both primary and secondary school teachers in south western USA, while, Sutton's (1984) research on 182 public school teachers in Michigan, USA on job stress found that role conflict was significantly related to job dissatisfaction.

In the higher education sector, Daly and Dee's (2006) research in the USA involving 15 randomly selected urban universities using a sample size of 768 lecturers revealed that role conflict had a negative effect on lecturers' job satisfaction. Khan and Irfan (2014) studied the relationship of role stress factors on job satisfaction of 122 lecturers in Pakistan and found that role conflict had a negative relationship with job satisfaction. Similarly, in the study by Rageb et al. (2013) using 65 lecturers from the College of Management and Technology in Egypt, it was found that there was a significant negative relationship between role conflict and job satisfaction. Coverman (1989) found that role conflict decreases job satisfaction. However the magnitude of the effect of role conflict on job

satisfaction is greater for women than for men. Finally, Usman et al. (2011) found a negative and significant relationship between role conflict and job satisfaction among lecturers in The University of Punjab in Lahore Pakistan. As such, there could be a negative correlation between role conflict and lecturers' job satisfaction (Daly & Dee, 2006; Khan & Irfan, 2014; Rageb et al., 2013; Usman et al., 2011).

2.4.2 The Relationship between Role Ambiguity and Job Satisfaction

Past research on role ambiguity has found a clear association with low job satisfaction (Ahsan et al., 2009; Conley & Woosley, 1999, Katz & Kahn, 1978; Kahn et al., 1964; Khan & Irfan, 2014; Ngo, Foley, & Loi, 2005; Panatik et al., 2012; Usman et al., 2011; Yaacob & Choi, 2015). In fact, Katz and Kahn (1978) stated that there are two types of role ambiguity that may occur, one being objective ambiguity arising from the scarcity of information needed for role definition and role performance which is related with the task a role occupant is expected to perform. The second being subjective ambiguity which is related to the socio-psychological aspects of role performance. Katz and Kahn (1978) further stated that both kinds of ambiguity are directly related to reduce trust in associates, increasing job tension and decreasing job satisfaction. Furthermore, Rizzo et al. (1970) stated that ambiguity should increase the probability that a person will be dissatisfied with his/her role.

Boles et al. (2003) found that role ambiguity was significantly and negatively related to satisfaction among sales employees. Ngo et al.'s (2005) study in Hong Kong involving 887 professionals discovered that role ambiguity had a significant relationship with job satisfaction. On top of that, the researchers also found that role ambiguity had a direct effect on job satisfaction. In the education sector, Sutton (1984) mentioned that stress arises when teachers are provided with vague or unclear job expectations. Sutton's (1984) research on job stress among public school teachers found that role ambiguity was significantly related to job dissatisfaction. Also, Conley and Woosley (1999) found that role ambiguity was related to job dissatisfaction for both primary and secondary school teachers in south western USA. In Malaysia, Yaacob and Choi's (2015) study on 386 teachers in Malacca, Malaysia found that role ambiguity had a significant relationship with job satisfaction.

In the higher education sector, Kellogg (2006) stated that faculty role ambiguity occurs when the faculty feels that they are in the twilight zone; that ambiguous region located among teaching, community service and research. Hence, the faculty may not know where to focus their primary attention and energy. Ameen et al.'s (1995) study on accounting lecturers found that role ambiguity had a negative relationship with job satisfaction. Usman et al.'s (2011) study on stress among lecturers found that there was a negative and significant relationship between work stress and job satisfaction among lecturers at The University of Punjab, Lahore Pakistan. Khan and Irfan (2014) studied the relationship with role

stress factors on job satisfaction 122 lecturers in Pakistan and found that role ambiguity had a negative relationship with job satisfaction

In Malaysia, Panatik et al.'s (2012) study on work related stress involving 267 lecturers from three Research Public Universities in Malaysia discovered that work related stress which included role ambiguity, had a significant relationship with job satisfaction. The researchers concluded that lecturers' workload have been accompanied by a widespread increase in occupational stress.

Ahsan et al.'s (2009) study on 203 respondents, (response rate 66.67%) from a public university in the Klang Valley revealed that role ambiguity had a negative correlation with job satisfaction. The authors found that there was a significant relationship between job stress and job satisfaction. Ahsan et al. (2009) further stated that the failure of HEIs in providing healthy working environments or working environments with a minimal level of possible job stress may lead to many more problems in the near future, for example decrease in work performance. The above literature shows that there could be a negative relationship between role ambiguity and lecturers' job satisfaction (Ahsan et al., 2009; Ameen et al., 1995; Kellogg, 2006; Khan & Irfan, 2014; Panatik et al., 2012; Usman et al., 2011; Yaacob & Choi, 2015).

2.4.3 The Relationship between Role Overload and Job Satisfaction

Kahn et al. (1964) stated that role overload is a “kind of inter-sender conflict in which various role senders may hold quite legitimate expectations that a person performs a wide variety of tasks, all of which are mutually compatible in the abstract, but may be virtually impossible for the focal person to complete at the given time limits (p. 20). Role overload in teachers occurs when teachers perceive that they are expected to do too much work (Sutton, 1984). Past research on role overload revealed that it was negatively associated to job satisfaction (Ahsan et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2007; Dey, 1994; Gmelch et al., 1984; Iverson & Maguire, 2000; Jones et al., 2007; Khan & Irfan, 2014; Mamiseishvili & Rosser, 2011; Price, 2001; Ryan et al., 2012; Sutton, 1984; Yaacob & Choi, 2015).

Iverson & Maguire (2000) found a negative statistical significance between work overload and job satisfaction. Ryan et al.’s (2012) study found that role stressors could play an important role as a factor that causes job satisfaction. Chen et al.’s (2007) study on 129 specialist nurses in Taiwan found that role overload was an important predictor to job dissatisfaction. Sutton’s (1984) research on job stress among public school teachers found that role overload was significantly related to job dissatisfaction. In Malaysia role overload was found to have a significant relationship with teachers’ job satisfaction in the study by Yaacob and Choi (2015).

Workload is profound in universities as lecturers are to teach, conduct research and be involved in service and administrative functions (Mamiseishvili, & Rosser, 2011). Gmelch et al. (1984) national survey in the USA on sources of stress in lecturers found that time and resource constraints were among the top stressors and that teaching was the most stressful with their workload that comprises of research and service activities. Dey's (1994) study on dimension of faculty stress in the USA, found that reported sources of stress were from time, teaching loads, research and publishing demands and review/promotion process concerns. Khan and Irfan (2014) studied the relationship with role stress factors on job satisfaction 122 lecturers in Pakistan and found that role overload had a negative relationship with job satisfaction In Malaysia, Ahsan et al. (2009) found that work overload was a cause of work stress among lecturers at public universities in the Klang Valley. The review of literature has shown that there seems to be a negative association between role overload and lecturers' job satisfaction.

As such, to test the significant influence that internal push factors has on job satisfaction, the hypothesis below was developed:

H2: Lecturers who experience a higher level in the internal push factors (role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload) will have a lower level of job satisfaction.

2.5 The Relationships between External Pull Factors and Job Satisfaction

The pull theory has been studied by primarily market-oriented researchers focussing on job alternatives. According to Kolluru (2009), the new market orientation is a pull factor as employees no longer have a 'work for lifetime' mindset. Hence, the pull of external factors is also known as external environmental variables and these factors can affect the job satisfaction of an employee. Iverson & Maguire (2000) defined environmental variables as attraction to alternatives that affect one's own job. In the study by Iverson & Roy (1994), the researchers examined that direct and indirect effect of the environmental variables on job satisfaction and behavioural commitment. They found that environmental factors may affect job satisfaction as employees compare the external environment with their internal environment (job content).

Review of literature has found that the external pull factors have a significant relationship with job satisfaction (Ahmad & Riaz, 2011; Ambrose, Huston, & Norman, 2005; Agrawal & Swaroop, 1999; Blood, & Hulin, 1967; Eaton & Nofsinger, 2000; Gruneberg et al., 1974; Hulin, 1969; Hunt et al., 2009; Iverson & Maguire, 2000; Iverson & Roy, 1994; Mckenna & Sikula, 1981, Owence et al., 2014; Pieterse & Oni, 2014; Price, 2001; Rahimi et al., 2013; Shuster, 1970; Wenzel & Hollenshead, 1998; Yan et al., 2015).

The following sections cover the literature review on the association between each of the external pull factors and job satisfaction.

2.5.1 The Relationship between External Job Opportunity and Job Satisfaction

Caplow and McGee (1958) classic study on faculty mobility stated that external pull factors for example are employees who perceived job opportunities in other institutions, which are affected by the job market and a variety of personal characteristics and preferences. Dardar, Jusoh, and Hasli (2012) stated that alternative job opportunities exist when staff in an organization feel that they can better address their needs elsewhere in another organisation. Hence, more opportunities produce more awareness of alternative job opportunities outside their work place (Price 2001).

According to Iverson and Maguire (2000) employees who are exposed to attractive alternatives re-evaluate their own job leading to a decrease in job satisfaction (Iverson & Roy, 1994, Mueller, Boyer, Price & Iverson 1994). Price and Mueller (1986) found a negative relationship between environmental opportunity and job satisfaction. Furthermore, Agho et al.'s (1993) study on 405 employees of a 327-Bed Veterans Administration Medical Centre revealed that external job opportunities affected the job satisfaction of the employees. Iverson

and Roy (1994) found that job satisfaction will increase when there are a limited number of job opportunities in the labour market.

Price's (2001) study on determinants of voluntary turnover based on the empirical research conducted since 1972, proposed that an indirect impact of opportunity on turnover through job satisfaction may exist. This happens as employees learn about the opportunities outside which are better than their existing job which then produces dissatisfaction and hence increases turnover intention (Price, 2001). Price (2001) further stated that employees comparing what is (their current jobs) with what could be (the alternative jobs) may produce dissatisfaction.

Having said that, Ahmad & Riaz's (2011) study found a negative correlation between perceived alternative employment opportunities and job satisfaction in a study involving 231 doctors from medical colleges and hospitals from the private sector while, In the study by Pieterse and Oni (2014) on employee turnover at a local government department in South Africa it was found that Job dissatisfaction in the department was attributed to better job offers elsewhere, inferior working conditions, and a lack of promotional opportunities. The authors also found that when there were more job opportunities available in the private sector, job satisfaction will reduce. Hence, the review of literature has revealed that there may exist a negative relationship between external job opportunity and lecturers' job satisfaction (Agho, Mueller, & Price, 1993, Ahmad & Riaz, 2011,

Dardar et al., 2012; Iverson & Roy, 1994; Monroe & DeLoach, 2004; Pieterse & Oni, 2014; Price & Mueller, 1986).

2.5.2 The Relationship between External Compensation and Job Satisfaction

Companies may provide compensation packages that are well above the market rate to attract talents (Govindasamy & Jayasingam, 2010). As such prospective employees' assess corporate attractiveness on the degree to which the job offer will match desired attributes such as salary requirements, security, opportunities for training and advancement (Schwoerer & Rosen, 1989). Employees will compare the salary package that they are currently receiving from their organisation with the salary offered by other organisations. From their assessment, employees may feel that they are worth much more than what they are actually paid, hence employees may perceive lack of fairness when comparisons are made with the higher paying jobs outside their organisation (Owence et al., 2014).

Lecturers may be attracted to the compensation packages available in other universities and lecturers may make comparisons, thus if the benefits from the counterpart organisation is better, the employee's feelings would be affected (Rahimi Hashim, Tahsildari, & Khodakarami, 2013). Employees are thus assessing the adequacy of their rewards through a process of social comparison (Festinger, 1954).

Review of literature has revealed that attractive external compensation offered by other companies is considered as one of the most important factors affecting job satisfaction (Adam 1965, Govindasamy & Jayasingam, 2010; Igalens & Roussel, 1999; Owence et al., 2014). As such, Price (2001) statement that the opportunities outside the organisation as in this case a better compensation package which is better than their current job may lower job satisfaction. In the study by Igalens and Roussel (1999) using two sample employees involving 269 exempt employees and 297 non-exempt employees in France, it was found that when employees found that their fixed pay that they were receiving from their company did not matched the fixed pay received by employees in other companies, their level of job satisfaction was affected. Here external equity of fixed pay was made. The more employees were satisfied with the external equity of pay, the more the increase in job satisfaction. Pieterse and Oni (2014) study on employee turnover at a local government department in South Africa found that one of the factors affecting, Job dissatisfaction in the department was better compensation elsewhere

In the Malaysian higher education sector, Rahimi et al.'s (2013) study using multiple regression analysis on 150 employees randomly selected at Malaysian public and private universities found that there exists a negative correlation between lecturers' external equity in pay and the level of job satisfaction as employees were assessing their wages and benefits received in their current universities with other universities satisfaction. As such, the study shows that there may be a negative association between external compensation and lecturers'

job satisfaction (Adam 1965, Govindasamy & Jayasingam, 2010; Igalens & Roussel, 1999; Owence et al., 2014; Pieterse & Oni, 2014; Rahimi et al., 2013).

2.5.3 The Relationship between External Working Location and Job Satisfaction

Another important external pull factor is the attractive working location of an organisation (Ali Shah et al., 2010; Callow & McGee, 1958; Owence et al., 2014; Terkla & Wright, 1986). The attractive working location of other universities may have a significant relationship with a lecturers' job satisfaction. Review of literature has revealed that attractive external working location may affect job satisfaction (Adam, 1965; Ambrose et al., 2005; Govindasamy & Jayasingam, 2010; Gruneberg et al., 1974; Igalens & Roussel, 1999; Owence et al., 2014; Yan et al., 2015).

Blood and Hulin's (1967) research on 1900 male workers located in 21 plants in eastern United States found that employees that were working in areas that are alienated from urbanized communities reported lower levels of job satisfaction. Furthermore, the study by Gruneberg et al. (1974) on lecturers found that their geographical factors affected the job satisfaction of university lecturers. In their research on 189 university lecturers at a Welsh University College, it was found that the lecturers found that the immediate environment contributed positively to job satisfaction whereas the geographical position of the college relative to other

parts of Britain contributed in more instances of job dissatisfaction than to satisfaction.

In the study by Ambrose et al. (2005) using semi-structured interviews involving 123 faculty (half current and half former) members from one university, it was revealed that current faculty members were dissatisfied with their working location (region) in comparison with the location of other universities. In China, the study by Yan et al. (2015) involving lecturers from research universities found that almost a quarter of former faculty members' cited dissatisfaction of their city as compared to the other regions. Therefore, there may exist a negative correlation between external working location and lecturers' job satisfaction (Adam, 1965; Ambrose et al., 2005; Govindasamy & Jayasingam, 2010; Gruneberg et al., 1974; Igalens & Roussel, 1999; Owence et al., 2014; Yan et al., 2015).

2.5.4 The Relationship between External University Image and Job Satisfaction

An attractive external university image of an organisation may affect the level of job satisfaction of an employee (Duarte, Alves, & Raposo, 2010; Morrison, Rudd, Picciano, & Nerad, 2011; Wenzel & Hollenshead, 1998; Yan et al, 2015). According to Highhouse, Lievens, and Sinar (2003) the image of a company reflects a social census on the degree to which the company's characteristics are regarded as either positive or negative; hence a prestigious company inspires

thoughts of fame and is renown in the minds of others. Hamori (2003) stated that the reputation of the organisation which the employees are associated with is a powerful determinant of career success and is a tool used to make assumptions about the individual's performance. Also, Rynes (1994) suggested that in the job choice process, applicants initial decisions are heavily based on the general impression of organisations' attractiveness in terms of image and corporate reputation.

Lecturers compare the attractiveness of the external environment and subsequently this may affect their level of satisfaction with the university image of their university. As with social information processing theory, lecturers may compare the external environment outside their organisation with their internal environment in their current organisation, and this would affect their level of job satisfaction. According to the research by Morrison et al. (2011), faculties often report that the reputation of a university is an important factor in their work and career; hence faculty staff attraction to a prestigious university could affect their job satisfaction. Wenzel, and Hollenshead (1998) reported that in their qualitative research on women faculties from the University of Michigan, it was found that former women faculties from the University of Michigan had lower job dissatisfaction with the prestige of their university when comparisons were made with other universities. According to Yan et al. (2015), 80% of the faculty lecturers from China's top universities were satisfied with the prestige of the university when comparisons were made with other universities. Thus, there may

appear to be a negative association between external university image and lecturers' job satisfaction (Duarte et al., 2010; Morrison et al., 2011; Wenzel & Hollenshead, 1998; Yan et al, 2015)..

As such, to test the significant influence that external pull factors have on job satisfaction, the hypothesis below was developed:

H3: Lecturers who perceive more favourable external pull factors (job opportunity, external compensation, external working location and external university image) will experience a lower level of job satisfaction.

2.6 The Relationships between Internal Pull Factors and Turnover Intention

Mobley et al. (1979) reviewed the employee turnover process and found that job content factors such as the work itself and promotion were factors that correlated negatively with turnover. Having said that, according to Atchley (1996) pull factors need not be attraction to alternatives, rather pull factors may also be internal to the organisation and these factors attract employees to stay with the current employers because of better benefits for example such as opportunities for advancement. Furthermore, according to Mano-Negrin and Kirschenbaum (1999) accumulated benefits within the organisation and the degree of attachment to the work would reduce intention to leave as employees would lose the benefits in their current organisations.

Review of literature has found that internal pull factors which are intrinsic motivational factors have been identified as significant predictors to turnover intention (Abbas et al. 2012; Ali et al., 2010; Conklin & Desselle, 2007; Hong & Kaur, 2008; Olusegun, 2012; Rageb et al., 2013; Samuel, & Chipunza, 2009; Schaubroeck et al., 1989; Shakeel & But, 2015; Selesho & Naile, 2014).

The following sections cover the literature review on the association between each of the intrinsic motivation factors and turnover intention.

2.6.1 The Relationship between Achievement and Turnover Intention

Research has shown that achievement is significant to turnover intention (Farooq, 2013; Hines, 1973; Nauman Habib et al., 2010; Samuel & Chipunza, 2009). Farooq and Hanif (2013) found that intrinsic motivational factors such as achievement needs had a significant impact on employee retention. Hines's (1973) study on 315 entrepreneurs, engineers, accountants and middle managers found that the need for achievement was significant to their turnover intention. In their study, the high need for achievement levels led to lower turnover.

Samuel and Chipunza's (2009) study found that intrinsic motivation variables also significantly influence turnover intention of employees as studies have shown that

there may be a significant relationship with achievement and turnover intention. In a study using data collected from 133 teachers from private higher educational institutions in Peshawar, Pakistan with a response rate of 88.6%, it was found that teachers of 41 years and above found that achievement was the least important factor that contributed to their intention to quit (Nauman Habib et al., 2010). Within the higher education, Rathakrishnan et al. (2016) found the achievement of lecturers especially when they achieve the targets set by their faculty, reduced their turnover intention. As per the literature review above, there may be a negative relationship between achievement and lecturers' turnover intention (Farooq & Hanif, 2013; Hines, 1973; Nauman Habib et al., 2010; Rathakrishnan et al., 2017; Samuel & Chipunza, 2009).

2.6.2 The Relationship between Recognition and Turnover Intention

Research has found that employee recognition is significant to turnover intention (Lachman & Diamant, 1987; Kosi et al., 2015; Liyanage & Galhena, 2012; Ng'ethe et al., 2012; McGuire et al., 2003; Samuel & Chipunza, 2009; Yimer, Nega & Ganfure, 2017). According to studies, intrinsic rewards such as recognition and a sense of accomplishment and fulfilment advancement plays a much more important role than extrinsic rewards in the withdrawal decisions of employees (Lachman & Diamant, 1987). With regards to the relationship between recognition and turnover intention, Liyanage and Galhena's (2012) study on 200 sewing machine operators in Sri Lanka found that recognition had a negative

significant relationship with turnover intention. McGuire et al.'s (2003) research within the health service industry found that respect and recognition were significant retention factors for employees.

Kosi et al.'s (2015) study using 203 teachers in selected schools in Ghana found that recognition is the main motivator of teachers and that there is a significant impact on turnover intention. Research within the higher education sector by Ng'ethe et al. (2012) also found that employees will have higher intention to stay if their capabilities, efforts and performance were recognised in the organisation. The researchers further stated that recognition is an intrinsic factor that may determine academic staff retention. Furthermore, Samuel and Chipunza's (2009) research on 225 senior academic staff from 10 universities in South Africa found that recognition apart from rewards for good performance was a significant determinant of employee retention in both the public and private sector. According to Yimer, Nega and Ganfure (2017), lecturers in Ethiopia revealed that the absence of recognition for their work would increase their intention to leave. Lecturers further mentioned that feedback and praise should be given to improve the retention rate of lecturers. Hence, recognition appears to have a negative association with lecturers' turnover intention (Kosi et al., 2015; Ng'ethe et al., 2012; Samuel & Chipunza, 2009; Yimer, Nega & Ganfure, 2017).

2.6.3 The Relationship between the Work Itself and Turnover Intention

Although there have been numerous researches validating the significant effect of the work itself with job satisfaction, empirical studies are still scarce on the relationship with the work itself and turnover intention. Nevertheless, there have been studies on the relationship between the work itself and turnover intention (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Dai, 2013; Flowers & Hughes, 1973; Haider Shah & Jumani, 2015; Samuel & Chipunza, 2009).

The work itself was found to be highly significant to reducing turnover intention of employees (Dai, 2013). Flowers & Hughes (1973) identified the work itself as a factor that employees are highly motivated with and is a factor that may affect their decision to remain in the organisation. In fact, Cotton & Tuttle's (1986) meta-analysis study identified the importance of the work itself in the relationship with intention to leave and turnover of employees.

Haider Shah and Jumani's (2015) research on job satisfaction and turnover intention using a sample of 860 teachers from 160 private schools from Islamabad, Pakistan found that the work itself has a moderate significant relationship with turnover intention. Samuel and Chipunza's (2009) study also found that the intrinsic motivation nature of the work itself provided strong evidence of association with turnover intention. In their study using 225 senior academic staff from 10 universities across South Africa, the findings revealed that

the academic work of teaching research and administration has an important influence on employee job satisfaction which will influence turnover intention. The work itself was found to influence the decision to stay of employees in the University of Medical Science, Iran according to Dadgar, Barahouei, Mohammadi, Ebrahimi and Ganjali (2013) from 385 respondents using stratified random sampling. As such, the work itself may have a negative relationship with lecturers' turnover intention (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Dadgar et al., 2013; Dai, 2013; Flowers & Hughes, 1973; Haider Shah & Jumani, 2015; Samuel & Chipunza, 2009).

2.6.4 The Relationship between Responsibility and Turnover Intention

The previous studies on the relationship between responsibility and turnover intention found that there exists a significant relationship between responsibility and turnover intention. (Alexander et al., 1998; Awang, Razak Amir, & Osman, 2013; Daly & Dee, 2006; Hong & Kaur, 2008; McGee & Ford, 1987; Spector, 1986). It was found that employees who are given a sense of responsibility will have higher intrinsic motivation in their work, will increase their performance and will increase their intention to stay with their current organisation. (Awang et al., 2013).

According to Daly and Dee (2006) in the study on faculty turnover intent in 15 randomly selected urban universities in the United States of America, higher

levels of autonomy, responsibility and open communication were associated with higher levels of satisfaction and commitment, which in turn yielded higher levels of intent to stay. In addition to this, the respondents were satisfied with some aspects of work, namely responsibility through autonomy and flexibility that the job offered.

McGee and Ford (1987) found that responsibility negatively affected turnover intention. Hong & Kaur's (2008) study using a sample 191 working adults with a response rate of 63.7% found that responsibility had a negative significant association with employees' intention to leave. Alexander et al. (1998) found that nursing personnel's satisfaction with autonomy and responsibility were significant predictors to turnover intention. Spector's (1986) meta-analysis revealed that responsibility is related to higher levels of motivation and job satisfaction and lower levels of turnover and absenteeism. Teachers were more likely to experience higher levels of teacher efficacy and satisfaction, accept more responsibility for student learning, and more likely to remain in the classroom (Sandoval-Lucero; Shanklin, Sobel, Townsend, Davis, & Kalisher, 2012). As such, the review of literature above has shown that responsibility appears to have a negative association with lecturers' turnover intention (Awang, Razak Amir, & Osman, 2013; Daly & Dee, 2006; Hong & Kaur, 2008; Sandoval-Lucero et al., 2012; Spector, 1986).

2.6.5 The Relationship between Opportunities for Advancement and Turnover Intention

The relationship with opportunity for advancement and turnover intention has also been studied and it was found that there exists a significant relationship between opportunity for advancement and turnover intention (Haider Shah & Jumani, 2015; Hassan, 2014; Mikovich & Boudreau, 1997; Price & Mueller, 1981; Rubel & Kee, 2015; Theron & Barkuizen, 2014). Price and Mueller (1981) found that among nurses, promotional opportunities were one of relative importance and is statistically significant to intention to stay in the current organisation. The career advancement opportunities may have a significant influence on intention to stay, according to Mikovich and Boudreau (1997) as employees may leave their organisation due to the poor human resource establishment and lack of promotional opportunities in their current organisation.

Theron and Barkuizen's (2014) study on South African academic staff found that lack of career development opportunities affected their intention to leave their institution. Haider Shah and Jumani's (2015) research on job satisfaction and turnover intention using a sample of 860 teachers from 160 private schools from Islamabad Pakistan found that promotion opportunity has a moderate significant relationship with turnover intention. According to Rubel and Kee (2015), opportunities for advancement has a significant negative relationship with turnover intention of hospital staff at a teaching hospital in Bangladesh. Hassan's

(2014) study on 103 employees from a company in Malaysia found that promotional opportunities had a negative significant relationship with turnover intention. As such, opportunities for advancement may have a negative relationship with lecturers' turnover intention (Haider Shah & Jumani, 2015; Hassan, 2014; Mikovich & Boudreau, 1997; Price & Mueller, 1981; Rubel & Kee, 2015; Theron & Barkuizen, 2014).

2.6.6 The Relationship between Opportunities for Growth and Turnover Intention

Research has found that there is a significant relationship between opportunity for growth and turnover intention (Alexander et al., 1998; Imran, 2017; Nauman Habib et al., 2010; Miller & Wheller, 1992; Samuel & Chipunza, 2009). Alexander et al.'s (1998) research on nursing personnel satisfaction found that professional growth opportunity was an important indirect predictor of turnover. Samuel and Chipunza (2009) found that training and development opportunities have a significant influence on retention in both public and private organisations.

Miller and Wheller's (1992) study on turnover intention of both male and female professionals found that there was a negative relationship between opportunities for growth and turnover intention. It was also found that lecturers in Pakistan have high intention to quit due to lack of opportunities for growth (Nauman Habib et

al., 2010). In the research by Imran (2017) on the intrinsic factors affecting employee intention to leave, opportunity for growth was an important factor that was found to have a significant inverse relationship with turnover intention. It can be said that, there seems to be a negative relationship between opportunities for growth and lecturers' turnover intention (Alexander et al., 1998; Imran, 2017; Nauman Habib et al., 2010; Miller & Wheller, 1992; Samuel & Chipunza, 2009).

As such, to test the significant influence that internal pull factors have on turnover intention, the hypothesis below was developed:

H4: Lecturers who experience a higher level in the internal pull factors (achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, opportunity for advancement and opportunity for growth) will have a lower level of turnover intention.

2.7 The Relationships between Internal Push Factors and Turnover Intention

The push theory have been studied primarily by psychologically oriented researchers who focused on job related perceptions and attitudes (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). However, Lewis (1967) stated that faculty turnover in universities were caused by both the push and pull mechanism. Nevertheless, Scanlan et al. (2010) stated that internal push factors are factors that prompt an individual to leave their position. For example work stressors, frustration with ineffective management or

overly bureaucratic organisation processes are common push factors (Ali Shah et al., 2010; Atchley, 1996; Capelli & Hamori, 2006; Hassan, 2014; Ho et al., 2010; Loquercio et al., 2006; Khan & Irfan, 2014; McBey & Karakowsky, 2000; Ronra & Chaisawat, 2010).

Literature has disclosed that the changing academic role in universities have generated role stress factors which may affect lecturers' intention to quit their current university. Ali Shah et al. (2010) found that push factors are job stress factors such as role ambiguity, role conflict, work overload and work family conflict. Hassan's (2014) study on 103 employees found that job stress had a significant positive relationship with turnover intention. On top of that, research has also revealed that role stress factors are significant predictors that affect employees' intention to quit (Ali Shah et al., 2010; Khan & Irfan, 2014; Panatik et al., 2012; Rageb et al., 2013).

The following sections cover the literature review on the association between each of the role stress factors and turnover intention.

2.7.1 The Relationship between Role Conflict and Turnover Intention

Role conflict unfortunately has given rise to high turnover intention according to past studies (Ali Shah et al., 2010; Glazer & Beehr, 2005; Daly & Dee, 2006; Idris, 2010; Idris, 2011; Khan & Irfan, 2014; Netemeyer et al., 1990; Rageb et al.,

2013). Role conflict affects turnover intention and pushes employees to leave their current workplace.

Ngo et al.'s (2005) study on 887 professional clergy in Hong Kong found that role conflict had a significant relationship with intention to leave. The authors found that role conflict had a direct positive effect on turnover intention. Role conflict among lecturers within HEIs as mentioned by Idris (2011) occur due to lecturers having inadequate recourses, having to bend a rule or policy, receiving conflicting request and being pressured to reconcile between teaching and research. Rageb et al.'s (2013) study on a college of management and technology in Egypt involving 65 employees found a significant positive relationship between role conflict and turnover intention. The researchers found that a likely contribution to the significant relationship was the incompatibility between the lecturers' capabilities and demands of the job.

Daly and Dee's (2006) study on 15 randomly selected urban public universities in the United States involving a sample size of 768 revealed that there exists a negative relationship between role conflict and intention to stay. Khan and Irfan (2014) studied the relationship with role stress factors 122 lecturers in Pakistan and found that role overload had a positive significant relationship with turnover intention. Idris (2010) stated that lecturers' role conflict had a direct effect to strain, which had an indirect relationship with the intention to leave. Furthermore, Idris (2010) mentioned that it is important for academic managers to understand

the basic role stress theory in order to manage stress among lecturers in universities. Hence, the review of literature above has clearly shown that there exists a significant association between role conflict and lecturers' turnover intention (Ali Shah et al., 2010; Idris, 2010; Idris, 2011; Khan & Irfan, 2014; Rageb et al., 2013).

2.7.2 The Relationship between Role Ambiguity and Turnover Intention

Role ambiguity has a positive affect on the intention to leave (Alexander et al., 1998; Ali Shah et al., 2010; Ameen et al., 1995; Boles et al., 2003; Idris, 2010; Idris, 2011; Kahn & Irfan, 2014; Panatik et al., 2012). Rai's (2015) study on 511 long term care staff at 10 different healthcare institutions across the USA found that role ambiguity significantly affected turnover intention. The authors mentioned that role ambiguity may have arisen due to poor communication between staff and their employers.

Ngo et al.'s (2005) study on professional clergy in Hong Kong found that role ambiguity had a significant relationship with the intention to leave. According to the authors, role stress had a positive significant relationship with turnover intention with role ambiguity and role conflict having a stronger effect than role overload. In the field of nursing, Alexander et al.'s (1998) research on nursing personnel found that role ambiguity was a significant predictor of turnover intention.

Khan and Irfan (2014) studied the relationship with role stress factors 122 lecturers in Pakistan and found that role ambiguity had a positive significant relationship with turnover intention. Ameen et al.'s (1995) study on accounting academics found that role ambiguity had an influence on faculty turnover intentions. In Malaysia, Panatik et al.'s (2012) study on work related stress on lecturers' turnover intention from 3 research universities discovered that work related stress which included role ambiguity had a significant relationship with turnover intention.

Idris (2010) stated that role ambiguity had the strongest direct effect on strain, which had an indirect relationship with the intention to leave. Idris's (2011) research on 357 respondents using two different time frames found that role ambiguity had a strong effect on strain, cynicism, organisational commitment and turnover intention. Idris (2011) further stated that role ambiguity can be minimised if regular feedback is given to lecturers, hence allowing them to perform and evaluate their performance of their task. As such, role ambiguity may have a positive relationship with lecturers' turnover intention (Alexander et al., 1998; Ali Shah et al., 2010; Ameen et al., 1995; Boles et al., 2003; Idris, 2010; Idris, 2011; Kahn & Irfan, 2014; Netemeyer et al., 1990; Ngo et al., 2005; Panatik et al., 2012).

2.7.3 The Relationship between Role Overload and Turnover Intention

Ali Shah et al. (2010) stated that variables such as role ambiguity, role conflict and work overload are likely to push employees to the exit door. As such literature has found that role overload is another role stressor that has a positive relationship with turnover intention (Idris, 2011; Khan & Irfan, 2014; Malik et al., 2013; Pienar, Sieberhagen, & Mostert, 2007; Rai, 2015; Rageb et al., 2013). Ngo et al.'s (2005) study on 887 professional clergy in Hong Kong found that role overload had a significant relationship with the intention to leave. Pienar et al.'s (2007) cross-sectional study among South Africa gold miners with a sample of 206 employees found that there is a positive significant relationship between role overload and turnover intention. Furthermore, role overload was a significant contributor to the variance in turnover intention.

Khan and Irfan (2014) studied the relationship with role stress factors 122 lecturers in Pakistan and found that role conflict had a positive significant relationship with turnover intention. Abdul Aziz and Ramli's (2010) study on 128 lecturers of UiTM Jengka Malaysia found that job stress due to excessive workload contributed significantly to the intention to quit. Idris (2010) stated that role overload had a direct effect to strain, which had an indirect relationship with the intention to leave. Idris (2011) further stated that role overload occurs among lecturers in Malaysia as a result of task overload. Rageb et al.'s (2013) study on employees at a college in Egypt found a significant positive relationship between

role overload and turnover intention. Malik et al.'s (2013) study on role overload and employee retention on 450 employees found that role overload had a strong negative significant relationship with employee retention and productivity, with role overload accounting to an 85.3% change in employee retention. The review of literature above clearly shows that there may be a positive association between role overload and lecturers' turnover intention (Abdul Aziz & Ramli, 2010; Idris, 2010; Idris, 2011; Khan & Irfan, 2014; Malik et al., 2013; Ngo et al., 2005; Pienar, Sieberhagen, & Mostert, 2007; Rai, 2015; Rageb et al., 2013).

As such, to test the significant influence that internal push factors have on turnover intention, the following hypothesis was developed:

H5: Lecturers who experience a higher level in the internal push factors (role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload) will have a higher level of turnover intention.

2.8 The Relationships between External Pull Factors and Turnover Intention

External pull factors are also known as external environmental variables and these factors can affect the turnover intention of an employee (Atchley, 1996; Caplow & McGee, 1958; Cappelli & Hamori, 2006; Ho et al., 2010; Laker, 1991; Memon, Panhwar, & Rohra, 2010; Matier, 1990; McBey & Karakowsky, 2000; Mobley et al., 1979; Ramasamy & Abdullah, 2017; Toombs & Marlier 1981; Semmer et al,

2014). According to Price (2001) environmental variables are labelled as possible determinants of turnover. Attractive opportunities in the environment can induce turnover intention. (Price, 2001). Scanlan et al. (2010) stated that external pull factors can also attract an individual to move to another job.

March and Simon's (1958) turnover model was one of the first to include the attraction to alternative job opportunity as a pull factors to turnover. According to Semmer et al. (2014), external pull factors pull employees to move to another job because of better job opportunities and career aspiration. Furthermore, Atchley (1996) stated that pull factors may attract workers to another organisation as employees are attracted to an organisation's status that is ranked higher. Additionally, pull factors may attract an employee to a new organisation due to the higher salary and benefits, better career advancement, new challenge of work, job security, good location of the company, better organisation culture, work life balance, autonomy, reputation of the organisation and good leadership (Ali Shah et al 2010; Atchley, 1996; Capelli & Hamori, 2006; Ho et al., 2010; McBey & Karakowsky, 2000, Mobley et al., 1979; Loquercio et al., 2006; Ronra & Chaisawat, 2010).

The following sections covers the literature review on the association between each of the external pull factors and turnover intention.

2.8.1 The Relationship between External Job Opportunity and Turnover Intention

According to Campion (1991), job opportunity is one of the most important reasons for voluntary turnover. Winterton (2004) stated that the intention to quit may be stimulated by perceived alternatives which is a pull effect. Employees perceive job opportunities are influenced by changes in the job market and by self-imposed restriction and personal criteria (Flowers & Hughes, 1973).

In the beginning, the pull theory began with the study on job alternatives and how such alternatives surface (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). Mobley et al. (1979) stated that the probable role of the availability of alternative jobs in employee turnover has long been recognised since March and Simon's (1958) study on turnover suggested that while certain factors such as dissatisfaction may push employees to search for alternative job employment, the perception that an attractive alternative job opportunity may however pull employees to consider alternative employment. Mobley et al. (1979) further stated that the higher the employment opportunities, the higher the rate of intention to quit. Hence as mentioned by Bluedorn (1982) there is a direct path between environmental opportunities and turnover. Furthermore, Weiler (1985) found that the attractiveness of an outside offer is positively related to faculty voluntary departure.

Griffeth et al.'s (2000) study on the meta-analysis of antecedents of employee turnover found that external environmental factor-perceived alternatives predicted turnover. Employee's intention to leave according to Addae and Parnoteeah (2006) can be determined by the number of job alternatives available, whereby employees may not quit if there are fewer job alternatives available.

Dardar et al. (2012) found a positive relationship between job opportunities and job turnover among employees of Libyan oil companies. Ahmad & Riaz's (2011) study involving 231 public sector doctors from medical colleges and hospitals found that in the private sector, the more employment opportunities were available in the private sector, the stronger the force for employees to have the intention to leave their job. Price and Mueller's (1981) study on 1,084 non-supervisory registered nurses revealed that job opportunity has a significant influence with intention to stay, hence supporting the fact that increased opportunity for alternative employment reduced intention to stay and thus increased turnover.

Research in HEIs have found that job opportunity increases the intention to leave their current university (Boswell, Zimmerman & Swider, 2011). Daly and Dee's study (2006) found that job opportunities reduced lecturers' intention to stay at their current university. Furthermore, the perception of the available job opportunities and the ease of movement may affect the turnover intention of an employee (Gerhart, 1990).

Al-Omari, Qablan, and Khasawneh's (2008) study on intention to stay involving 150 faculty members of Jordanian public universities found job opportunity had a direct negative effect on the intention to stay. Lastly, in Malaysia, Abdul Aziz and Ramli's (2010) study on 128 lecturers of UiTM Jengka Pahang Malaysia found that employment opportunities contributed significantly to the intention to quit. According to Ramasamy and Abdullah (2017), lecturers in private universities in Malaysia perceived that there are better job opportunities in Malaysia as there has been an increase in the number of private universities in the Klang Valley. As Malaysia become an education hub, there are lot universities offering various programmes which attract lot of student to their programme which indirectly creates an opportunity for faculty, hence increased intention to quit. As such, there seems to be a positive association between external job opportunity and lecturers' turnover intention (Abdul Aziz & Ramli, 2010; Al-Omari et al., 2008; Boswell et al., 2011; Daly & Dee, 2006; Ramasamy & Abdullah, 2017; Zhou & Volkwein, 2004).

2.8.2 The Relationship between External Compensation and Turnover Intention

Irshad (2011) stated that compensation plays a significant role in attracting and retaining good employees. Matier (1990) stated that a pull to join another

university may also be due to a better compensation package. Furthermore, research has shown that compensation is considered the most important factor for attracting and retaining talent (Ghosh, Satyawadi, Joshi & Shadman, 2012; Willis, 2000).

Owence et al.'s (2014) research on academic staff turnover in South Africa found that lecturers left for higher paying jobs as their current salary structure had not changed for some years. As such, Price's (2001) statement that the opportunities outside the organisation, as in this case a better compensation package which is better than their current job increases turnover intention. Employees may decide to leave the organisation if the organisation does not pay fairly and equitably as compared to others; hence the organisation will risk losing their talent because of a non-competitive salary package (Adam 1965, Govindasamy & Jayasingam, 2010).

Taylor (2002) stated that when the differences in salary are too great and that there is opportunity elsewhere, turnover will result. Lawler (1990) stated that the total amount of compensation offered by other companies will affect turnover. In fact, according to Ahmad, Toh, and Bujang (2013), most managers believe that employees cite better compensation as a reason for leaving to join another company, as employees seek to placate their own self-needs. Hence, the use of pay that is above market average can attract quality staff (Rynes Gerhart & Minette, 2004).

Research has shown that high pay levels have been associated with higher ratings of attractiveness of a job and an organisation and this led to intentions to request additional information about a company, sign up for an interview and accept a second interview (Rynes & Miller, 1983; Schwoerer & Rosen, 1989). Nevertheless Stecklein and Lathrop (1960) stated that in HEIs, for faculty members under the age of 50, salary was a more important enticement to move than for those above the age of 50. Eaton & Nofsinger's (2000) study on factors affecting job selection of finance faculties found that when obtaining their new position, relocating faculty ranked teaching load, compatibility with other faculty and base salary as the three most important factors affecting turnover intention.

Matier (1990) found that lecturers gained salary increase ranging from 19% to 24% if they dangle their outside offer to management for a better compensation package. However, if a lecturer chooses to accept an outside offer, the increase in salary was from 29% to 44%. Lecturers who sought no offers or elected not to act on offers receive salary increases of 7% to 8% in their current university. Following this research, Moore and Gardner's (1992) research found that lecturers listed attractive salary as the top fifth reason for a faculty member to leave and join another university while Shuster's (1970) study on mobility of 131 business faculty members of the Academy of Management found that individuals change their jobs to improve economic status and the majority of the business faculty from the study stated that they had an increase in salary when obtaining

their present position. Mckenna and Sikula (1981) stated that business lecturers across all ranks cited more money as one of the main reasons for leaving a position.

However in HEIs, according to Amey (1993) from 1978 to 1983, faculty members in the USA were lured away from state universities by better salaries and professional advancement due to the slow growth in salaries in the existing universities. Mahony et al.'s (2006) study on recruiting and retaining sport management faculty members found that from the 172 respondents (response rate 40.28%), the two most common factors that led to factors affecting the likelihood of taking a new job was compensation and location. Weiler's (1985) study on tenured faculty members that left the University of Minnesota found that the probability of accepting an outside offer was positively related to the expected salary gain. Olsen's (1992) qualitative research on why lecturers left their faculty revealed that lecturers cited better salary as the advantage of their new position. Finally, Zhou and Volkwein (2004) found that attractive extrinsic job compensation in other universities had a significant direct effect on the intention to leave. The review of literature appears to show that there may be a positive association between external compensation and lecturers' turnover intention (Mahony et al., 2006; Matier, 1990; Moore & Gardner, 1992; Olsen, 1992; Zhou & Volkwein, 2004).

2.8.3 The Relationship between External Working Location and Turnover Intention

Working location is another important extrinsic pull factor that can cause turnover (Masahudu, 2008; Scalan et al., 2010). Ausra and Rinkevičius (2006) stated that working and living conditions act as an attractive pull factor. Besides affecting job satisfaction, the geographic location is also an important factor that can influence an academic's decision to leave. Scanlat et al. (2009) found that a better working location attracts employees to leave for another job. Teachers in rural and remote areas are more likely to leave as compared to teachers in urban metropolitan areas due to the attractiveness of the working location when comparisons are made with travelling time and distance from their place of stay (Ingersoll, 2011). Olsen's (1992) qualitative research on why lecturers leave their faculty revealed that lecturers left for better working location and considered it as an attraction and advantage of their new position.

In the HEIs Agrawal & Swaroop's (1999) analysis on 125 students from five different business schools located across India found that application intentions were significantly influenced by factors such as location. Cable and Murray (1999) stated that not all job seekers experience the same market conditions as it differs in factors such as career focus, location preference and overall selectivity. Shuster's (1970) study on mobility of lecturers at the faculty of business in the USA, found that besides salary and future potential, major reasons for choosing

their present position included geographical location, where 55 per cent of the faculty cited this factor as a major reason for choosing their present position.

Hunt et al. (2009) studied the accounting faculty job search in the USA that involved all new accounting Ph.D.'s and faculty members who relocated from 2002 to 2004. The survey included 37 factors and most faculty members viewed salary as being relatively important but those going to non-doctoral institutions viewed salary as somewhat less important than geographical location. Mahony et al.'s (2006) study on factors affecting the willingness of sport management faculty members to accept new positions and the likelihood of leaving their current position on 172 individuals from faculty members in North America teaching in sport management programs revealed that factors such as salary and working location were important factors to those willing to take a new position.

Kida and Mannino's (1986) survey on the job selection criteria of 375 accounting faculty and doctoral students found that for non-doctoral granting schools, the prime factor for job selection was the schools' geographical location with the base salary taking second place. It was found that the working location of the university played a major role in the accounting faculty decision to relocate (Holland & Arrington, 1987).

Eaton and Hunt (1999) found new faculty members in accounting position ranked geographical location as fourth most important factor affecting their turnover

intention. Yan et al. (2015) found that location with regards to the region or city environment where one university is situated significantly predicted the Chinese faculty member's intention to leave in China. Yan et al. (2015) found that it was the pull of an attractive region and city that dominated the pulling of lecturers to other universities.

The study conducted by Ali Shah et al. (2010) on push and pull factors on lecturers turnover intention revealed that lecturers have the intention to quit their present job due to pull factors such as the good location of other universities. Finally, Conklin and Desselle's (2007) study on primary reasons why Pharmacy Faculty members intend to remain or leave their current university and why they left their most recent academic university revealed that, university location was frequently cited by faculty members as the reason for their intention to remain at current university while most frequently cited reason for leaving their previous university was location as well. As such there appears to be a positive relationship between external working location and lecturers' turnover intention (Ali Shah et al., 2010; Conklin & Desselle, 2007; Eaton & Hunt, 1999; Holland & Arrington, 1987; Kida & Mannino, 1986; Yan et al., 2015).

2.8.4 The Relationship between External University Image and Turnover Intention

Wenzel and Hollenshead (1998) reported that in their qualitative research on former women faculty members who voluntarily left the University of Michigan, it was found that although there were pushed to leave their working environment, they were also pulled to leave as they were attracted to other universities. Hence it is necessary to study how the university image of other universities can significantly affect the turnover intention of lecturers' in their current university.

As mentioned by Wenzel and Hollenshead (1998) "a university's reputation and advice shared among professional groups play an important role in efforts to attract the best new scholar" (p.23). Highhouse et al.'s (2003) study on measuring attraction to organisations from 305 psychology undergraduates at a university in the USA found that, there is a statistical significant path from company prestige to intention to pursue a job. Within the Higher education sector, there are studies that have examined how external pull factors affect turnover. Moore and Gardner's (1992) study on 44 possible reasons for leaving Michigan State University, found that the top three reasons for leaving were availability of research funds, research opportunities and the reputation of the department of other universities.

Factors that affected the business lecturers across all ranks in the USA to leave their position were opportunity to join a more prestigious university (Mckenna & Sikula, 1981). Productive academicians tend to move upward to universities with greater prestige and higher status (Skeels & Fairbanks, 1968). Lecturers that had more publications had intentions to leave to a more prestigious university where academic title attainability could be the influence for the move (Skeels & Fairbanks, 1968). Hence as mentioned by Caplow and McGee (1958) university prestige was an overriding factor in faculty mobility.

According to Ryan et al. (2012), lecturers are interested in enhancing their academic status and as such, lecturers will consider leaving for a more prestigious university to further enhance their academic career. With regards to the study on turnover intention, the study by Ali Shah et al. (2010) on push and pull factors on lecturers' turnover intention discovered that the image of the university significantly affected the intention to quit of lecturers in Pakistan. The study by Yan et al (2015) found that a university's status and prestige were major factors pulling Chinese faculty members in China to move. They further stated that the regional advantages and a university's prestige and status are important in attracting faculty members to leave their present university. Hence, there appears to be a positive relationship between external university image and lecturers' turnover intention (Ali Shah et al., 2010; Mckenna & Sikula, 1981; Moore & Gardner, 1992; Ryan et al., 2012; Yan et al., 2015).

As such, to test the significant influence that external pull factors has on turnover intention, the hypothesis below was developed:

H6: Lecturers who perceive more favourable external pull factors (job opportunity, external compensation, external working location and external university image) will have a higher level of turnover intention.

2.9 The Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention

Job satisfaction in this study is an intervening variable and past research has shown that organisation structures produce a direct impact on intention to leave by acting first on job satisfaction (Daly & Dee, 2006; March & Simon, 1958; Martin 1979; Mobley, 1977; Mobley et al., 1978). As seen in past research over the last century, studies have found a negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention (Abdullah Hashim & Mahmood, 2011; Ameen et al., 1995; Barnes, Agago, & Combs, 1998; Cotton & Turtle, 1986; Daly & Dee, 2006; Goi, 2013; Hom et al., 2016; Johnsurd & Rosser, 2002; Locke, 1976; March & Simon, 1958; Mobley, 1977; Mobley et al., 1978; Rosser, 2004; Rosser & Townsend, 2006; Ryan et al., 2012; Smart, 1990; Stevens, 2005; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Vandenberg & Nelson, 1999; Yücel, 2012; Zhang & Feng, 2011).

Mobley et al. (1978) model of employee turnover found a significant relationship between job satisfaction to thinking of quitting, intention to search and intention

to quit; hence it was concluded that intentions were important in the turnover model process as apposed to just studying job satisfaction. As stated by Steel and Lounsbury (2009) constructs like job satisfaction appear with such regularity in turnover theory. However, Locke (1976) found that although the satisfaction withdrawal relationship correlations have been consistent and negative, they have usually been less than 0.40. Nevertheless, Price and Mueller (1981) found that job satisfaction had a strong influence to nurses' intention to stay. Vandenberg and Nelson (1999) found that turnover intention can be lowered if the source of an individual's dissatisfaction is dealt with

Furthermore, Yücel's (2012) study on 188 employees of a manufacturing company in Turkey found that high levels of job satisfaction resulted in lower levels of turnover intention. Within the higher education sector, the concerns on lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention have generated numerous studies over the years (Ameen et al., 1995; Barnes et al., 1998; Daly & Dee, 2006; Goi, 2013; Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002; Rosser, 2004; Rosser & Townsend, 2006; Smart, 1990; Stevens, 2005).

Rosser (2004) conducted a research on faculty members' intention to leave which was sponsored by The National Centre for Educational Statistics and the National Science Foundation in the USA. The study involved 3,396 post-secondary institutions. Three separate mailings to the respondents yielded a response rate of 83% from (N= 18, 043). 12, 575 full time faculty members from two-four years

post-secondary institutions were selected for the national sample. The results of the research found that faculty members' satisfaction had a significant and negative effect on intention to leave (-.45). Rosser (2004) suggested that faculty members with higher levels of satisfaction are less likely to leave the institution or their career. A follow up to the research done by Rosser and Townsend (2006) involving two year post-secondary institutions revealed that job satisfaction again had a negative effect on the intention to leave (-0.473).

Stevens's (2005) study on faculty job satisfaction and turnover intention in the UK involving 10 institutions of higher education involving 2,722 respondents revealed that the more satisfied academics are with the elements of their job, the less likely they are to leave the sector. Daly and Dee's (2006) study on faculty turnover intent among 15 randomly selected urban universities in the USA (N=1500) found that job satisfaction had a positive effect on intent to stay. Positive relationship has been found between job satisfaction and the predisposition to remain in the organisation (Mobley, et al., 1979, Price & Mueller, 1981).

Smart (1990) argued that intentions of faculty members to leave their current institutions is a function of a complex series of events that encompasses their individual characteristics, attributes of their institutions, contextual aspects of their work environment and multiple dimensions of their overall job satisfaction. Hence it is important to study these factors in relation to job satisfaction and

turnover intention. Smart's (1990) study using data obtained from The 1984 Carnegie Foundation for the Advance of Teaching national survey of faculty involving 2,648 faculty members with doctorate qualifications found that organisational and career satisfaction had a significant negative direct effect on turnover intention. Research among academic accountants who held the position of assistant professors taken from the Accounting Faculty Directory Handbook 1991, involving 72 out of the 215 respondents (response rate 34%) by Ameen, et al. (1995) found that job satisfaction had a great effect on turnover intentions (-0.45). Ameen et al.'s (1995) study justified that job satisfaction directly affected accounting academics' turnover intentions.

Ryan et al.'s (2012) study on all tenure/tenure track faculty members at a large public research university in the Midwestern US with a 37.4 % response rate (1087 out of the 2904 respondents) found that satisfaction factors were not a significant predictor of the probability of having leaving for another institution, however Ryan et al. (2012) did mention that their research included tangible aspects of the institutional environment such as compensation, administrative support, facilities, autonomy and peer and administration which may not have contributed to a push to leave the university.

In Malaysia, Yin-Fah et al.'s (2010) research on the private sector in Petaling District involving 120 respondents found that there is a significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention. Goi's (2013) study

on all employees in a higher education institution in Malaysia that yielded a response rate of 75.33% (226) out of the 300 questionnaire distributed, with 210 usable questionnaires found that job satisfaction had a negative impact towards the intention to leave (-0.80). Goi (2013) argued that when job satisfaction was high, employees would have low intention to leave their organisation. Abdul Aziz and Ramli's (2010) research using 128 lecturers of UiTM Jengka Malaysia revealed that lecturers' job satisfaction did not contribute significantly to turnover intention. Finally Ramli et al.'s (2014) study stated that turnover intention studies among academics in Malaysian private universities should include job satisfaction. Latest study by Rathakrishnan et al., (2016) on 253 lecturers from Private universities in the Klang Valley found that job satisfaction had a significant relationship with lecturers' job satisfaction. Overall, there seems to be a negative relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention (Ameen, et al., 1995; Daly & Dee, 2006; Goi, 2013; Rathakrishnan et al, 2016; Rosser & Townsend, 2006; Rosser, 2004; Ryan et al., 2012; Smart, 1990; Yin-Fah et al., 2010).

As such, to test the significant influence that job satisfaction has on turnover intention, it was thus hypothesised that;

H7: Job satisfaction is inversely related to turnover intention, i.e a lower job satisfaction would result in a higher turnover intention.

2.10 The Moderating Effect of Age on the Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention

According to Eberhardt et al. (1995), demographic variables may interact as a moderator between job satisfaction and turnover intention. In fact, age as a potential moderator have been discussed and studied by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) and Meyer and Allen (1994) based on the concept of side bets. Age is a demographic characteristic that has been given increasing importance simply because the workforce is aging and that the retirement age across the globe has increased (Robbins & Judge, 2014). In fact Mobley (1982) has stated the importance of examining the potential importance of age with turnover due to several factors such as changes in the labour market that is highly competitive, extension of mandatory retirement and increase in life span.

In this study younger and older lecturers are differentiated according to the age category. As per the study done by Yapa et al. (2014) younger lecturers were classified as being between the ages of 20 to 40 years old, while older staff were between the ages of 41 to 60 years old. As such in this study, younger lecturers are defined as being below the age of 40 years old while the definition for older or matured lecturers are lecturers above the age of 41.

The study between age and job satisfaction has provided mixed results. Within the HEIs Nandan and Krishna (2013) found that as age advances, lecturers may have

additional academic responsibilities and may have to devote more time to their family, hence this would result to declining levels of job satisfaction. Nandan and Krishna (2013) further stated that younger faculty members have higher motivation towards teaching and research and hence higher job satisfaction. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) mentioned that older employees have more commitment than younger employees; hence satisfaction is higher with younger employees as compared to older employees. Furthermore within the HEIs, Yapa et al (2014) found that younger staff were more satisfied than older staff in universities.

However in Malaysia, Noordin and Jusoff (2009) found that job satisfaction increases with age. Ch'ng et al.'s (2010) study on lecturer's job satisfaction at a private college in Penang Malaysia found that older employees generally experience higher job satisfaction than younger employees. They further stated that the results may not be universally adopted simply because of the differences in individual and situational factors. Paul and Phua (2011) found that age had a significant influence on job satisfaction but appears to be U-shaped, meaning young and old lecturers had higher levels of job satisfaction than their middle aged colleagues. Ilaqua, Schumacher, and Li (2001), Oshagbemi (2003), Pop-Vasileva, Baird, and Blair (2011) and Sharma and Jyoti (2009) however found no statistical significance between age and overall job satisfaction among academics.

According to Price and Mueller (1981) there is an abundance of literature that supports the negative relationship between age and turnover as younger employees usually have higher rates of turnover as compared to older employees. According to Price and Mueller (1981) this is because younger employees usually have the more routine jobs, participate in little decision making, lack knowledge about their jobs, have fewer close friends, receive less pay and have fewer local obligations to kin.

Mobley et al.'s (1978) study on employee turnover found that age had a negative relationship with turnover with a -0.22 correlation. Within the HEIs Smart (1990) and Xu (2008) found that younger faculty members have higher rates of turnover. With regards to turnover intention, Choong et al. (2013) found that younger academic staff in a private university in Malaysia had higher turnover intention as compared to elder academic staff. Pamu (2010) on the other hand found that younger teachers have intentions to stay due to non-commitments in their life such as family responsibilities and other refraining factors that are attributable to experienced teachers.

In terms of the moderating effects, Tschopp et al. (2015) found that age-related life stage preference and age-independent preferences moderated the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover. In the field of nursing, Eberhardt et al. (1995) found that age was a significant and main moderating effect on the relationship between job satisfaction and nurses' intention to quit, whereby

younger nurses were more likely than older nurses to think of quitting when their level of job satisfaction was low.

Robbins and Judge (2014) have mentioned that studies have shown that the older you get, the less likely you are to quit your job. However with regards to job satisfaction, studies have been mixed due to the type of profession; whereby, among the professionals, satisfaction increases with age, whereas among non-professionals, satisfaction falls during the middle age and then rises again in their later years. Based on the review of literature, it is thus important to examine the moderating effect of age with job satisfaction and turnover intention among lecturers in HEIs.

Based on the literature review, it was thus hypothesised that;

H8: Age has a moderating effect on the relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention.

2.11 The Moderating Effect of Gender on the Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention

Besides age, gender is another demographic characteristic that has been given increasing importance as the age old battle between men and women on who performs better at their jobs is still being debated till today (Robbins & Judge,

2014). Smart (1990) defined gender as either being male or female (p. 411). The study of gender is important as more women enter the workforce and experience work related issues (McNeilly & Goldsmith, 1991). As women enter the workforce various issues have occurred on gender differences. Firstly, it was reported by Smart (1990) that women tend to be unrepresented in leadership and governance positions; furthermore, a strong consensus has emerged over the years that gender differences may exist concerning various employee job-related perception (Ren & Heung, 2009).

Past research has found that gender may affect the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention (McNeilly & Goldsmith, 1991). It was suggested that a potential moderating effect of gender between job satisfaction and turnover intention may exist and that there is limited research in this area (Abubakar & Kura, 2015).

Thekedam (2010) found that female teachers are less satisfied with their job than male teachers. Research in HEIs has shown that male faculty members have higher levels of overall job satisfaction than female faculty members (Bozeman & Gaughan, 2011; Castill & Cano, 2004; Oshagbemi, 1997; Sabharwal & Corley, 2009; Ward & Sloane, 2000). However, in Malaysia, Santhapparaj & Syed (2005) found that female staff were more satisfied with all facets of job satisfaction than their male counterparts; hence women enjoyed their working environment.

In India, Sharma & Jyoti (2009) also found that female lecturers are more satisfied than male lecturers. Dhanapal et al. (2013), Noordin and Jusoff (2009) and Paul and Phua (2011) nevertheless found no significant difference between gender and job satisfaction. Castillo et al. (1999), Oshagbemi (2003), Pop-Vasileva et al. (2011) and Viet (2013) found no statistical significance between gender and overall job satisfaction. Sloane and Ward (2001) stated that gender had an insignificant effect on job satisfaction; nevertheless, it was also found that male academics under the age of 36 had significantly higher job satisfaction than their female cohorts under 36. Male academics over 36 had lower satisfaction than female cohort over 36.

With regards to turnover intention, studies by Cotton & Tuttle (1986) and Zhou & Volkwein (2004) found that women tend to leave their job more than men. Choong et al.'s (2013), study on turnover intention among lecturers in PrHEIs in Malaysia found that female academic staff has higher turnover intention as compared to male academic staff. Also, Tolbert, Simons, Andrews, and Rhee (1995) found that as the proportion of women academics in the department grew, turnover among women also increased. Xu's (2008) study on faculty attrition and turnover intention revealed that women have stronger intentions to change positions within academia than men. On the other hand, Pamu (2010) found that there was a high intention to quit among male teachers where out of the 164 high intentions to quit among teachers, 141 were male.

In terms of the moderating effects, McNeilly and Goldsmith (1991) found men leave the job when they are dissatisfied with achievement needs while women leave their jobs when they are dissatisfied with interpersonal needs and working conditions. The moderating effect of gender with job satisfaction and turnover intention among lecturers in HEIs should be examined due to the mixed results between this relationship of gender with job satisfaction and turnover intention.

Based on the literature review above, it was thus hypothesised that;

H9: Gender has a moderating effect on the relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention.

Based on the literature review, Figure 2.1 shows the research model for the study on push and pull factors and their relationships between lecturer's job satisfaction and turnover intention in Malaysian private universities. This study examines the relationships of internal pull factors, internal push factors, and external pull factors on lecturers' job satisfaction and intention to quit. This study also examines the relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention as well as the moderating effect of both gender and age on the relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention.

2.12 Conceptual Model:

H1 Internal Pull Factors
(Intrinsic Motivational Factors)

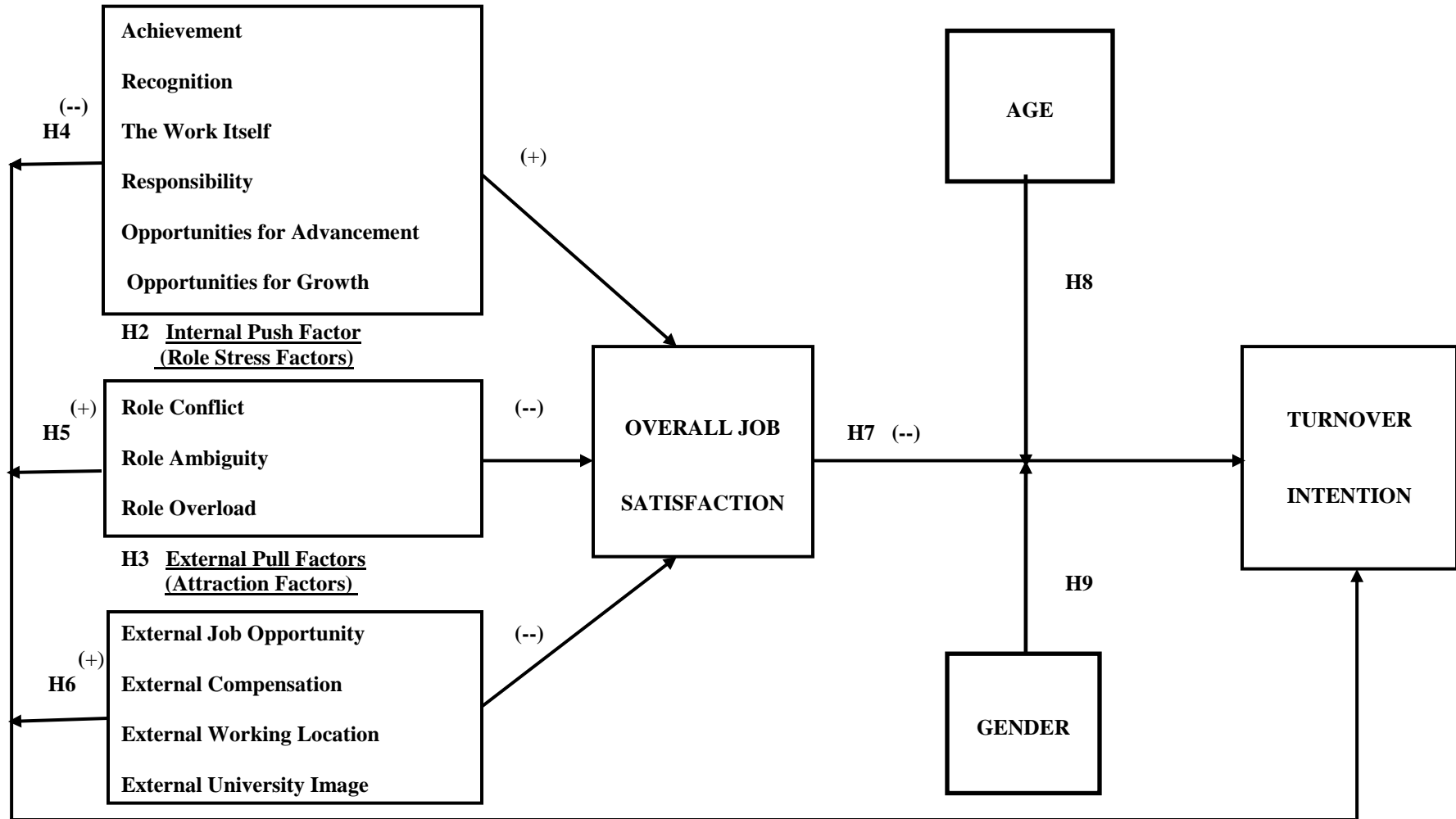


Figure 2.1: Push and Pull Factors: Relationships with Lecturers' Job satisfaction and Turnover Intention

2.13 Conclusion

The hypotheses developed for this study are summarised as below:

H1: Lecturers who experience a higher level in the internal pull factors (achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, opportunity for advancement and opportunity for growth) will have a higher level of job satisfaction.

Alternatively:

H1: There is a significant positive relationship between internal pull factors (achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, opportunity for advancement and opportunity for growth) and lecturers' job satisfaction.

H2: Lecturers who experience a higher level in the internal push factors (role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload) will have a lower level of job satisfaction.

Alternatively

H2: There is a significant negative relationship between internal push factors (role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload) and lecturers' job satisfaction.

H3: Lecturers who perceive more favourable external pull factors (job opportunity, external compensation, external working location and external university image) will experience a lower level of job satisfaction.

Alternatively

H3: There is a significant negative relationship between external pull factors (job opportunity, external compensation, external working location and external university image) and lecturers' job satisfaction.

H4: Lecturers who experience a higher level in the internal pull factors (achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, opportunity for advancement and opportunity for growth) will have a lower level of turnover intention.

Alternatively

H4: There is a significant negative relationship between internal pull factors (achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, opportunity for advancement and opportunity for growth) and lecturers' turnover intention.

H5: Lecturers who experience a higher level in the internal push factors (role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload) will have a higher level of turnover intention.

Alternatively

H5: There is a significant positive relationship between internal push factors (role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload) and lecturers' turnover intention.

H6: Lecturers who perceive more favourable external pull factors (job opportunity, external compensation, external working location and external university image) will have a higher level of turnover intention.

Alternatively

H6: There is a significant positive relationship between external pull factors (job opportunity, external compensation, external working location and external university image) and lecturers' turnover intention.

H7: Job satisfaction is inversely related to turnover intention, i.e a lower job satisfaction would result in a higher turnover intention.

Alternatively

H7: There is a significant negative relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention.

H8: Age has a moderating effect on the relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention.

Alternatively

H8: There is a moderating effect of age on the relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention.

H9: Gender has a moderating effect on the relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention.

Alternatively

H9: There is a moderating effect of Gender on the relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention.

In Chapter 2, the research relating to internal pull factors, internal push factors and external pull factors were reviewed. The theories underlying the factors, proposed model and hypotheses were discussed. The subsequent chapter describes the research method of this study.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHOD

3.0 Introduction

In this chapter, the research methodology outline is described and the areas covered are on the investigation of the effects of the push and pulls factors on lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention, as well as the effect of lecturers' job satisfaction on turnover intention. The moderating effect of age and gender is studied with lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention as well. Chapter 3 comprises of the research philosophy, research paradigm, research approach, research design, research purpose, research choice, research strategy, time horizon, the determination of population size, research setting, the sample procedure, research instrument, the method used for data collection, the design of the questionnaire, the construct measurement, pilot test and data analysis performed.

3.1 Research Design

The aim of every study is subject to the way a researcher thinks the expansion of information affects the way of doing the research (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). Hence, the positivism approach is applied in this study as positivism refers

to the knowledge of generating research strategy through the collection of data using existing theories which have been mentioned in chapter 2. Next, the paradigm used in this study was the functionalist paradigm (objective regulation) as according to Burrell and Morgan (1979), the functionalist paradigm assumes human action and that hypothesis testing is applied to understand organisational behaviour. As for the research approach, the deductive approach is used as according to Bryman and Bell (2011) and Saunders et al. (2009), it is the most common view of the nature of the relationship between theory and research.

This research is an explanatory research, as Saunders et al. (2009) stated that explanatory research is used when establishing relationships between variables. As for the research method, this study uses the mono method quantitative design using questionnaires as the single quantitative data collection method which is suitable to study the relationships between the independent and dependent variables. Next, the research strategy applied in this study is the survey method as it is usually linked with the deductive approach (Saunders et al., 2009). The cross-sectional study was applied in this study due to time constraints; furthermore, it is mostly applied in survey strategy (Saunders & Tosey, 2013; Saunders et al. 2009). Finally, the unit of analysis of this research study was individual lecturers. As such, the target respondents were the full time lecturers at the private universities in Malaysia.

3.2 Research Setting

The chosen research setting of this study was Klang Valley, Malaysia and it involved all full time private university lecturers from the Faculty of Business. This research setting was ideal for this study due to several reasons; firstly, there has been a rapid increase in the number of private universities in the Klang Valley (MOHE, 2015); secondly, there has been report of higher turnover rate of lecturers in private universities (45.45%) as compared to public universities (18.18%) (MOHE, 2014). Furthermore, Ramasamy and Abdullah (2017) reported that turnover rate of faculties at private universities was around 18 %, while Rathakrishnan et al.(2016) study on 253 private universities lecturers in the Klang Valley revealed that job satisfaction explained lecturers' turnover intention

Next, there was also a surge in the popularity of business programmes as seen in the high student enrolment in both local and international students as compared to other faculties (MOHE, 2017). Next, there was an increased emphasis by MOHE to expand the business programmes in Malaysian universities with the focus on executive education and Islamic banking and finance (Tan, 2014); also, there was a surge in the request for business lecturers in Malaysia (Tan, 2014) and reports from past studies indicated higher turnover and low job satisfaction of business lecturers compared to other faculties (Anapol, 2016; Figueroa, 2015; Sabharwal & Corley, 2009; Trei, 2001; Ward & Sloane, 2000). Finally, intrinsic motivational factors, stress factors and attraction factors were also found to affect business

lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention (Adrian et al., 2014; Hunt et al., 2009; Paul, & Phua, 2011; Ramasamy & Abdullah, 2017; Rathakrishna et al., 2016). As such, these reasons made the chosen research setting suitable for the study of push and pull factors and its relationship with lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention.

3.3 Sampling Procedure

To determine the population size, firstly the total number of private universities in Malaysia must be determined. At the point of conducting this study, there were a total of 47 private universities in Malaysia. Please refer to Appendix D for the list of 47 private universities in Malaysia. From the 47 private universities in Malaysia, 34 private universities (70%) were located in the Klang Valley. Please refer to Appendix E for the list of 34 private universities in the Klang Valley.

Fifteen private universities were removed from the list of 34 due to the following reasons: (1) these private universities only conducted online programmes and employed part-time lecturers; (2) these private universities are foreign branch universities governed under the foreign universities and as such, they may have a different administration and working environment; (3) these private universities were under the jurisdiction of public universities but offered programmes in collaboration with UK universities and lastly (5) these private universities did not have a Faculty of Business as the Faculty of Business was located in a different

state, or these universities were fully Medical Universities. Please refer to Appendix F for the list of 15 private universities from the Klang Valley that were removed.

The final list contains only 19 private universities from the Klang Valley. The name lists of the Business Faculty lecturers from these 19 private universities were either obtained from the respective university official websites or from the Business Faculty itself. The total number of full-time lecturers from the Faculty of Business from the 19 private universities totalled 849 lecturers ranging from the lowest being five lecturers and the highest being 80 lecturers. The average number of lecturers was 43. Please refer to Appendix G for the total number of full-time Faculty of Business lecturers from each of the 19 private universities in the Klang Valley.

Sekaran (2003) stated that in research, sampling size is important in drawing a generalised conclusion of the target population size. As such, a researcher would make inferences from the sample size about the target population size to meet the required objective of the research. Also, using a sample would give a higher overall accuracy as compared to a census. The next step was to determine the sample size. According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970), a formula was developed to show the expected sample size of the population of the study in order to simplify the process of determining the sample size. This ensured that the researcher was able to obtain a representative sample of the study. Krejcie and

Morgan (1970) stated that "as the population increases, the sample sizes increases at a diminishing rate and remains relatively constant at slightly more than 380 cases" (p. 607). A sample size of 265 lecturers is obtained using the formula by Krejcie and Morgan (1970). Please refer to Appendix H of the Krejcie & Morgan (1970) table for determining sample size from a given population. A sample size of 265 is recommended to be sufficient for the Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) technique as according to Weston and Gore (2006), when a researcher anticipates no problem with data, a minimum sample size of 200 is recommended for any SEM. In fact, various authors have mentioned that a sample size of 200 is sufficient for SEM analysis (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2013; Hoelter, 1983; Iacobucci, 2009; Kline, 2011; Lei & Wu, 2007; Loehlin, 2004).

3.4 Data Collection Method

Data collection was done using self-administered questionnaire. The self-administered questionnaire method allowed the respondents to seek any clarification regarding any doubt on the questionnaire. Also, self administered questionnaire provide a better and higher response rate, hence this method was applied as apposed to mailed questionnaire. According to Rubin and Babbie (2010, p. 384) "hand delivered questionnaire where the researchers hand delivers would generate a higher response rate as compared to mailed questinnaire". A clear introductory letter explaining the intention of the research was also attached with the questionnaire. Questionnaires were distributed to all the 849 full-time

Faculty of Business lecturers from the 19 private universities in the Klang Valley. The respondents filled up an acknowledgement form; that they agreed to take part in the survey. The respondents had to fill up the questionnaire and return it in an enclosed enveloped which was sealed thus ensuring the anonymity of the respondent. This allowed for guaranteed confidentiality and respondents would be more truthful and objective when answering the questionnaire.

The distribution began from October 2014 to February 2015 at a specific date and time at each of the Faculty of Business of the 19 private universities. A follow up was made to improve response rate. Questionnaires were returned from January 2015 to May 2015 after ensuring a maximum response rate was obtained. Since the target population involved 19 private universities with a varying number of full-time lecturers at each Faculty of Business, it was important to ensure that the target sample was proportion-to-size. To illustrate, the proportion-to-size calculated for the Faculty of Business lecturers at the Asia Pacific University of Technology & Innovation (APU) was 16. This was obtained by taking the target population at APU (50) and dividing it with the total target population size (849) and finally multiplying that with the target sample size of (265).

Upon calculating the target sample, the researcher had to ensure that the response from each Faculty of Business should meet the calculated proportion-to-size. This was done by firstly, distributing the questionnaires to all the 849 lecturers at the Faculty of Business of each of the 19 private universities at a specific date and time. For example, most of the Business Faculties at these private universities

conducted weekly faculty meetings which are attended by Business Faculty lecturers. This was a good opportunity for the researcher to distribute the questionnaires to each lecturer during the faculty meetings.

Some of these private universities however, did not have weekly faculty meetings, hence, the distribution in this case had to be done by visiting the Business Faculty lecturers personally at their respective lecturer rooms according to their consultation hours. In this case, the researcher had to return on a weekly basis to ensure that each lecturer received the questionnaire. To ensure a maximum response rate was achieved, a follow up was conducted each week, again, either by meeting the Business Faculty lecturers during their weekly faculty meetings or by meeting them at their respective lecturer rooms. This procedure was conducted weekly until the required target sample was achieved. Please refer to the Table 3.1 below for the calculated proportion-to-size.

Table 3.1: Proportion-to-Size

NO	University	Actual Population: Lecturers from Faculty of Business	Target Sample: Lecturers from Faculty of Business
1	Asia Pacific University of Technology & Innovation (APU)	50	16
2	HELP University	36	11
3	MAHSA University	5	2
4	University Tunku Abdul Rahman (UTAR)	80	25
5	UCSI University	48	15
6	University of Kuala Lumpur (UniKL)	31	10
7	Binary University of Management & Entrepreneurship (BUME)	10	3
8	Infrastructure University Kuala Lumpur (IUKL)	32	10
9	Limkokwing University of Creative Technology (LUCT)	34	11
10	Malaysia University of Science & Technology (MUST)	30	9
11	Management and Science University (MSU) (Universiti Sains dan Pengurusan)	80	25
12	SEGi University (SEGi)	30	9
13	Sunway University (SYUC)	54	17
14	Taylor's University (TAYLOR)	75	23
15	Tun Abdul Razak University (UNIRAZAK)	43	13
16	University of Selangor (UNISEL)	66	21
17	UNITAR International University (UNITAR)	48	15
18	Asia Metropolitan University (AMU)	20	6
19	Multimedia University (MMU)	77	24
		849	265

3.5 Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire comprises of two sections; Section A and Section B. Section A comprises of the demographic characteristics of the respondent consisting of nine questions. The respondents were asked to provide information with regards to

their gender, race, age, marital status, highest education qualification, academic rank, gross income per month, current employment status, number of years and months teaching at the current university. The nominal, ordinal and ratio scale were used for the questions relating to demographic profile. The questions in Section A allowed the calculation of the frequencies, means and standard deviations. On top of that, the data for age and gender would be used to examine the moderating effects of age and gender with job satisfaction and turnover intention.

Section B consisted of questions on the job environmental factors at the universities which had five sub-sections. The first section consisted of the internal pull factors or intrinsic motivation factors which are; achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, opportunities for advancement and opportunities for growth. The second section consisted of the internal push factors or role stressors covering role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload. Third section consisted of the external pull factors or external attraction factors which were job opportunity, compensation, university image and working location. The fourth section was on job satisfaction and the last section was on turnover intention.

Section B was designed to ask the respondents, who are the full-time lecturers from the Faculty of Business from the 19 private universities in the Klang Valley on their opinions regarding different aspects of their job environment in their

university. Each statement in the questionnaire was related to the lecturers' perception towards the university.

The data collected from Section B would be used to examine the relationships among the variables of the study. There are 84 questions in Section B comprising of the number of questions for each of the variables. 32 questions on internal pull factors / intrinsic motivational factors, 20 questions on internal push factors / role stress factors, 24 questions on external pull factors/ external attraction factors, five questions on job satisfaction and three questions on turnover intention.

3.5.1 Construct Measurement

3.5.1.1 Internal Pull Factors

The internal pull factors or intrinsic motivation factors are achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, opportunities for advancement and opportunities for growth. The measurement scales used for this section were adopted from Wood's (1973) and Wood's (1976) faculty job satisfaction/dissatisfaction scale and Smerek and Peterson's (2007) job satisfaction scale.

According to Wood (1973), prior to this study, there was no instrument designed to measure job satisfaction/dissatisfaction in the system. An instrument did not exist to measure the dimensions of Herzberg et al.'s (1959) Motivation-Hygiene

Theory; hence this led to the development of the faculty job satisfaction/dissatisfaction scale designed to measure each of Herzberg et al.'s (1959) job satisfaction dimensions. The faculty job satisfaction and dissatisfaction scale established by Wood (1973) was used to measure faculty motivation in the North Carolina Community College system (NCCCS) and to test the hypothesis relating to Herzberg et al.'s (1959) theory. With the review of literature on motivation, job satisfaction and attitudes, the research instrument was developed by North Carolina State University's graduate class of NCCCS instructors. The instrument was then reviewed and refined by a jury composed of NCCCS lecturers and graduate students who were former instructors at NCCCS. Face validity and content validity was determined. Finally the panel concluded that Wood's (1973) job satisfaction / dissatisfaction instrument was deemed as adequate for data collection of the research after conducting the factor analysis, and reliability coefficients for internal consistency. The cronbach alphas produced by Wood (1973) for achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility and opportunity for growth ranged from 0.85 to 0.94. Wood (1976) published the faculty job satisfaction/dissatisfaction scale and stated that researchers are encouraged to modify the instrument to suit local needs at the respective faculties. Wood (1973) and Wood (1976) job satisfaction/dissatisfaction scale has been widely used on research pertaining to lecturers' job satisfaction/dissatisfaction, all producing cronbach alphas ranging from 0.70 to 0.97 (Bowen, & Radhakrishna, 1991; Cano, & Miller, 1992; Castillo, & Cano, 1992; Castillo et al., 1999; Foor, & Cano, 2011; Chen, 2009; Gilman et al., 2012; Murray & Murray, 1998; Sadeghi et

al., 2012; Wong, & Teoh, 2009). The scale has also been validated by Chen (2009) producing a cronbach alpha of 0.76.

The scale for opportunities for advancement however was adopted from Smerek and Peterson (2007). Smerek and Peterson (2007) examined Herzberg et al.'s (1959) theory and used all variables of the Motivation-Hygiene theory with the intention of improving the job satisfaction of non-academic university employees. Questions were developed testing all elements of Herzberg et al.'s (1959) Motivation- Hygiene theory, by the University of Michigan at Ann Arbor led by an organisational development specialist with an external customer-satisfaction consulting firm. The job satisfaction survey was developed and a survey was conducted on all business operations employees at a large public research university studying the effects of motivators and hygiene factors on job satisfaction. Smerek and Peterson's (2007) opportunity for advancement scale has been used to study job satisfaction of both academic and non-academic staff at universities; and has produced cronbach alphas ranging from 0.75 to 0.97 (Ahmed, Nawaz, Iqbal, Ali, Shaukat, & Usman, 2010; Hagos, & Abrha, 2015; Kundratova, 2009; Oladotun & Oztuzen, 2013; Stefanowska-Petkovska, Bojadziev, & Velikj-Stefanovska, 2014).

A 6-point Likert scale was used to measure each of the internal pull factors; achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, opportunities for advancement and opportunities for growth in this study. A 6-point Likert scale is

used as (1) it removed the neutral 9option and (2) according to Preston and Colman (2000), although the issue of the optimal number of response categories in rating scales has not been resolved, however scales with relatively more response categories (six or more) reported the best criterion validity and correlate best with one another, while two-point and three-point correlate less highly with the longer scales. Lee and Paek (2014) nevertheless found that there were no differences between the psychometric properties of scales using 4, 5 and 6. The variables for internal pull factors were measured in terms of the extent to which each of the items exist in the respondent's job, ranging from 1 = to no extent to 6 = to a very great extent.

Please refer to Table 3.2 for the list of items used to measure each variable under the internal pull factors; achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, opportunities for advancement and opportunities for growth.

Table 3.2: List of Items Used to Measure Each Variable under the Internal Pull Factors

Internal Pull Factor Intrinsic Motivation factors	
Source	List of Items
Achievement (Wood, 1976, p. 61)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "The actual achievement of work-related goals." 2. "The immediate results from my work." 3. "The actual adoption of practices which I recommend". 4. "Personal goal attainment." 5. "Students follow the practices being taught by me." 6. "Observing my students' growth and success over a period of time." 7. "I am able to objectively evaluate my accomplishments."
Recognition (Wood, 1976, p. 62)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "Recognition of my accomplishments by co-workers." 2. "Recognition of my accomplishments by superiors." 3. "My recognition compared to that of my co-workers." 4. "The recognition I get from the management for my ideas." 5. "Publicity given to my work and activities."
The Work Itself (Wood, 1976, p.63)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "I enjoy the type of work I do." 2. "My job is interesting." 3. "The challenging aspects of teaching." 4. "My level of enthusiasm about teaching." 5. "My job gives me a sense of accomplishment." 6. "The work I do make a difference in my faculty."
Responsibility (Wood, 1976, p. 62)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "The responsibility I have to get the job done." 2. "The total amount of responsibility I have." 3. "My responsibilities compared with those of my co-workers." 4. "Committee responsibilities." 5. "Responsibilities outside my major areas of interest."
Opportunities for Advancement (Smerek & Peterson, 2007,p. 237)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "Opportunities for advancement or promotion exist within the university." 2. "I know what is required of me to advance within the university." 3. "Internal candidates receive fair consideration for open positions." 4. "Information about job vacancies within the university is readily available."

Table 3.2 Continued

Internal Pull Factor Intrinsic Motivation factors	
Source	List of Items
Opportunities for Growth (Wood,1976,p 61)	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. "Opportunities for increased responsibility in education."2. "Opportunities provided for growth in education compared with growth in other fields."3. "Participation in in-service education."4. "Opportunities to grow professionally through formal education."5. "Opportunities to attend professional conferences, workshops, seminars and other professional activities."

3.5.1.2 Internal Push Factors

The internal push factors consist of role stressors which are role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload. The scale used for role conflict and role ambiguity was taken from Rizzo et al. (1970). Rizzo et al. (1970) developed the role conflict and role ambiguity scale with the intention of examining how these role stressors disrupt an organisation. Rizzo et al. (1970) developed the role perception questionnaire to measure the employees' perceptions of their jobs, work roles and organisational features. The 14 item role perception questionnaire developed by Rizzo et al. (1970) was administered to a research and engineering division at a central office and main plant of a firm.

Rizzo et al. (1970) role conflict and role ambiguity scales are one of the most frequently used scales and has been frequently used in organisational psychology research (Kelloway & Barling, 1990). Gregson & Wendell (1994) stated that

nearly 85% of studies have measured role conflict and role ambiguity using the scale developed by Rizzo et al. (1970). The scales have been widely used over the years on various professions such as academics, nurses, sales force and mental health facility staff; all producing cronbach alphas ranging from 0.70 to 0.90 (Boles et al. 2003; Conley & Woosely, 1999; Dilshad & Latif, 2011; Glazer & Beehr, 2005; Hartenian et al., 1994; Idris, 2010; Idris, 2011; Jex et al., 1992; Schulz, & Auld, 2006).

The role overload scale was developed by Reilly (1982) with the purpose of measuring role overload. Rizzo et al.'s (1970) role conflict and role ambiguity scale was the basis for Reilly's (1982) 13 item role overload scale. The scale was used to study the effect of role overload of working wives. Reilly (1982) scale has been widely used to measure role overload (Thiagarajan et al., 2006; Jones et al., 2007). Thiagarajan et al. (2006) performed a factors analysis of Reilly's (1982) scale to determine the uni-dimensionality of the scale and hence produced a reduced version comprising of six items only with fit indexes exceeding 0.95. For this study Thiagarajan et al.'s (2006) six item scale was used. The reliability of the role overload scale has been well documented, producing cronbach alphas ranging from 0.88 to 0.95 (Jensen, Patel, & Messersmith, 2013; Jones et al., 2007; Thiagarajan et al., 2006).

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In this study each of the internal push factors; role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload were measured using a 6-point Likert scale. The variables were

measured in terms of level of agreement ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree.

Please refer to Appendix Table 3.3 for the list of items used to measure each variable under the internal push factors; role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload.

Table 3.3: List of Items Used to Measure Each Variable under the Internal Push Factors

Internal Push Factors /Role Stress Factors	
Soure	List of Items
Role Overload (Thiagarajan, Chakrabarty & Taylor, 2006, p. 665)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "I have to do things which I don't really have the time and energy for." 2. "I need more hours in the day to do all the things which are expected of me." 3. "I can't ever seem to catch up." 4. "I don't ever seem to have any time for myself." 5. "There are times when I can't meet everyone's expectations." 6. "I seem to have more commitments to overcome than some of the other lecturers I know."
Role Ambiguity (Rizzo, House & Lirtzman, 1970, p. 156)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "I know exactly what is expected of me." 2. "I feel certain about how much authority I have" 3. "Clear, planned goals and objectives exist for my job." 4. "I know that I have divided my time properly." 5. "I know what my responsibilities are." 6. "Explanation is clear of what has to be done."

Table 3.3 Continued

Internal Push Factors /Role Stress Factors	
List of Items	List of Items
Role Conflict (Rizzo, House & Lirtzman, 1970, p. 156)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "I have to do things that should be done differently. 2. "I work on unnecessary things." 3. "I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it." 4. "I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it." 5. "I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently." 6. "I have to buck (<i>go against</i>) a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment." 7. "I receive incompatible requests from two or more people." 8. "I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others."

3.5.1.3 External Pull Factors

Job opportunity, compensation, working location and university image are categorised as external pull factors which are attraction factors to lecturers. The job opportunity scale was adapted from Daly and Dee (2006). Daly and Dee (2006) used the job opportunity scale to examine the impact that job opportunity had on faculty intention to stay in urban public universities. Daly and Dee's (2006) scale has been used in faculty turnover studies producing cronbach alphas ranging from 0.70 to 0.80 (Al-Omari et al. 2008).

Next, Wood (1973) and Wood's (1976) compensation scale was adopted for this study. The scale has been widely used and applied in the research on faculty job satisfaction and turnover intention producing cronbach alphas ranging from 0.70 to 0.97 (Bowen, & Radhakrishna, 1991; Cano, & Miller, 1992; Castillo, & Cano, 1992; Castillo et al., 1999; Foor, & Cano, 2011; Gilman et al., 2012; Murray, & Murray, 1998; Sadeghi et al., 2012; Wong, & Teoh, 2009).

The scale for university image was measured using a six item-scale adopted from Duarte et al.'s (2010) study on the understanding of university image using the structural equation approach which has been cited more than 84 times. Finally, the extensive literature review conducted revealed that there were limited studies available for the scale working location as an attraction factor to join another university. These studies did not provide a suitable scale consistent with the definition of the study which is working location as an attraction factor (Hunt, Eaton, & Reinstein, 2009; Ingersoll, 2001; Kee, 2011; Mahony, Mondello, Hums, & Judd, 2006). Nevertheless the review of literature on studies on turnover and retention of teachers disclosed that a teacher's decision to stay or leave was influenced by the distance, transportation and the remoteness of their school from a teacher's home (Ashiedu & Scott-Ladd, 2012). Although Ashiedu & Scott-Ladd's (2012) study was unable to provide a measurement for the working location scale, it did however provide a basis to determining the possible items that would make up the scale for working location. Having said that, it was

deemed necessary to hold a focus group discussion to determine the items for the construct working location for this study.

The items for working location was developed using a focus group interview among 10 lecturers at a fixed day and time at the Faculty of Business from the post-graduate centre at a private university. The development of the working location items with the 10 lecturers began by first explaining the reason why the study was conducted, the explanation of the meaning of working location as an attraction factor to lecturers and that each of the items for this working location should indicate the degree of attractiveness of the working location in other universities in comparison to the lecturer's current university.

The lecturers' voiced their views and brainstormed on what were the possible items that should be included for this construct. Six of the participants stated that accessibility of transportation was important as lecturers may be dependent on public transportation to reach their work place from their place of stay. Several lecturers stated traffic was a major factor due to the traffic congestion in the Klang Valley. Five of the lecturers indicated that they would be attracted to a working location that had ample parking facilities. Eight of the lecturers stated that travelling time and distance of the university from their home were factors that would also attract them to another university. Finally several lecturers stated that alternative commuting routes was an attraction factor again, because of the traffic congestion and the ongoing construction of the Mass Rapid Transit

(MRT) throughout the Klang Valley. Based on their feedback and comments provided by the lecturers involved, a six-item scale was created to measure the attractiveness of other working locations and this scale covered several aspects of working location that was discussed in the focus group--accessibility of transportation, time taken commuting, distance, traffic, alternative commuting routes and parking facilities. The grammar for each item was refined; the finalised six item scale for working location was presented to the 10 lecturers who participated in the focus group. The final version was given approval by the panel of 10 lecturers.

In this study, each of the external pull factors; job opportunity, compensation, working location and university image were measured using a 6-point Likert scale. The external pull factors; compensation, working location and university image were measured in terms of attractiveness ranging from 1 = not attractive at all to 6 = attractive to a very great extent, while job opportunity was measured in terms of level of agreement ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree.

Please refer to Table 3.4 for the individual items of each variable under the external pull factors; job opportunity, compensation, working location and university image.

Table 3.4: List of Items Used to Measure Each Variable under the External Pull Factors

External Pull Factors/ Attraction Factors	
Source	List of Items
Job opportunity (Daly & Dee, 2006, p. 798)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "There are plenty of good academic jobs that I could have outside my current university." 2. "Given the state of the academic job market, finding a job would be very difficult for me." 3. "It would be difficult for me to find another academic job that I like as much as my current job at the university." 4. "There is at least one good academic job that I could begin immediately if I were to leave my current university." 5. "I have good job opportunities outside my current university."
Compensation (Wood, 1976, p. 62-63)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "The method used to determine salary in other universities." 2. "The range of salaries paid to lecturers in other universities." 3. "The amount of salary paid to lecturers in other universities." 4. "The pay increment paid to lecturers in other universities." 5. "The bonus paid to lecturers in other universities." 6. "The fringe benefits available to lecturers in other universities." 7. "The incentives available to lecturers in other universities."
University Image (Duarte, Alves, & Raposo, 2010, p. 31)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "The physical facilities of other universities." 2. "The teaching quality of other universities." 3. "Being a well known university." 4. "The reputation of lecturers of other universities." 5. "The national academic reputation of other universities." 6. "The research funding available to lecturers at other universities."

Table 3.4 Continued

External Pull Factors/ Attraction Factors	
Source	List of Items
Working Location (developed by the author for this research)	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. “Accessibility of transportation between my place of stay and other universities.”2. “Time taken commuting between my place of stay and other universities.”3. “Distance between my place of stay and other universities.”4. “Traffic between my place of stay and other universities.”5. “Alternative commuting routes between my place of stay and other universities.6. “Parking facilities of other universities and their surroundings.”

3.5.1.4 Job Satisfaction

According to Thompson and Phua (2012) job satisfaction is an important construct in research on group and organisational management. For this study, the overall job satisfaction, which is the sum of facets is measured using the five item job satisfaction scale. The five item job satisfaction scale was developed by Judge, Locke, Durham, and Kluger (1998) after refining Brayfield and Rothe's (1951) 18 item job satisfaction scale. Brayfield, and Rothe (1951) developed an 18 item job satisfaction scale to give a measure of job satisfaction rather than to examine specific aspects of job content. The scale was developed to capture the overall attitudinal feeling towards a job and is generally an effective job satisfaction measure (Thompson & Phua, 2012).

According to Thompson and Phua, (2012) the 18 item scale was considered too long for many research purposes as reflected in its numerous abridgements. As such, Judge et al. (1998) refined Brayfield and Rothe's (1951) 18 item job satisfaction scale by developing a five item abridged job satisfaction scale. Judge et al.'s (1998) five item abridge job satisfaction scale has since been used by other researchers as well (Bono & Judge, 2003; Ho & Au, 2006; Hochwarter, Kasmir, Perrewe, & Johnson, 2003). As such for this study, Judge et al.'s (1998) five item abridged job satisfaction scale was used.

In this study job satisfaction was measured in terms of level of agreement ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree using a 6-point Likert scale. Please refer to Table 3.5 for the individual items of the variable job satisfaction.

Table 3.5: List of Items for the Variable Job Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction	
Source	List of Items
Job Satisfaction (Judge, Locke, Durham & Kluger, 1998, p. 17)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job." 2. "Most days I am enthusiastic about my work." 3. "Each day at work seems like it will never end." 4. "I find real enjoyment in my work." 5. "I consider my job to be rather unpleasant."

3.5.1.5 Turnover Intention

Turnover intention was measured using the three item scale taken from Mobley et al. (1978). As mentioned in Chapter two, Mobley (1977) developed a basic model of the employee withdrawal decision process. A simplified version was developed by Mobley et al. (1978) whereby the job satisfaction precedes thoughts of quitting, intention to search and intention to quit. This sequence of steps will then lead to an employee making the actual decision to leave. This led to the development of the three item scale for turnover intention. The Mobley et al. (1978) model has been adapted and supported by numerous studies (Cameli, 2005; Bannister, & Griffeth, 1986; Chan, Yeoh, Lim, & Osman 2010; Hom et al., 1992; Michaels, & Spector 1982; Miller, Katerberg, & Hulin, 1979, Mowday et al., 1984; Spencer, Steers, & Mowday, 1983 Steel, & Lounsbury, 2009). In this study, turnover intention was measured in terms of level of agreement ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree using a 6-point Likert scale. Please refer to Table 3.6 for the individual items of the variable turnover intention.

Table 3.6: List of Items for the Variable Turnover Intention

Turnover Intention	
Source	List of Items
Turnover Intention (Mobley, Horner & Hollingsworth, 1978, p. 410).	1. "I often think about quitting my current job." 2. "I will probably search for a new job." 3. "I have the intention to leave my current university."

Please refer to Appendix I for the individual items of all variables in the study

3.5.2 Pilot Test

The purpose of the pilot test was to improve the questionnaire so that respondents would not have problems in answering the questions and the researcher would not have problems in recording the data (Saunders et al., 2009). The researcher of this study approached a group of 30 lecturers from the language and postgraduate departments to comment on the clarity of the questions which would be an appropriate size for pilot testing as according to Johnson and Brooke (2010). The group of lecturers found five questions that were ambiguous and these questions were rephrased accordingly. Table 3.7 represents the five questions that were rephrased.

Table 3.7: List of Rephrased Questions

No	Section/Variable/No	Before	After
1	Section B/Achievement/Q5	Students follow the practices being taught.	Students follow the practices being taught by me.
2	Section B/Achievement/Q6	Observing students' growth and success over a period of time.	Observing my students' growth and success over a period of time.
3	Section B/ The Work itself/Q6	I make a difference in my faculty.	The work i do make a difference in my faculty.
4	Section B/ Job Opportunity/Q3	It would be difficult for me to find another academic job that i like as well as my job at my current university.	It would be difficult for me to find another academic job that i like as much as my current job at the university.
5	Section B/ University Image/Q2	The global quality of teaching of other universities.	The teaching quality of other universities.

3.6 Data Analysis

Data analysis is the process of ordering, structuring and providing meaning to the collected data. The data analysis included descriptive statistics of the data for demographics, independent variables and dependent variables of the study, assessment of normality and outliers, reliability estimation and exploratory factor analysis (EFA) which covers computation of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO), Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, Eigenvalue and screen plots and rotated component matrix for external pull factors only. This was done using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 22.

The SEM (Structural Equation Model) AMOS (Analysis of Moment Structures) version 22 statistical software was used for the inferential analysis which includes confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). CFA will test the model's goodness of fit using Chi-square value (χ^2) (CMIN), Normed chi-square ratio (CMIN/df), Goodness-of-fit index (GFI), Root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA), Tucker Lewis index (TLI) and Comparative fit index (CFI). Finally this was followed by the path analysis and moderation test for gender and age on the relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention using SEM.

3.6.1 Data Coding

All data was coded before it was entered into the SPSS statistical software. All missing data was coded with the number 99 for blank. Recoding was done for reverse coding items for role ambiguity, job opportunity for item two and item three and for job satisfaction for item three and item five. In this study, using SPSS, reverse coded items are recoded into the same variable (Salkind, 2007).

3.6.2 Descriptive Analysis

The descriptive data is a summary of the frequency distribution and percentage distribution of the demographic profiles of the respondents. The descriptive analysis was important to explain the demographic profiles of the respondents of Section A in the questionnaire. The section covered gender, race, age, marital status, highest education qualification, academic rank, gross income per month, current employment status and the number of year and months teaching at the current university. Descriptive statistics was also conducted for all the independent variables and dependent variables with description on mean response and standard deviation for each variable.

3.6.3 Normality and Outliers

Normality and outliers were assessed by referring to descriptive statistics for mean and standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis of each variable in the study.

3.6.4 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

EFA is commonly used in the field of psychology and education as it is considered the method suitable for interpreting self-reporting questionnaire (Williams, Onsman, & Brown, 2010). According to Hair et al. (2013), EFA is conducted to define the underlying structure among the variables in the analysis. Furthermore, according to Byrne (2010), EFA is designed for the situation where links between the observed and latent variables are unknown or uncertain, thus EFA will determine how and to what extent the observed and latent variables are linked to their underlying factors. As such, a researcher may want to test hypothesis involving issues as to which variables should be grouped together in a factor or the precise number of factors (Hair et al., 2013).

As mentioned by Hair et al. (2013), EFA may be used when a new scale has been developed for a questionnaire. Since the scale for working location was developed for this study, an EFA was conducted for external pull factors to identify the dimensionality of items and to drop items that have a low factor loading as well as

redundant items (Awang, 2014; Hair et al., 2013). In this study, an EFA was thus conducted to categorise the suitable items for each of the external pull factors.

For this study, the principal component analysis (PCA) method is used as it is not only the default method in many statistical programs but the PCA method is recommended when no priori theory or model exists (Hair et al., 2013; Williams et al., 2010). Next, the varimax method for rotation is used since it has been widely applied in research studies (Hair et al., 2013). To measure sampling adequacy, a KMO test is conducted and results must be greater than 0.60 for each individual variable as well as the set of variables in order to support the retention of the variable in the analysis (Coakes & Ong, 2010; Kaiser & Rice, 1974).

This is then followed by the Bartlett's test of sphericity which is a statistical test for the overall significance of all correlations within a correlation matrix (Hair et al., 2013). According to Hair et al. (2013) Bartlett's test result must be $p\text{-value} < 0.005$ for a level of significance. A non-significant result means that the data is not suitable for factor analysis. Next the eigenvalue and screen plot will be analysed to estimate the number of factors that should be selected for the study (Hair et al., 2013). The variance of each standardised variable contributes to 1, as such eigenvalues must be greater than 1. The cumulative proportion of the variance criteria must be 60% or more of the total variance. Also, screen plots that are retained are factors above the elbow or break in the plot as this contributes the most to the explanation of the variance in the data set (Pallant, 2010).

Finally factor loading is conducted as it represents the correlation of the variables with a factor (Kline, 1994). Using the PCA extraction and varimax rotation, the rule of thumb in rotated component matrix in assessing factor loading is that factor loadings of 0.30 to 0.40 are minimally acceptable, however values greater than 0.50 are considered necessary for practical significance (Hair et al., 2013). In this study, factor loading must be greater than 0.50.

Table 3.8 shows the summary of EFA test and level of acceptance.

Table 3.8: EFA Test and Level of Acceptance

No	Name of EFA test	Level of Acceptance
1.	Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin (KMO) Measure of sampling adequacy (MSA)	KMO>0.6
2.	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	p<0.005
3	Eigenvalues	>1; total cumulative value > 60%
4.	Screenplots	Retained factors above the elbow or break in the plot
5.	Factor Loading: Rotated component matrix	>0.5

3.6.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

According to Awang (2014), CFA is used to assess the unidimensionality, validity and reliability of the latent constructs. According to Hair et al. (2013), while EFA is used to explore the data and provide the researcher with information about how many factors are needed to best represent the data of this study, the CFA will be used to provide a confirmatory test of the measurement model. The CFA of a measuring instrument is most appropriately applied to measures that are fully developed and their factor structures validated (Byrne, 2010). Hence, CFA is conducted for the factor validity of the theoretical constructs of internal pull factors, internal push factors, external pull factors, job satisfaction and turnover intention.

The CFA in this study is conducted using SEM AMOS. The SEM measurement model is a statistical methodology that takes a confirmatory (hypothesis testing) approach to analyse a structural theory, representing a causal process that generate observation on multiple variables bearing on some phenomenon (Byrne, 2010). CFA will be performed to confirm the unidimensionality, validity and reliability of all latent constructs involved in this study before modelling the interrelationships in SEM. CFA will be conducted to remove any item that does not fit in the measurement model (Awang, 2014; Biswakarma, 2016; Hair et al., 2013). Items with a low factor loading, i.e., less than 0.60, will be deleted from

the measurement model (Awang, 2014; Biswakarma, 2016; Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2013).

According to Bollen (1989) the Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimation method is the most widely used fitting function for general SEM and in this research it was applied in testing the base model. ML estimator is by far a dominant estimator for SEM models due to several factors; for example it is a default estimator in SEM, also the L estimator is consistent, asymptotically unbiased, asymptotically efficient and asymptotically normal under correct model specification with observed variables that has a distribution with no excess multivariate kurtosis (Bollen, Kirby, Curran, Paxton, & Chen, 2007). Thus, ML estimation is considered unbiased, consistent and efficient parameter estimation.

3.6.6 Reliability and Validity Analysis

A scale reliability and validity was conducted. Internal reliability, composite reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity were conducted for each of the constructs in the study.

3.6.7 Path Analysis

Finally using SEM AMOS, the path relationships between the latent variables were examined to determine if significant relationships exist in the model. The

maximum likelihood estimation was used to estimate path coefficients and model fit. The Maximum likelihood estimation is among the most widely used to test the path models and also provides the goodness of fit.

3.6.8 Indices in Structural Equation Model (SEM)

3.6.8.1 Model Fit Categories/Measurement of Fit Indices

A measurement of fit indices are important to check if the proposed model is a fit to the data or not and if modification is required to increase the fit. According to Hair et al. (2013) measurement model validity depends on establishing a level of goodness-of-fit (GOF) of the measurement model and finding specific evidence of construct validity. GOF in SEM indicates how well a specified model reproduces the observed covariance matrix among the indicator items (Hair et al., 2013).

The Chi-square is a fundamental statistical measure in SEM as it is used to quantify the differences between the covariance matrices, but when it is used as a GOF, the comparison is between observed and predicted covariance matrices as such the Chi-square is a primary fit index and key value in assessing GOF in SEM (Hair et al., 2013). There are three types of model fit categories /measurement of fit indices. The first one being the absolute fit measure which is the direct measure of how well the model specified by the researcher reproduces the observed data. **The absolute fit** indices used in this research are Chi-square, GFI and RMSEA.

Next, the **incremental fit measure** is used to assess how well the estimated model fits relative to some alternative baseline model (null model) are applied in this research (Hair et al., 2013). The incremental fit indices used in this research are TLI and CFI.

Lastly, the **parsimonious fit measure** will be used to determine which model among a set of competing models is the best; in other words, the measure determines the model fit in comparison to models of different complexity (Hair et al., 2013). The parsimonious fit index used in this research is the normed chi-square (χ^2 / df) also known as ratio, will be used. The following are fit indices, description and level of acceptance.

3.6.8.2 Model Fit Indicators

3.6.8.2.1 Chi-Square (χ^2)

Under the absolute fit category, the chi-square is used to provide a statistical test of resulting difference in the observed and estimated covariance (Hair et al., 2013). In this study, the model fit is assessed by chi-square and the significance test, whereby if the p value is not significant ($p > 0.005$), this means that there is no significant differences between the sample variance and the model-implied variance.

According to Carmines and Melfer (1981), the smaller the chi-square, the better the fit the model; also, a chi-square two to three times as large as the degree of freedom is acceptable, however Jackson, Wall, Martin and Davids (1993) and Hinkin (1995) stated a ratio of 5 to 1 was a useful rule of thumb. The chi-square value is sensitive with large sample, hence the chi-square value will be inflated; statistically significant and would imply as a poor fit model (Byrne, 2010; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Many researchers have also disregarded the index when the sample size exceeds 200 (Hair et al. 2013). A statistical test becomes less meaningful when the sample size increases or when the number of observed variables become larger, hence to reduce the sensitivity of the chi-square on the sample size, the normed chi square ratio (CMIN/df) index is calculated.

3.6.8.2.2 Normed Chi-square Ratio (CMIN/df)

The normed chi-square ratio (χ^2/df) (Chisq/df) or (CMIN/df) is under the parsimonious fit category and is less sensitive to sample size. To obtain the ratio, the chi-square (χ^2) is divided with the degree of freedom (df) which represents the amount of mathematical information available to estimate model parameter (Hair et al, 2013). The value of normed chi-square ratio should be in the order of 3:1 or less since it is associated with better fitting models except with larger samples (Hair et al, 2013). The acceptable value may also range between the values of 1 to 5. In this study, the normed chi square ratio (CMIN/df) should be in the range

of 1 to 5 for a sample size of more than 200 (Hair et al., 2013). The measure is widely used as it is easily calculated from the model result (Hair et al., 2013).

3.6.8.2.3 Goodness-of-fit Index (GFI)

The GFI measures the fit between the observed or actual data matrix and that predicted from the proposed model. It is an absolute fit index as it compares the hypothesized model with no model at all (Byrne, 2010; Hu & Bentler, 1995). According to Kline (1994), the GFI is a sum of the squared discrepancies to the observed variances. According to Hair et al (2013), the measure was developed to produce a fit index that is less sensitive to sample size; however the measure is still sensitive to the sample size due to the effect of N on sampling distribution. The possible range of GFI is 0 to 1 (Byrne, 2010). Level of acceptance in this study is GFI of more than 0.85 (Awang, 2014; Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2013).

3.6.8.2.4 Root-Mean-Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)

RMSEA, which is under the absolute fit category represents how well the model fits a population. RMSEA is one of the most widely used measure that attempts to correct for the tendency of the chi-square GOF test statistics that reject models with a large sample or a large number of observed variables. The measure is highly recommended by researchers due to the precision of the estimation of fit (Hair et al., 2013; Hu & Bentler, 1995). The RMSEA value is categorized into

four categories: close fit (0.00-0.05), fair fit (0.05-0.08), mediocre fit, (0.08-0.10) and poor fit (over 0.10) (Byrne, 2010; Hu & Bentler, 1998). Lower RMSEA values indicate a better fit. In this study the level of acceptance for RMSEA value is less than 0.08.

3.6.8.2.5 Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)

TLI is under the incremental fit category. The TLI measures the relative improvements per degree of freedom of the target model of the independent model. The measure can range from 0 to 1; models with a good fit have values closer to 1 (Hair et al, 2013). Hu and Bentler (1995) stated that TLI values of over 0.9 and 0.95 are considered acceptable. Some authors have used the more liberal cut-off of 0.80 since the TLI tends to run lower than the GFI. In this study, the level of acceptance is a TLI value above 0.90 (Awang, 2014; Byrne, 2010; Hair et al, 2013).

3.6.8.2.6 Comparative Fit Index (CFI)

The CFI is derived from the chi-square and measures the improvement on the normed fit index (NFI). The CFI is under the incremental fit category and it represents the extent to which the proposed model is better than the independent model. Unlike the chi-square and RMSEA, the CFI is not too sensitive to sample size (Fan, Thompson, & Wang, 1999). The measure is widely used and has a

range of 0 to 1 (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2013; Hu & Bentler, 1995). The level of acceptance is a CFI above 0.90 which is used in this study, (Awang, 2014; Byrne, 2010; Hair et al, 2013). Table 3.9 shows the CFA model fit categories, name of indices, full name of indices and level of acceptance to achieve Goodness-of-Fit

Table 3.9: CFA Model Fit Categories, Name of Indices, Full Name of Indices and Level of Acceptance to Achieve Goodness –of-Fit

Model Fit Categories	Name of Indices	Full Name of Indices	Level of Acceptance to Achieve Goodness-of-Fit
Absolute Fit	(χ^2) (CMIN)	Chi-square value	$p > 0.005$
Parsimonious Fit	(CMIN/df)	Normed chi-square ratio	CMIN/df: between 1 to 5
Absolute Fit	GFI	Goodness-of-fit index	GFI > 0.85
Absolute Fit	RMSEA	Root-mean-square error of approximation	RMSEA < 0.08
Incremental Fit	TLI	Tucker Lewis index	TLI > 0.90
Incremental Fit	CFI	Comparative fit index	CFI > 0.90

3.7 Conclusion

In this chapter, the population of the study, the sampling procedure, the data collection method and instruments used were discussed. This was followed by the data analysis methods using both SPSS and SEM to test the hypotheses of the study. Results of the data analysis is presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.0 Introduction

In this chapter, the SPSS software was used to generate the results for the descriptive statistics, reliability test and EFA. The SEM AMOS software was then used to conduct the CFA, path analysis and moderation test.

4.1 Actual Sample Size

The total questionnaires collected from the respondents amounted to 410. However after examining the completeness of the returned questionnaires, nine questionnaires were removed as there were missing responses in section B which may be due to the lack of familiarity in answering questions pertaining to those variables. The final sample size amounted to 401 and this equals to a response rate of 47.23%.

Table 4.1 shows the response rate and the usable questionnaires from Business Faculties in each of the 19 private universities.

Table 4.1: Response Rate and the Usable Questionnaires from Business Faculty in each of the 19 Private Universities.

NO	University	Target Population size:	Target Sample size:	Actual Sample size obtained	Response rate %	Missing data removed	Final size (usable questionnaires)	sample
1	Asia Pacific University of Technology & Innovation (APU)	50	16	25	50%	0	25	
2	HELP University	36	11	16	44.44%	1	15	
3	MAHSA University	5	2	5	100%	0	5	
4	University Tunku Abdul Rahman (UTAR)	80	25	40	50%	2	38	
5	UCSI University	48	15	32	66.67%	1	31	
6	University of Kuala Lumpur (UniKL)	31	10	19	61.29%	0	19	
7	Binary University of Management & Entrepreneurship (BUME)	10	3	9	90%	0	9	
8	Infrastructure University Kuala Lumpur (IUKL)	32	10	20	62.5%	0	20	
9	Limkokwing University of Creative Technology (LUCT)	34	11	15	44.12%	2	13	

Table 4.1 Continued

NO	University	Target Population size:	Target Sample size:	Actual Sample size obtained	Response rate %	Missing data removed	Final size questionnaires)	sample (usable
10	Malaysia University of Science & Technology (MUST)	30	9	10	33.33%	0	10	
11	Management and Science University (MSU)	80	25	25	31.25%	0	25	
12	SEGi University	30	9	24	80%	0	24	
13	Sunway University (SYUC)	54	17	20	37.04%	0	20	
14	Taylor's University (TAYLOR)	75	23	25	33.33%	0	25	
15	Tun Abdul Razak University (UNIRAZAK)	43	13	20	46.51%	2	18	
16	University of Selangor (UNISEL)	66	21	32	48.48%	0	32	
17	UNITAR International University (UNITAR)	48	15	15	31.25%	0	15	
18	Asia Metropolitan University (AMU)	20	6	6	30%	0	6	
19	Multimedia University (MMU)	77	24	52	67.53%	1	51	
Total		849	265	410	48.29%	9	401	47.23%

4.2 Descriptive Statistics

4.2.1 Demographics

Descriptive statistics is important in describing the profile of the respondents from the sample (Cavana, Delayaye, & Sekaran, 2001). SPSS was used to generate the descriptive statistics for the 401 respondents whom are full-time Faculty of Business lecturers from the 19 private universities in the Klang Valley. The frequencies of respondents for each of the demographic profiles comprising of gender, race, age, marital status, highest education qualification, academic rank, gross income per month, current employment status and number of years and months teaching at their current university was calculated.

The respondent's demographic information for the 401 lecturers showed that 60.8% of lecturers are female which makes up the majority of the respondents gender. The diversity of the lecturers can be seen from the wide variation in terms of race. About 45.1% of the lecturers are Malay, followed by 23.9% who are Chinese and 22.7% who are Indian. Age wise, the highest representatives of the lecturers (65.8%) are from the age group of 40 years and below. As for marital status, the majority of the lecturers (73.8%) are married. Also, a majority of the lecturers (70.8%) had a masters as their highest education qualification which as mentioned earlier in Chapter 1, is a prerequisite set by MOHE for lecturers to have at least a Master's qualification. Only, 21.7% of the lecturers had a doctoral degree as their highest education qualification.

With regards to academic rank, the position of lecturer was held by 65.6% of the respondents and the position of senior lecturer was held by only 25.4% of the respondents. The highest gross income earned by lecturers (41.9%) was within the range of RM3,001 - RM5,000 and only 31.7% earned within the range of RM5,001- RM7,000. The Majority of lecturers (72.3%) are permanent employees in their current university. The average number of years that a lecturer has been teaching at their current university was only five years. The minimum number of years was less than one year while the maximum number of years was 22 years. Please refer to Appendix J for the complete list

4.2.2 Descriptive Statistics of the Variables in Study

Mean, standard deviation and internal reliability were also calculated using SPSS. To measure internal consistency (reliability), the cronbach alpha measure was applied as it is most commonly used in multiple likert scale questions in a survey. The reliability of the scale must produce acceptable reliability for all measures in order for the measurement instrument to be accepted. Higher cronbach alpha coefficients value means that scales are more reliable. According to Sekaran (2003), when the scale reliability has a closer reliability to 1.00, the better the reliability of the scale.

As a rule of thumb, acceptable cronbach alpha values should be at least 0.70 or above, however the value of cronbach alpha may vary for different studies, for

instance, in exploratory research, a cronbach alpha value of 0.60 is acceptable (Hair, Tatham, & Black, 1998). For this study, the cronbach alpha value for achievement is 0.880, recognition is 0.908, the work itself is 0.906, responsibility is 0.825, opportunities for advancement is 0.900, opportunities for growth is 0.921, role conflict is 0.912, role ambiguity is 0.917, role overload is 0.910, job opportunity is 0.827, compensation is 0.956, working location is 0.924, university image is 0.939, job satisfaction is 0.813 and turnover intention is 0.943. Hence, the reliability of the scales in this study are good and acceptable as per the requirement of Hair et al. (2013). Table 4.2 shows the descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation and cronbach alpha) for the variables in study.

Table 4.2 Descriptive Statistics (Mean, Standard Deviation and Cronbach alpha) of the Variables in Study

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cronbach Alpha
Achievement	4.1845	.73216	0.880
Recognition	3.6678	.97590	0.908
The work itself	4.5524	.77882	0.906
Responsibility	4.2379	.75971	0.825
Opportunities for Advancement	3.6178	1.08238	0.900
Opportunities for Growth	3.9451	.99034	0.921
Role Conflict	3.4819	1.02182	0.912
Role Ambiguity	2.5353	.92912	0.917
Role Overload	3.7390	1.09197	0.910
Job opportunity	4.3222	.86610	0.827
Compensation	3.9879	1.08611	0.956
Working Location	3.6239	1.24014	0.924
University Image	4.1392	1.01139	0.939
Job satisfaction	4.1332	.93012	0.813
Turnover intention	3.1904	1.42090	0.943

4.3 Assessment of Normality and Outliers

Cavana et al. (2001) stated that descriptive statistics provides a summary of statistics which includes measure of central tendency such as mean, measure of central dispersion such as standard deviation and measure of distribution such as

skewness and kurtosis. Hair et al. (2013), stated that the shape of the data distribution will determine its normality. Skewness is thus used to describe the balance of the distribution. Skewness values that are greater than ± 1 indicated a distribution that differs significantly from normal (Cavana et al., 2001).

The height of the distribution is explained through kurtosis, also known as the peakedness or flatness of the distribution (Coakes & Ong, 2010; Hair et. al., 2013). Kurtosis values must be within the range of ± 3 . Data distribution that is highly skewed and has a high kurtosis may indicate the existence of an outlier hence resulting to non-normality of the data. In this study, the skewness values were between -1 and 1 and kurtosis scores for the variables have scores between -3 and 3, hence this confirms that the data in this study is normally distributed. According to Ghasemi and Zahediasl (2012), the values of the skewness and kurtosis can be converted to a z-score. An absolute value of score greater than 3.29 or less than -3.29 are considers outliers. The z scores for skewness and kurtosis for the variables in this study were normaly distributed as they were within the range.

4.4 Results of Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) for External Pull Factors

As mentioned by Hair et al. (2013), EFA may be used when a new scale has been developed for a questionnaire. The scale for working location was developed for this study; hence, EFA was conducted for external pull factors to identify the dimensionality of items and to drop items that have a low factor loading as well as

redundant items (Awang, 2014; Hair et al., 2013). EFA was conducted to categorise the suitable items for each of the external pull factors using principal component analysis (PCA) and varimax rotation; these are two commonly used methods (Hair et al., 2013). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test was done to measure sampling adequacy (Coakes & Ong, 2010). The KMO score for external pull factors; job opportunity, compensation, university image and working location was 0.917. The individual KMO results for each of the constructs are 0.762 for job opportunity, 0.906 for compensation, 0.897 for university image and 0.906 for working location. As per the criterion mentioned by Kaiser and Rice (1974) and Coakes and Ong (2010), the sample of this study meets the adequacy for factor analysis that is more than 0.6.

The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was conducted to indicate if the data is suitable for factor analysis. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity value should be statistically significant at $p < 0.05$. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity value for external pull factors/attraction factors were significant ($p < 0.05$) which means that the data is suitable for factor analysis. The four variables classified as external pull factors were factor analysed. The first four values recorded an eigenvalue above one, hence explaining more than a single item (9.886, 3.348, 2.665, 1.870) and they explained a total of 73.109% of the variance which is above 60%. Table 4.3 provides the percentage of variance explained for the four variables under external pull factors.

Table 4.3 Total Variance Explained for External Pull Factors

Component	Initial Eigenvalues		
	Total	% of Variances	Cumulative %
1	9.886	41.190	41.190
2	3.348	13.950	55.140
3	2.655	11.064	66.204
4	1.870	7.794	73.998

As for the rotated component matrix, only items with a factor loading of above 0.5 are considered (Hair et al., 2013). Rotated component matrix shows that compensation loaded as the first factor, working location as the second factor, university image as the third factor and job opportunity as the fourth factor. This justifies that the items of each scale belong to the correct factor. Table 4.4 shows the rotated component matrix with a factor loading above 0.5.

Table 4.4: Rotated Component Matrix of External Pull Factors

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
"The pay increment paid to lecturers in other universities" (Compensation)	.873			
"The amount of salary paid to lecturers in other universities" (Compensation)	.859			
"The bonus paid to lecturers in other universities"	.853			
"The fringe benefits paid to lecturers in other universities" (Compensation)	.846			
"The range of salaries paid to lecturers in other universities" (Compensation)	.845			

Table 4.4 Continued

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
"The incentives paid to lecturers in other universities" (Compensation)	.833			
"The method used to determine salary in other universities" (Compensation)	.726			
"Distance between my place of stay and other universities" (Working Location)		.917		
"Time taken commuting between my place of stay and other universities" (Working Location)		.903		
"Traffic between my place of stay and other universities" (Working Location)		.897		
"Alternatives commuting routes between my place of stay and other universities" (Working Location)		.878		
"Accessibility of transportation between my place of stay and other universities" (Working Location)		.870		
"Parking facilities of other universities and their surroundings" (Working Location)		.608		
"The national academic reputation of other universities" (University Image)			.878	
"Being a well known university" (University Image)			.847	
"The reputation of lecturers in other universities" (University Image)			.836	
"The research funding available to lecturers at other universities" (University Image)			.753	
"The teaching quality in other universities" (University Image)			.716	
"The physical facilities in other universities" (University Image)			.586	
"There is at least one good academic job that i could begin immediately if i were to leave my current university" (Job Opportunity)				.793
"Given the state of the academic job market finding a job would be very difficult for me" (Job Opportunity)				.787
"I have good job opportunities outside my current university" (Job Opportunity)				.784
"There are plenty of good academic jobs that i could have outside my current university" (Job Opportunity)				.741
"It would be difficult for me to find another academic job that I like as much as my current job at the university" (Job Opportunity)				.702

4.5 Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

4.5.1 Internal Pull Factors

The six factors under internal pull factors which are achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, opportunities for advancement and opportunities for growth were subject to a CFA. Initial results indicated that the model was a poor fit and modification was needed. The fit indices produced a high χ^2 value of 1640.314 (df=449 and p=0.000). GFI was 0.777 which is below the recommended 0.85. CFI was 0.873 while TLI was 0.859 which are both below the recommended 0.90. CMIN/df (ratio) was at 3.653 and is within the desired range of one to five. Lastly, the RMSEA was 0.081 which is above the recommended 0.08,

Factor loadings are correlation coefficients between the variables and the factors (Hair et al., 2013). Factor loading must be >0.60 to provide the most meaning to the factor solution (Hair et al., 2013). An item should be deleted if fitness indexes for the measurement model have not been achieved (Awang, 2014). Examination of the loadings indicated that all factor loadings are above 0.60.

The next step to improve the model fit was to do the covariance between errors. The suggested modification had a tremendous impact on the overall measurement model. Although fit indices again produced a high χ^2 value of 1062.809 (df=434 and p=0.000), this is common with a large sample size of above 200 (Hair, et al., 2013). The RMSEA was 0.06 which is below 0.08. CFI was now at 0.933 and TLI was now at 0.923, both above 0.90. GFI was 0.853 which is above the

recommended 0.80. CMIN/df (ratio) was at 2.449 and is within the desired range of 1.0 to 5.0.

Table 4.5 shows that the reliability and validity of the variables for internal pull factors. Reliability is measured using internal reliability and composite reliability. The internal reliability was assessed using the cronbach alpha. The cronbach alpha values for all the six constructs were between the values of 0.8 to 0.9 and this is above the suggested level of 0.70 (Hair et al. 2013). As for composite reliability (CR), all six constructs produced a CR value of ≥ 0.70 . This indicates that the scales for each construct is reliable (Hair et al. 2013; Shaheen, Vaz & Mohd Ismail, 2014).

The validity is measured using convergent validity and discriminant validity (Hair et al. 2013). Convergent validity is assessed using the average variance extracted (AVE) value which must be greater than 0.5. In this study, all constructs produced AVE values greater than 0.50 which suggests that the variables have a very strong convergent validity. With regards to discriminant validity, the rule of thumb is that the AVE for each construct must be more than the maximum shared squared variance (MSV) and average shared squared variance (ASV) respectively (Hair et al., 2013). In this study, all constructs produced AVE values that were more than the MSV and ASV values.

Table 4.5 Summary of Findings (CFA) for Internal Pull Factors

Research Construct: Internal Pull Factors	Factor Loading Range	Cronbach Alpha	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted	Maximum Shared Squared Variance	Averaged Shared Squared Variance
Achievement	0.62-0.78	0.880	0.875	0.553	0.546	0.410
A1. "The actual achievement of work related goals."	0.70					
A2. "The immediate results from my work."	0.66					
A3. "The actual adoption of practices which I recommend."	0.78					
A4." Personal goal attainment."	0.78					
A5. "Students follow the practices being taught by me."	0.65					
A6. "Observing my students growth and success over a period of time."	0.75					
A7. "I am able to objectively evaluate my accomplishments."	0.62					
Recognition	0.73-0.86	0.908	0.910	0.669	0.549	0.356
B1. "Recognition of my accomplishments by co-workers."	0.83					
B2. "Recognition of my accomplishments by superiors."	0.84					
B3. "My recognition compared to that of my co-workers."	0.86					
B4. "The recognition I get from the management for my ideas."	0.82					
B5. "Publicity given to my work and activities."	0.73					

Table 4.5 Continued

Research Construct: Internal Pull Factors	Factor Loading Range	Cronbach Alpha	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted	Maximum Shared Squared Variance	Averaged Shared Squared Variance
The Work itself	0.63-0.87	0.906	0.910	0.631	0.424	0.285
C1. "I enjoy the type of work I do."	0.82					
C2. "My job is interesting."	0.80					
C3. "The challenging aspects of teaching."	0.80					
C4. "My level of enthusiasm about teaching."	0.83					
C5. "My job gives me a sense of accomplishment."	0.87					
C6. "The work I do makes a difference in my faculty."	0.63					
Responsibility	0.63-0.73	0.825	0.819	0.5	0.388	0.335
D1. "The responsibility I have to get the job done."	0.68					
D2. "The total amount of responsibility i have."	0.72					
D3. "My responsibilities compared with those of my co-workers."	0.73					
D4. Committee responsibilities.	0.69					
D5. "Responsibilities outside my major areas of interest."	0.63					
Opportunities for Advancement	0.79-0.88	0.900	0.902	0.697	0.692	0.368
E1. "Opportunities for advancement or promotion exist within my university."	0.86					
E2. "I know what is required of me to advance within the university."	0.79					
E3. "Internal candidates receive fair consideration for open positions."	0.88					

Table 4.5 Continued

Research Construct: Internal Pull Factors	Factor Loading Range	Cronbach Alpha	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted	Maximum Shared Squared Variance	Averaged Shared Squared Variance
E4. "Information about job vacancies within the university is readily available."	0.80					
Opportunities for Growth	0.76-0.89	0.921	0.914	0.698	0.692	0.384
F1. "Opportunities for increased responsibilities in education."	0.89					
F2. "Opportunities provided for growth in education compared with growth in other fields."	0.89					
F3. "Participation in in-service education."	0.77					
F4. "Opportunities to grow professionally through formal education."	0.81					
F5. "Opportunities to attend professional conferences, workshop seminars and other professional activities."	0.76					

4.5.2 Internal Push Factors

The three role stress factors which are internal push factors (role ambiguity, role overload and role conflict) were subjects to a CFA. After performing the CFA, the initial results indicate that the model was a poor fit and needed modification. The fit indices produced a high χ^2 value of 838.432 (df=167 and p=0.000). RMSEA was at 0.1 which is above the recommended 0.08. GFI was at 0.816 below the recommended 0.85. CFI was at 0.884 and TLI was 0.868, where both were below

the recommended 0.90. CMIN/df (ratio) was at 5.021 which is outside the desired range of 1.0 to 5.0. Examination of the loadings indicated that one of the item measuring role conflict had a factor loading of 0.47. The item ‘I have to have to do things that should have been done differently’ was deleted.

CFA was then performed again however the model was still a poor fit and modification was again needed. The fit indices produced a high χ^2 value of 781.068 (df=149 and p=0.000). RMSEA was at 0.103 which is above 0.08. GFI was 0.82 which was below the recommended 0.85. CFI was 0.888 and TLI was 0.872 both of which were below the recommended 0.90. The CMIN/df (ratio) which was at 5.242 again was out of the desired range of 1.0 to 5.0.

Since factor loading for all items for each construct was above 0.60, the next step was to do the covariance between errors. The suggested modification had a tremendous impact on the overall measurement model. Fit indices produced a high χ^2 value of 448.033 (df=139 and p=0.000). Since the sample size in this study was 401, it is thus common with a large sample size of above 200 to produce a high chi-square. The RMSEA result improved and was now at 0.075 below the recommended 0.08. CFI was at 0.945 and TLI was at 0.933 both above 0.90, while GFI was at 0.895 above the recommended 0.85. The CMIN/df (ratio) was at 3.223 hence, which was within the desired range from 1.0 to 5.0.

Table 4.6 shows the reliability and validity of the variables for internal push factors. The internal reliability assessed using the cronbach alpha shows that the cronbach alpha values for all the three constructs were above 0.9 and while for composite reliability (CR), all three constructs produced a CR value of ≥ 0.90 . As for the convergent validity, all the three constructs produced an AVE above 0.50 which suggests that the variables have a very strong convergent validity. With regards to discriminant validity, all AVE values were more than the MSV and ASV values, hence discriminant validity was achieved.

Table 4.6 Summary of Findings (CFA) for Internal Push Factors

Research Construct: Internal Push Factors	Factor Loading Range	Cronbach Alpha	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted	Maximum Shared Squared Variance	Averaged Shared Squared Variance
Role Overload	0.73-0.86	0.912	0.910	0.628	0.517	0.294
G1. "I have to do things which I don't really have the time and energy for."	0.77					
G2. "I need more hours in the day to do all the things which are expected of me."	0.81					
G3. "I can't ever seem to catch up."	0.84					
G4. "I don't ever seem to have any time for myself."	0.86					
G5. "There are times when I can't meet everyone's expectations."	0.73					
G6. "I seem to have more commitments to overcome than some of the other lecturers i know."	0.74					

Table 4.6 Continued

Research Construct: Internal Push Factors	Factor Loading Range	Cronbach Alpha	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted	Maximum Shared Squared Variance	Averaged Shared Squared Variance
Role Ambiguity	0.75-0.86	0.917	0.919	0.655	0.138	0.105
H1. "I know exactly what is expected of me."	0.78					
H2. "I feel certain about how much authority i have."	0.82					
H3. "Clear planned goals and objectives exist for my job."	0.86					
H4. "I know that I have divided my time properly."	0.77					
H5. "I know what my responsibilities are."	0.87					
H6. "Explanation is clear of what has to be done."	0.75					
Role Conflict	0.68-0.87	0.917	0.921	0.625	0.517	0.327
I2. "I work on unnecessary things."	0.78					
I3. "I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it."	0.87					
I4. "I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it."	0.83					
I5. "I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently."	0.76					

Table 4.6 Continued

Research Construct: Internal Push Factors	Factor Loading Range	Cronbach Alpha	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted	Maximum Shared Squared Variance	Averaged Shared Squared Variance
I6. "I have to buck a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment."	0.79					
I7. "I receive incompatible request from two or more people."	0.82					
I8. "I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others."	0.68					

4.5.3 External Pull Factors

The external pull factors; job opportunity, compensation, university image and working location were subjects to a CFA. The initial results indicate that the model was a poor fit and needed modification. The fit indices produced a high χ^2 value of 1128.797 (df=246 and p=0.000). RMSEA was at 0.095, above the recommended 0.08, GFI was at 0.80 which was below the recommended 0.85. CFI was at 0.899 and TLI was at 0.887, both below the recommended 0.90. The CMIN/df (ratio) was 4.589 within the desired range of 1.0 to 5.0. Examination of the loadings indicated that one of the item measuring job opportunity had a factor loading of 0.51. The item 'it would be difficult for me to find another academic job that I like as much as my current job at the university' was deleted as it was below 0.60. A CFA was conducted again but, the model was still a poor fit as the fit indices produced a high χ^2 value of 977.020 (df=224 and p=0.000). RMSEA

was at 0.092, still above 0.08. GFI was at 0.813, below the recommended 0.85. CFI was at 0.912, above the recommended 0.90. TLI was at 0.900, but still not above the recommended 0.90. The CMIN/df (ratio) of 4.362 was within the desired range from 1.0 to 5.0. Examination of the loadings indicated that one of the items measuring job opportunity had a factor loading of 0.54. The item “given the state of the academic job market, finding a job would be very difficult for me” was deleted. The external pull factors were subjected to a CFA again.

The model was still a poor fit and modification was again needed. The fit indices produced a high χ^2 value of 940.778 (df=203 and p=0.000). RMSEA was at 0.095, still above 0.08. GFI was at 0.811, below the recommended 0.85. CFI was at 0.912, above the recommended 0.90 while TLI was at 0.900 which was still not above the recommended 0.90. The CMIN/df (ratio) of 4.634 was within the desired range from 1.0 to 5.0. The next step was to conduct the covariance between errors. The suggested modification had a tremendous impact on the overall measurement model. Fit indices produced a high χ^2 value of 497.761 (df=194 and p=0.000) which as mentioned earlier is common with a large sample size of above 200. RMSEA improved and was now at 0.063 below the recommended 0.08. CFI was at 0.964 and TLI was at 0.957 both above 0.90, while GFI was at 0.900 which was above 0.85. The CMIN/df (ratio) was at 2.566 within the desired range of between 1.0 to 5.0.

Table 4.7 shows that the internal reliability assessed using the cronbach alpha shows that the cronbach alpha values for all the four constructs were above 0.8

and 0.9. As for composite reliability (CR), all four constructs produces a CR value of ≥ 0.80 . As for the convergent validity all the 4 constructs produced AVE above 0.50 which suggests that the variables have a very strong convergent validity. With regards to discriminant validity, all AVE values were more than the MSV and ASV values hence; discriminant validity was achieved.

Table 4.7 Summary of Findings (CFA) for External Pull Factors

Research Construct: External Pull Factors	Factor Loading Range	Cronbach Alpha	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted	Maximum Shared Squared Variance	Averaged Shared Squared Variance
Job opportunity	0.65- 0.89	0.826	0.835	0.632	0.113	0.0061
J1. "There are plenty of good academic jobs that I could have outside my current university."	0.65					
J4. "There is at least one good academic job that I could begin immediately if i were to leave my current university."	0.82					
J5. "I have good job opportunities outside my current university."	0.89					
Compensation	0.74- 0.91	0.956	0.951	0.734	0.358	0.198
K1." The method used to determine salary in other universities."	0.74					

Table 4.7 Continued

Research Contract: External Pull Factors	Factor Loading Range	Cronbach Alpha	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted	Maximum Shared Squared Variance	Averaged Shared Squared Variance
K2. "The range of salaries paid to lecturers in other universities."	0.81					
K3. "The amount of salary paid to lecturers in other universities."	0.85					
K4. "The pay increment paid to lecturers in other universities."	0.90					
K5. "The bonus paid to lecturers in other universities."	0.89					
K6. "The fringe benefits paid to lecturers in other universities."	0.91					
K7. "The incentives paid to lecturers in other universities."	0.89					
University Image	0.62- 0.92	0.924	0.923	0.671	0.358	0.202
L1. "The physical facilities in other universities."	0.62					
L2. "The teaching quality in other universities."	0.75					
L3. "Being a well known university."	0.87					
L4. "The reputation of lecturers in other universities."	0.90					
L5. "The national academic reputation of other universities."	0.92					
L6. "The research funding available to lecturers at other universities."	0.82					

Table 4.7 Continued

Research Construct: External Pull Factors	Factor Loading Range	Cronbach Alpha	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted	Maximum Shared Squared Variance	Averaged Shared Squared Variance
Working Location	0.60- 0.93	0.939	0.943	0.736	0.188	0.125
M1. “Accessibility of transportation between my place of stay and other universities.”	0.86					
M2. “Time taken commuting between my place of stay and other universities.”	0.91					
M3. “Distance between my place of stay and other universities.”	0.93					
M4. “Traffic between my place of stay and other universities.”	0.90					
M5. “Alternatives commuting routes between my place of stay and other universities.”	0.89					
M6. “Parking facilities of other universities and their surroundings.”	0.60					

4.5.4 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction was subjected to a CFA. The initial results indicate that the model was a poor fit and needed modification. The fit indices produced a high χ^2 value of 49.477 (df=5 and p=0.000). RMSEA was at 0.149 above the recommended 0.08, while the CMIN/df (ratio) was at 9.895 which is outside of the desired range of from 1.0 to 5.0. TLI was at 0.895 below the recommended 0.90. However, CFI

was at 0.948 above the recommended 0.90 and GFI was at 0.955, above the recommended 0.85.

Examination of the loadings indicated that one of the items measuring job satisfaction had a factor loading of 0.37. The item “each day at work seems like it will never end” was deleted. The items were again subjected to CFA. The results showed that the fit indices produced a high χ^2 value of 0.610 (df=2 and p=0.737). RMSEA improved and was now at 0.000. CFI & TLI produced an excellent fit of 1.0, while GFI was at 0.999. The CMIN/df (ratio) of 0.305 was within the desired range of 1.0 to 5.0.

Table 4.8 shows the reliability and validity for job satisfaction. The internal reliability using the cronbach alpha value is 0.845 and the composite reliability (CR) is 0.860 which is above ≥ 0.70 . As for convergent validity, the AVE was above 0.50 which suggests that the variable has a very strong convergent validity. With regards to discriminant validity, the AVE value was more than the MSV and ASV, hence discriminant validity was achieved.

Table 4.8: Summary of Findings (CFA) for Job Satisfaction

Research Construct:	Factor Loading Range	Cronbach Alpha	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted	Maximum Shared Squared Variance	Averaged Shared Squared Variance
Job Satisfaction	0.60-0.83	0.845	0.860	0.610	0.417	0.218
N1. "I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job."	0.80					
N2. "Most days i am enthusiastic about my work."	0.88					
N4. "I find real enjoyment in my work."	0.83					
N5. "I consider my job to be rather unpleasant."	0.60					

4.5.5 Turnover Intention

The factor turnover intention was subjected to a CFA. As there were only three items that made up turnover intention, the model produced a perfect score. The results showed that the fit indices produced an χ^2 value of 0.00 (df=0), while RMSEA was also 0.000. The CFI, TLI and GFI produced an excellent fit of 1.0, while the CMIN/df (ratio) was 0.000. Table 4.9 shows that the reliability and validity for turnover intention. The internal reliability using the cronbach alpha was above 0.9. As for composite reliability (CR), the CR value was above ≥ 0.70 . For convergent validity the AVE was above 0.50 which suggests that the variables have a very strong convergent validity. With regards to discriminant

validity the AVE value was more than the MSV and ASV value, hence discriminant validity was achieved.

Table 4.9 Summary of Findings (CFA) for Turnover Intention

Turnover Intention	Factor Loading Range	Cronbach Alpha	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted	Maximum Shared Squared Variance	Averaged Shared Squared Variance
Turnover Intention	0.91-0.93	0.943	0.944	0.849	0.343	0.183
O1. "I often think about quitting my current job."	0.91					
O2. "I will probably search for a new job."	0.93					
O3. "I have the intention to leave my current university."	0.93					

4.5.6 Overall Model Fit

Before conducting the CFA for the overall model, item parceling was done for the each of the items for internal pull factors which are achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, opportunities for advancement and opportunities for growth with respective measurement errors estimated. Next item parceling was done for internal push factors which are role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload with respective measurement errors estimated. Finally item parceling was done for external pull factors which are job opportunities, compensation, university image and working location with respective measurement errors

estimated. The model had a good fit despite the high (X^2) value of 435.167 (df=154 and p=0.000). RMSEA was 0.068. CFI was at 0.935 and TLI was 0.920 while GFI was at 0.905. The CMIN/df (ratio) was at 2.826. Table 4.10 shows the summary of the (CFA) for overall model.

Table 4.10 Summary of (CFA) for Overall Model

Research Contracts		Standardised loading (with all 80 items and covariance)
Internal Pull factor/motivation		
1	Achievement	0.73
2	Recognition	0.71
3	The Work Itself	0.70
4	Responsibility	0.65
5	Opportunities for Advancement	0.74
6	Opportunities for Growth	0.74
Internal Push Factors/role stress		
1	Role Overload	0.76
2	Role Ambiguity	0.40
3	Role Conflict	0.87
External Pull Factors/attraction		
1	Job Opportunity	0.34
2	Compensation	0.76
3	University Image	0.81
4	Working Location	0.55
Job satisfaction		
1	I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.	0.83
2	Most days i am enthusiastic about my work.	0.85
3	Each day at work seems like it will never end.	
4	I find real enjoyment in my work.	0.82
5	I consider my job to be rather unpleasant.	0.59
Turnover Intention		
O1	I often think about quitting my current job.	0.91
O2	I will probably search for a new job.	0.93
O3	I have the intention to leave my current university.	0.92

4.6 Full Structural Model

Hair et al (2013) stated that a structural model is used to specify the relationships between the constructs through the interrelationships between variables. In order to obtain a model fit, correlation between the error terms on the variables may be conducted. The assessment of the model fit for the structural model in this study obtained a perfect fit only because the correlation has been done on the variables and not among the error terms. According to Hair et al (2013), the model is considered a saturated structural model as the SEM model specifies the same number of structural relationships as possible construct correlations in the CFA. As such the fit statistics for the saturated theoretical model will be the same as those obtained for the CFA model (Hair et al., 2013).

The structural model indicated that 35% of job satisfaction variance ($R^2 = 0.35$) can be explained by internal pull factors/intrinsic motivational factors, internal push factors/role stress factors and external pull factors/attraction factors while 42% of turnover intention variance ($R^2 = 0.42$) can be explained by job satisfaction, internal pull factors/intrinsic motivational, internal push factors/role stress factors and external pull factors/attraction factors.

4.7 Path Analysis (Hypothesis)

The path relationship between the internal pull factors, internal push factors, and external pull factors with job satisfaction and turnover intention were assessed. Hypotheses 1 to 9 were examined in order to determine if significant relationships existed in the proposed model. The reported SEM findings are assessed based on standardised estimated path coefficient β with critical ratio (C.R.) and p-value. According to Byrne (2010) the test statistics in SEM is the critical ratio which represents the parameter estimate divided by its standard error; it thus operates as a z-statistics in testing that the estimate is statistically different from zero. Byrne (2010) stated that on a probability level of 0.05, the test statistics needs to be more than ± 1.96 before the hypothesis can be rejected. Thus, in this study the standard decision rules are; a critical ratio value greater than or equal to ± 1.96 and p-value is less than equal to 0.05 to decide the significance of the path coefficient between the dependent variable and independent variable (Byrne, 2010).

Hypothesis 1 examined that lecturers who experience a higher level in the internal pull factors (achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, opportunities for advancement and opportunities for growth) will have a higher level of job satisfaction. Two out of the six internal pull factors (the work itself, opportunities for advancement) had a significant relationship with job satisfaction. The most significant factor is the work itself followed by opportunities for advancement. Thus, hypothesis H1 is partially supported as only two namely, the

work itself and opportunities for advancement have a significant relationship with lecturers' job satisfaction.

The relationship between achievement and job satisfaction. Lecturers, who experience a higher level of achievement, will have a higher level of job satisfaction. The standardised estimated path coefficient between achievement and job satisfaction is ($\beta=0.042$) and is not significant (critical ratio = 0.685, $p=0.494$). Therefore, achievement does not contribute significantly towards lecturers' job satisfaction at 0.05 level of confidence.

The relationship between recognition and job satisfaction. Lecturers who experience a higher level of recognition, will have a higher level of job satisfaction. The standardised estimated path coefficient between recognition and job satisfaction is ($\beta=0.026$) and is not significant (critical ratio = 0.449, $p=0.653$). Therefore, recognition does not contribute significantly towards lecturers' job satisfaction at 0.05 level of confidence.

The relationship between the work itself and job satisfaction. Lecturers who experience an increase in the work itself, will have a higher level of job satisfaction. The standardised estimated path coefficient between the work itself and job satisfaction is ($\beta=0.251$) and is significant (critical ratio = 4.470, $p=0.000$). There is a significantly large positive relationship between the work

itself and job satisfaction at 0.001 level of confidence. The result is consistent with previous research which found that the work itself has a significant relationship with job satisfaction (Abdullah Hashim & Mahmood, 2011; Castillo & Cano, 2004; Gilman et al., 2012; Hong et al., 2011; Mohd Noor & Hassan, 2014; Nanda & Krishna, 2013; Oshagbemi, 2000; Paul & Phua, 2011; Peake & Parr, 2012; Rosser, 2005; Sharma & Jyoti, 2009).

The relationship between responsibility and job satisfaction. Lecturers who experience a higher level of responsibility, will have a higher level of job satisfaction. The standardised estimated path coefficient between responsibility and job satisfaction is ($\beta=0.013$) and is not significant (critical ratio = 0.240, $p=0.810$). Therefore, responsibility does not contribute significantly towards lecturers' job satisfaction at 0.05 level of confidence.

The relationship between opportunities for advancement and job satisfaction. Lecturers who experience a higher level of opportunities for advancement, will have a higher level of job satisfaction. The standardised estimated path coefficient between the opportunities for advancement and job satisfaction is ($\beta=0.137$) and is significant (critical ratio=2.093, $p=0.036$). Therefore, there is a significant positive relationship between opportunities for advancement and job satisfaction at 0.05 level of confidence. The result is consistent with previous research which found that opportunities for advancement has a significant relationship with job satisfaction (Awang et al. 2010 Kochar,

2008; Noor & Hassan, 2014; Price & Mueller, 1981; Santhapparaj & Alam, 2005; Stevens, 2005).

The relationship between opportunities for growth and job satisfaction.

Lecturers who experience a higher level of opportunities for growth, will have a higher level of job satisfaction. The standardised estimated path coefficient between opportunities for growth and job satisfaction is ($\beta=0.127$) and is not significant (critical ratio= 1.932, $p=0.053$). Opportunities for growth does not contribute significantly towards lecturers' job satisfaction at 0.05 level of confidence. The following Table 4.11 shows the Summary of Path Coefficients and Its Significance for Hypothesis 1.

Table 4.11: Summary of Path Coefficients and Its Significance for Hypothesis 1

H1: Lecturers who experience a higher level in the internal pull factors (achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, opportunity for advancement and opportunity for growth) will have a higher level of job satisfaction							Partially Supported
Path		Standard Estimate	Standard Error	Critical Ratio	P-Value	Result on Hypothesis	
Internal Pull Factors/ Intrinsic Motivation Factors	Job Satisfaction						
Achievement	→ Job Satisfaction	.042	.082	.685	.494		Not Supported
Recognition	→ Job Satisfaction	.026	.058	.449	.653		Not Supported
The Work Itself	→ Job Satisfaction	.251	.070	4.470	0.000		Supported
Responsibility	→ Job Satisfaction	.013	.069	.240	.810		Not Supported
Opportunities for Advancement	→ Job Satisfaction	.137	.059	2.093	.036		Supported
Opportunities for Growth	→ Job Satisfaction	.127	.065	1.932	.053		Not Supported

Hypothesis 2 examined that lecturers who experience a higher level in the internal push factors (role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload) will have a lower level of job satisfaction. Two out of the three internal push factors (role ambiguity and role overload) had a significant relationship with job satisfaction. The most significant factor is role ambiguity followed by role overload. Thus, hypothesis H2 is partially supported as only two namely, role ambiguity and role overload have a significant relationship with lecturers' job satisfaction.

The relationship between role conflict and job satisfaction. Lecturers who experience a higher level of role conflict, will have a lower level of job satisfaction. The standardised estimated path coefficient between role conflict and job satisfaction is ($\beta=-0.035$) and is not significant (critical ratio= -0.603, $p=0.547$). Therefore role conflict does not contribute significantly towards lecturers' job satisfaction at 0.05 level of confidence.

The relationship between role ambiguity and job satisfaction. Lecturers who experience a higher level of role ambiguity, will have a lower level of job satisfaction. The standardised estimated path coefficient between the role ambiguity and job satisfaction is ($\beta=-0.116$) and is significant (critical ratio = -2.313, $p=0.021$). Therefore there is a significant negative relationship between role ambiguity and job satisfaction at 0.05 level of confidence. The result is consistent with previous research which found that role ambiguity is significant to

job satisfaction (Ahsan et al., 2009; Ameen et al., 1995; Boles et al., 2003; Conley & Woosley, 1999, Katz & Kahn, 1978; Kahn et al., 1964; Kellogg, 2006; Ngo et al., 2005; Panatik et al., 2012; Rizzo et al., 1970; Usman et al., 2011; Yaacob & Choi, 2015).

The relationship between role overload and job satisfaction. Lecturers who experience a higher level of role overload, will have a lower level of job satisfaction. The standardised estimated path coefficient between the role overload and job satisfaction is ($\beta=-0.113$) and is significant (critical ratio = -2.019, $p=0.043$). Therefore there is a significant negative relationship between role overload and job satisfaction at 0.05 level of confidence. The result is consistent with previous research which found that role overload has a significant relationship with job satisfaction (Ahsan et al., 2009; Beehr et al., 1976; Chen et al., 2007; Dey, 1994; Gmelch et al., 1984; Iverson & Maguire, 2000; Jones et al., 2007; Mamiseishvili & Rosser, 2011; Ngo et al., 2005; Price, 2001; Ryan et al., 2012; Sutton, 1984; Yaacob & Choi, 2015).

The following Table 4.12 shows the Summary of Path Coefficients and Its Significance for Hypothesis 2

Table 4.12: Summary of Path Coefficients and Its Significance for Hypothesis 2

H2: Lecturers who experience a higher level in the internal push factors (role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload) will have a lower level of job satisfaction.							Partially Supported
Path			Standard Estimate	Standard Error	Critical Ratio	P-Value	Result on Hypothesis
Internal Push Factors/ Role Stress Factors		Job Satisfaction					
Role Conflict	→	Job Satisfaction	-.035	.051	-.603	.547	Not Supported
Role Ambiguity	→	Job Satisfaction	-.116	.053	-2.313	.021	Supported
Role Overload	→	Job Satisfaction	-.113	.050	-2.019	.043	Supported

Hypothesis 3 examined that lecturers who perceive more favourable external pull factors (job opportunity, external compensation, external working location and external university image) will experience a lower level of job satisfaction. None of the external pull factors had a significant relationship with job satisfaction. Thus, hypothesis H3 is not supported as external pull factors, which are attraction factors, did not have a significant relationship with lecturers' job satisfaction.

The relationship between external job opportunity and job satisfaction.

Lecturers who perceive a more attractive external job opportunity, will have a lower level of job satisfaction. The standardised estimated path coefficient between external job opportunity and job satisfaction is ($\beta=0.008$) and is not significant (critical ratio= 0.179, $p=0.858$). Therefore external job opportunity

does not contribute significantly towards lecturers' job satisfaction at 0.05 level of confidence.

The relationship between external compensation and job satisfaction.

Lecturers who perceive a more attractive external compensation, will have a lower level of job satisfaction. The standardised estimated path coefficient between external compensation and job satisfaction is ($\beta = -0.045$) and is not significant (critical ratio = -0.827, $p = 0.408$). Therefore external compensation does not contribute significantly towards lecturers' job satisfaction at 0.05 level of confidence.

The relationship between external working location and job satisfaction.

Lecturers who perceive other working locations as more attractive will have a lower level of job satisfaction. The standardised estimated path coefficient between external working location and job satisfaction is ($\beta = -0.052$) and is not significant (critical ratio = -1.069, $p = 0.285$). Therefore external working location does not contribute significantly towards lecturers' job satisfaction at 0.05 level of confidence.

The relationship between external university image and job satisfaction.

Lecturers who perceive a more favourable image of other universities, will have a lower level of job satisfaction. The standardised estimated path coefficient between external university image and job satisfaction is ($\beta = 0.006$) and is not

significant (critical ratio= 0.101, $p=0.919$). Therefore external university image does not contribute significantly towards lecturers' job satisfaction at 0.05 level of confidence.

The following Table 4.13 shows the Summary of Path Coefficients and Its Significance for Hypothesis 3

Table 4.13: Summary of Path Coefficients and Its Significance for Hypothesis 3

H3: Lecturers who perceive more favourable external pull factors (job opportunity, external compensation, external working location and external university image) will have a lower level of job satisfaction.							Not Supported
Path			Standard Estimate	Standard Error	Critical Ratio	P-Value	Result on Hypothesis
External Pull Factors/Attraction Factors		Job Satisfaction					
External Job Opportunity	→	Job Satisfaction	.008	.046	.179	.858	Not Supported
External Compensation	→	Job Satisfaction	-.045	.049	-.827	.408	Not Supported
External Working Location	→	Job Satisfaction	-.052	.040	-1.069	.285	Not Supported
External University Image	→	Job Satisfaction	.006	.056	.101	.919	Not Supported

Hypothesis 4 examined that lecturers who experience higher level in the internal pull factors (achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, opportunities for advancement and opportunities for growth) will have a lower

level of turnover intention. There were two internal pull factor; responsibility and opportunities for advancement that had a significant relationship with turnover intention. However, responsibility was significant with a positive relationship with turnover intention. Hypothesis H4 is partially supported as only opportunities for advancement had a significant negative relationship with lecturers' turnover intention.

The relationship between achievement and turnover intention. Lecturers who experience a higher level of achievement, will have a lower level of turnover intention. The standardised estimated path coefficient between achievement and turnover intention is ($\beta=-0.022$) and is not significant (critical ratio= -0.377, $p=0.706$). Therefore achievement does not contribute significantly towards lecturers' turnover intention at 0.05 level of confidence.

The relationship between recognition and turnover intention. Lecturers who experience higher level of recognition, will have a lower level of turnover intention. The standardised estimated path coefficient between recognition and turnover intention is ($\beta=-0.062$) and is not significant (critical ratio= -1.123, $p=0.262$). Therefore recognition does not contribute significantly towards lecturers' turnover intention at 0.05 level of confidence.

The relationship between the work itself and turnover intention. Lecturers who experience an increase in the work itself, will have a lower level of turnover intention. The standardised estimated path coefficient between the work itself and turnover intention is ($\beta=-0.004$) and is not significant (critical ratio= -0.073, $p=0.942$). The work itself does not contribute significantly towards lecturers' turnover intention at 0.05 level of confidence.

The relationship between responsibility and turnover intention. Lecturers who experience higher level of responsibility, will have a lower level of turnover intention. The standardised estimated path coefficient between responsibility and turnover intention is ($\beta=0.114$) and is significant (critical ratio= 2.225, $p=0.026$). The regression weight for responsibility in the prediction of turnover intention had a positive relationship, hence the relationship was not supported although it is significant at 0.05 level of confidence.

The relationship between opportunities for advancement and turnover intention. Lecturers who experience higher level of opportunities for advancement, will have a lower level of turnover intention. The standardised estimated path coefficient between opportunity for advancement and turnover intention is ($\beta=-0.161$) and is significant (critical ratio= -2.594, $p=0.009$). Therefore there is a significant negative relationship between opportunities for advancement and turnover intention at 0.05 level of confidence. The result is

consistent with previous research which found that opportunities for advancement has a significant relationship with turnover intention (Haider Shah & Jumani, 2015; Hassan, 2014; Mikovich & Boudreau, 1997; Price & Mueller, 1981).

The relationship between opportunity for growth and turnover intention.

Lecturers who experience higher level of opportunities for growth, will have a lower level of turnover intention. The standardised estimated path coefficient between the opportunity for growth and turnover intention is ($\beta=0.037$) and is not significant (critical ratio= 0.599, $p=0.549$). Opportunities for growth does not contribute significantly towards lecturers' turnover intention at 0.05 level of confidence. The following Table 4.14 shows the Summary of Path Coefficients and Its Significance for Hypothesis 4

Table 4.14: Summary of Path Coefficients and Its Significance for Hypothesis 4

H4: Lecturers who experience a higher level in the internal pull factors (achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, opportunity for advancement and opportunity for growth) will have a lower level of turnover intention.							Partially Supported
Path			Standard Estimate	Standard Error	Critical Ratio	P-Value	Result on Hypothesis
Internal Pull Factors / Intrinsic Motivation Factors	Turnover Intention						
Achievement	→ Turnover Intention		-.022	.113	-.377	.706	Not Supported
Recognition	→ Turnover Intention		-.062	.080	-1.123	.262	Not Supported
The Work Itself	→ Turnover Intention		-.004	0.99	-.073	.942	Not Supported
Responsibility	→ Turnover Intention		.114	.096	2.225	.026	Not Supported
Opportunities for Advancement	→ Turnover Intention		-.161	.082	-2.594	0.09	Supported
Opportunities for Growth	→ Turnover Intention		.037	.090	.599	.549	Not Supported

Hypothesis 5 examined that lecturers who experience a higher level in the internal push factors (role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload) will have a higher level of turnover intention. There was only one internal push factor; role conflict that had a significant relationship with turnover intention. Thus,

hypothesis H5 is partially supported as only role conflict has a significant relationship with lecturers' turnover intention.

The relationship between role conflict and turnover intention. Lecturers who experience higher level of role conflict, will have a higher level of turnover intention. The standardised estimated path coefficient between role conflict and turnover intention is ($\beta=0.188$) and is significant (critical ratio= 3.445, $p=0.000$). There is a significant positive relationship between role conflict and turnover intention at 0.001 level of confidence. The result is consistent with previous research which found that the role conflict has a significant relationship with turnover intention (Ali Shah et al., 2010; Daly & Dee, 2006; Glazer & Beehr, 2005; Idris, 2010; Idris, 2011; Mowday et al., 1982; Netemeyer et al., 1990; Ngo et al., 2005; Rageb et al., 2013; Rizzo et al., 1970).

The relationship between role ambiguity and turnover intention. Lecturers who experience a higher level of role ambiguity, will have a higher level of turnover intention. The standardised estimated path coefficient between the role ambiguity and turnover intention is ($\beta=-0.053$) and is not significant (critical ratio= -1.100, $p=0.271$). Role ambiguity does not contribute significantly towards lecturers' turnover intention at 0.05 level of confidence.

The relationship between role overload and turnover intention. Lecturers, who experience a higher level of role overload, will have a higher level of

turnover intention. The standardised estimated path coefficient between the role overload and turnover intention is close to zero ($\beta=0.066$) and is not significant (critical ratio= 1.248, $p=0.212$). Role overload does not contribute significantly towards lecturers' turnover intention at 0.05 level of confidence.

The following Table 4.15 shows the Summary of Path Coefficients and Its Significance for Hypothesis 5

Table 4.15: Summary of Path Coefficients and Its Significance for Hypothesis 5

H5: Lecturers who experience a higher level the internal push factors (role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload) will have a higher level of turnover intention.							Partially Supported
Path			Standard Estimate	Standard Error	Critical Ratio	P-Value	Result on Hypothesis
Internal Push Factors/Role Stress Factors		Turnover Intention					
Role Conflict	→	Turnover Intention	.188	.071	3.445	0.000	Supported
Role Ambiguity	→	Turnover Intention	-.053	.073	-1.100	.271	Not Supported
Role Overload	→	Turnover Intention	.066	.069	1.248	.212	Not Supported

Hypothesis 6 examined that lecturers who perceive more favourable external pull factors (job opportunity, external compensation, external working location and external university image) will have a higher level of turnover intention. Only one of the external pull factor, working location had a significant relationship with

turnover intention. Thus, hypothesis H6 is partially supported as only working location has a significant relationship with lecturers' turnover intention.

The relationship between external job opportunity and turnover intention.

Lecturers who perceive a more attractive external job opportunity, will have a higher level of turnover intention. The standardised estimated path coefficient between the external job opportunity and turnover intention is ($\beta=-0.016$) and is not significant (critical ratio= -0.386, $p=0.700$). Therefore external job opportunity does not contribute significantly towards lecturers' turnover intention at 0.05 level of confidence.

The relationship between external compensation and turnover intention.

Lecturers who perceived a more attractive external compensation, will have a higher level of turnover intention. The standardised estimated path coefficient between the external compensation and turnover intention is ($\beta=0.046$) and is not significant (critical ratio= 0.893, $p=0.372$). Therefore external compensation does not contribute significantly towards lecturers' turnover intention at 0.05 level of confidence.

The relationship between external working location and turnover intention.

Lecturers who perceived other working location as more attractive, will have a higher level of turnover intention. The standardised estimated path coefficient between the external working location and turnover intention is ($\beta=0.116$) and is

significant (critical ratio= 2.543, $p=0.011$).Therefore external working location does contribute significantly towards lecturers' turnover intention at 0.05 level of confidence. The result is consistent with previous research which found that external working location has a significant positive relationship with turnover intention (Agrawal & Swaroop, 1999; Ali Shah et al.,2010; Ausra & Rinkevičius, 2006; Cable & Murray, 1999; Conklin & Desselle,2007; Eaton & Hunt, 1999; Eaton & Nofsinger, 2000; Holland & Arrington, 1987; Hunt et al., 2009; Ingersoll, 2011; Kida & Mannino, 1986; Mahony et al., 2006; Masahudu, 2008; Olsen, 1992; Scalan et al., 2010, Shuster, 1970; Yan et al., 2015).

The relationship between external university image and turnover intention.

Lecturers who perceive a more favourable image of other universities, will have a higher level of turnover intention. The standardised estimated path coefficient between the external university image and turnover intention is ($\beta=0.032$) and is not significant (critical ratio= 0.588, $p=0.556$).Therefore external university image does not contribute significantly towards lecturers' turnover intention at 0.05 level of confidence.

The following Table 4.16 shows the Summary of Path Coefficients and Its Significance for Hypothesis 6

Table 4.16: Summary of Path Coefficients and Its Significance for Hypothesis 6

H6: Lecturers who perceive more favourable external pull factors (job opportunity, external compensation, external working location and external university image) will have a higher level of turnover intention.								Partially Supported
Path				Standard Estimate	Standard Error	Critical Ratio	P-Value	Result on Hypothesis
External Pull Factors/Attraction Factors			Turnover Intention					
External Job Opportunity	→		Turnover Intention	-.016	.063	-.386	.700	Not Supported
External Compensation	→		Turnover Intention	.046	.067	.893	.372	Not Supported
External Working Location	→		Turnover Intention	.116	.055	2.543	.011	Supported
External University Image	→		Turnover Intention	.032	.077	.588	.556	Not Supported

Hypothesis 7 examined the negative significant relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention. The standardised estimated path coefficient between the job satisfaction and turnover intention is ($\beta=-0.460$) and is significant (critical ratio=-9.731, $p=0.000$). Therefore hypothesis 7 is supported in the same hypothesis direction. Based on hypothesis 7, there is a significant large negative relationship between the job satisfaction and turnover intention at 0.001 level of confidence. The result is consistent with previous research which found that job satisfaction has a significant negative relationship with turnover intention (Abdullah Hashim & Mahmood, 2011; Barnes et al., 1998; Brayfield & Crockett, 1955; Cotton & Turtle, 1986; Daly & Dee, 2006; Goi, 2013; Hom et al., 2016;

Hom & Griffeth, 1991; Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002; Locke, 1976; March & Simon, 1958; Mobley, 1977; Mobley et al., 1978; Mowday et al., 1982; Rosser, 2004; Rosser & Townsend, 2006; Ryan et al., 2012; Smart, 1990; Yücel, 2012; Zhang & Feng, 2011).

The following Table 4.17 shows the Summary of Path Coefficients and Its Significance for Hypothesis 7

Table 4.17: Summary of Path Coefficients and Its Significance for Hypothesis 7

H7: Job satisfaction is inversely related to turnover intention, i.e a lower job satisfaction would result in a higher turnover intention.						Supported
Path		Standard Estimate	Standard Error	Critical Ratio	P-Value	Result on Hypothesis
Job Satisfaction	→ Turnover Intention	.460	.069	-9.731	0.000	Supported

Four variables were found to have statistically significant impacts on job satisfaction. These variables explained 35 percent of the variance in job satisfaction. The work itself ($\beta = 0.251$) was found to have the greatest influence, followed in order of magnitude by role ambiguity ($\beta = -0.116$), opportunities for advancement ($\beta = 0.137$) and role overload ($\beta = -0.113$). Job satisfaction is thus increased when lecturers are doing the job they love, there are opportunities for advancement, when their work is not excessive and their roles are clearly defined.

In terms of turnover intention, there were five variables that had a statistical significance with turnover intention. Job satisfaction ($\beta=-0.460$) was found to have the greatest influence, followed by role conflict ($\beta=0.188$), opportunities for advancement ($\beta=-0.161$), working location ($\beta=0.116$) and responsibility ($\beta=0.114$). These variables explained 42 percent of the variance in turnover intention. Lecturers' high turnover intention is thus influenced by a decrease in job satisfaction, increased in role conflict, decrease in opportunity for advancement, the attraction to a better working location and heavy responsibility in their current job.

4.8 Moderators Gender and Age

4.8.1 Age

Referring to table 4.18, lecturers' age does not moderate the relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention. For the test to be significant, the difference in Chi-square value must be higher than the value of Chi-square with 1 degree of freedom that is 3.84 (Awang, 2014). The differences in Chi-square value which is 1.138 (48.376 – 47.238), while the degree of freedom is 19-18=1. The moderation test is not significant since the differences in Chi-square value between the constrained and unconstrained model is 1.138 (1.138<3.84) (Awang, 2014). Table 4.18 provides the summary of findings for moderation test of age on lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention

Table 4.18: Summary of Findings for Moderation Test of Age on Lecturers' Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention

H8: Age has a moderating effect between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention				Not Supported
	Constrained Model	Unconstrained Model	Chi-Square Difference	Result on Moderation
Chi-Square (Chi-square value)	48.376	47.238	1.138	Not Significant
Df (Degree of Freedom)	37	36	1	
Ratio CMIN/df (Normed Chi-square ratio)	3.669	1.312		
RMSEA (Root-Mean-Square Error of Approximation)	0.082	0.029		
CFI (Comparative Fit Index)	0.979	0.995		
TLI (Tucker Lewis Index)	0.769	0.973		
GFI (Goodness-of-Fit Index)	0.979	0.984		

4.8.2 Gender

Referring to table 4.19, lecturers' gender does not moderate the relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention. The differences in Chi-square value is 0.195 (50.942 – 50.742), while the degree of freedom is 1 (37-36). For the test to be significant, the difference in Chi-square value must be higher than the value of Chi-square with 1 degree of freedom that is 3.84 (Awang, 2014). The moderation test is not significant since the differences in Chi-square value between the constrained and unconstrained model is 0.195 (0.195<3.84) (Awang, 2014). Table 4.19 provides the summary of findings for moderation test of gender on lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention

Table 4.19: Summary of Findings for Moderation Test of Gender on Lecturers' Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention

H9: Gender has a moderating effect on the relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention				Not Supported
	Constrained Model	Unconstrained Model	Chi-Square Difference	Result on Moderation
Chi-Square (Chi-square value)	50.942	50.747	0.195	Not Significant
Df (Degree of Freedom)	37	36	1	
Ratio CMIN/df (Normed Chi-square ratio)	2.998	3.162		
RMSEA (Root-Mean-Square Error of Approximation)	0.072	0.075		
CFI (Comparative Fit Index)	0.984	0.984		
TLI (Tucker Lewis Index)	0.825	0.811		
GFI (Goodness-of-Fit Index)	0.982	0.982		

4.9 Conclusion

Table 4.20 below provides a summary of results from the hypothesis testing of this study.

Table 4.20: The Summary of Results of Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis	Results
<p>H1: Lecturers who experience a higher level in the internal pull factors (achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, opportunity for advancement and opportunity for growth) will have a higher level of job satisfaction.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The work itself has a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction. - Opportunity for advancement has a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction. 	Partially Supported
<p>H2: Lecturers who experience a higher level in the internal push factors (role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload) will have a lower level of job satisfaction.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Role Ambiguity has a significant negative relationship with job satisfaction. - Role Overload has a significant negative relationship with job satisfaction. 	Partially Supported
<p>H3: Lecturers who perceive more favourable external pull factors (job opportunity, external compensation, external working location and external university image) will have a lower level of job satisfaction.</p>	Not Supported
<p>H4: Lecturers who experience a higher level in the internal pull factors (achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, opportunity for advancement and opportunity for growth) will have a lower level of turnover intention.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Opportunity for advancement has a significant negative relationship with turnover intention. - 	Partially Supported
<p>H5: Lecturers who experience a higher level in the internal push factors (role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload) will have a higher level of turnover intention.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Role conflict has a significant positive relationship with turnover intention. 	Partially Supported

Table 4.20 Continued

Hypothesis	Results	Hypothesis
H6:	Lecturers who perceive a more favourable external pull factors (job opportunity, external compensation, external working location and external university image) will have a higher level of turnover intention. - External working location has a significant positive relationship with turnover intention.	Partially Supported
H7:	Job satisfaction is inversely related to turnover intention, i.e a lower job satisfaction would result in a higher turnover intention.	Supported
H8:	Age has a moderating effect on the relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention.	Not Supported
H9:	Gender has a moderating effect on the relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention.	Not Supported

The results from the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and path analysis provided some useful insights into the relationship between internal pull factors, internal push factors and external pull factors on lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention as well as the negative relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention. A more detailed discussion of the results, implication and recommendation for future research will be presented in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

There are six parts to this chapter. The first section is the brief summary of the significant results obtained from the study. The second part is the discussion on the implications of the significant results produced from this study. Next is the contribution of the research to theory and practice. This is then followed by the limitations of the study. Thereafter, the recommendations for improvement and directions for future research is discussed. The last section is the conclusion of the study.

5.1 A Summary of the Significant Results

According to the results of this study, the internal pull factors, comprising of the work itself and opportunities for advancement, have been found to have significant positive relationships with lecturers' job satisfaction (**H1**). Next, internal push factors, consisting of role ambiguity and role overload, were found to have significant negative relationships with lecturers' job satisfaction (**H2**).

Only one internal pull factor, which is opportunities for advancement, had a significant negative relationship with lecturers' turnover intention. Although responsibility had a significant relationship with lecturers' turnover intention, the

direction of the relationship was positive, hence it did not support the hypothesis **(H4)**.

Only one internal push factor, role conflict had a significant positive relationship with lecturers' turnover intention **(H5)**. Working location was the only external pull factor that had a significant positive relationship with lecturers' turnover intention **(H6)**. Lastly, there was a significant negative relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention **(H7)**.

This study has revealed that internal factors--the work itself, opportunities for advancement, role ambiguity and role overload--have significant relationships with lecturers' job satisfaction. None of the external pull factors had a significant relationship with lecturers' job satisfaction. Internal factors--opportunities for advancement, responsibility, role conflict--have significant relationships with lecturers' turnover intention however the only external pull factor that had a significant relationship with lecturers' turnover intention was working location. Lastly, the study has produced a significant negative relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention. There was no moderation relationship of age and gender between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention. This could have been a result of the context of the study.

The results of this study have answered the first research question and have fulfilled the research objectives in determining; the direct and indirect significant

relationships between internal pull factors, internal push factors and external pull factors with lecturers job satisfaction and turnover intention, the assessment of the relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention as well as the moderating effect of age and gender on the relationship between lecturers job satisfaction and turnover intention. The study has also answered the second research question; internal factors have a stronger relationship with lecturers job satisfaction and turnover intention as compared to external factors.

5.2 Implications of the Significant Results

5.2.1 Internal Pull Factors and Job Satisfaction

5.2.1.1 The Work Itself and Job Satisfaction

As per previous research, the work itself has a highly positive and significant relationship with lecturers' job satisfaction (Abdullah Hashim & Mahmood, 2011; Gilman et al., 2012; Hong et al., 2011; Idris & Romle, 2015; Mohd Noor & Hassan, 2014; Nanda & Krishna, 2013; Paul & Phua, 2011; Peake & Parr, 2012; Sharma & Jyoti, 2009). The work itself is a motivating factor for lecturers to embark on a career as a teacher and researcher in higher education. Lecturers enter the academic profession as they enjoy the nature of the work itself; they have the love and passion for wanting to teach and share their knowledge with their students and also contribute their research findings to the community (Steven, 2005). Love for their job is clearly an important factor; hence it is the

very reason why lecturers enter the teaching profession. Lecturers want to make a difference and see their students succeed therefore, intrinsic motivation is achieved from the work itself.

According to Idris and Romle (2015), when lecturers are entrusted with assignments according to their specialisations and interests, they will then enjoy their job; as such management of universities should make the best use of employee talent with regards to their work. Thus, an enhancement in the nature of the work itself, such as more autonomy and academic freedom for lecturers to teach students based on content that they see fit, would increase lecturers' job satisfaction. Universities should capitalise on this by providing lecturers with more teaching and research autonomy such as the freedom to choose which part of their specialist area they want to teach and how they teach it, and the freedom to work on research publications according to their speciality which will enhance a lecturer's reputation. If the university management is able to make the best use of their lecturers' talent, this would increase their lecturers' job satisfaction. Lastly, recruitment agencies must focus on adding important motivating elements in their recruitment campaigns which focuses on statements such as the opportunity to work with their students and helping to shape the future while making a social contribution to the nation.

5.2.1.2 Opportunities for Advancement and Job Satisfaction

Next, consistent with the findings of past studies, opportunities for advancement have a significant positive relationship with lecturers' job satisfaction (Awang et al., 2010; Kochar, 2008; Noor & Hassan, 2014; Price & Mueller, 1981; Rubel & Kee, 2015; Santhapparaj & Alam, 2005; Stevens, 2005). Opportunities for advancement is significant to lecturers' job satisfaction which means that lecturers want advancement in their academic career from lecturer to senior lecturer or associate professor to professor as their academic rank reflects their experience, knowledge and contribution to the community in both teaching and research.

Career advancement is attained from a lecturer's contribution in teaching and research. Lecturers are intrinsically motivated by scholarly interest, wanting to gain prestige in their academic career besides aiding in the university image and ranking. Hence job satisfaction is achieved through academic advancement in a lecturers' field. It is also important that opportunities for advancement are clear and is done in a timely manner. According to Awang and Ahamd (2010) and Rubel and Kee (2015) opportunities for advancement should be fair and rewarding furthermore, time scale promotion may be applicable as it is based on a lecturer's contribution to both teaching and research. The university management should develop acceptable structure that would allow them to have the opportunity for academic career advancement (Rubel & Kee, 2015). Academic promotional structure should be transparent and university management must

encourage lecturers to plan their career movement from lecturer to senior lecturer and associate professor to professor. This is important as academic rank may indicate that lecturers of a university are of elite status. Furthermore, academic rank represents the quality of education offered by the university.

5.2.2 Internal Push Factors and Job Satisfaction

5.2.2.1 Role Ambiguity and Job Satisfaction

As per previous research, role ambiguity has a significant negative relationship with job satisfaction (Ahsan et al., 2009; Khan & Irfan, 2014; Panatik et al., 2012; Usman et al., 2011; Yaacob & Choi, 2015). In fulfilling the requirements of stakeholders, Malaysian Private Universities are going through a very challenging working environment. This challenging working environment includes the increase in role demand and the lack of information provided to lecturers to perform their job; hence this may have significantly affect lecturers' job satisfaction level. Furthermore, lecturers may encounter role ambiguity when lecturers' roles and functions as a teacher, academic administrator and researcher are not clearly defined (Idris, 2011). There could be a possibility that academics are not getting the feedback needed to perform their roles and take the necessary corrective action to enhance or make changes to the way they perform their roles, as such this may have led to role ambiguity being significantly related to job satisfaction. Lecturers who are given unclear goals and objectives will find it difficult to perform their duties. As such, lecturers may be feeling ambiguous

about roles; hence universities must clarify the role of a lecturer in teaching, research and scholarly activities, consultancy, community service and their administrative functions to avoid any ambiguity. With the emphasis now on research output by universities, lecturers who were comfortable with traditional teaching may not be ready and mentally prepared to accept the challenge of research. Lecturers may also not be sure of the expectations from their role as a researcher and teacher; hence there is an imperative need to have their roles clearly defined (Idris, 2011; Khan & Irfan, 2014). Lecturers may also want constructive feedback to improve themselves as a lecturer.

Thus, university management must clearly define the role of a lecturer with regards to the respective roles that they play in the university. The management of the respective universities together with MOHE should review and provide a similar structure clearly defining the rights of a lecturer, the role that a lecturer plays in the university and their duties and responsibilities that lecturer's has towards their students, the university and the nation. Furthermore, MOHE, policy makers and the respective university managements should have detailed descriptions of the roles, responsibilities and duties of a lecturer together with the expected outcomes and criteria to evaluate especially in their key performance indicators. This would allow MOHE and the university management to critically assess lecturers' productivity and their level of contribution to the university and the nation. Furthermore, according to Idris (2011), role ambiguity in lecturers can be lessened by having (1) job briefing--whereby lecturers are briefed by the

university management on their various roles, responsibilities and duties so that lecturers' are well informed of the role demands which would allow them to excel in their job performance as a lecturer; (2) training--for career growth and development in both teaching and research ; (3) skill variety—which would allow lecturers to have the opportunity to learn and acquire the essential skills needed in carrying out the the variety of job roles and responsibilities; (4) task identity--allows lecturers to complete their tasks from the start to finish; (5) job autonomy--job-related decisions can be made by lecturers by giving them autonomy in decision making with regards to the work of a lecturer and (6) constructive and positive feedback- which must be provided in allowing opportunities for lecturers to improve the quality of their teaching and research output.

5.2.2.2 Role Overload and Job Satisfaction

As per the findings of past research, role overload has a significant negative relationship with lecturers' job satisfaction (Ahsan et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2007; Iverson & Maguire, 2000; Khan & Irfan, 2014; Mamiseishvili & Rosser, 2011; Ngo et al., 2005; Price, 2001; Ryan et al., 2012; Yaacob & Choi, 2015). The heavy demands and responsibilities of a lecturer in their role as a teacher, researcher and administrator may have significantly affected their job satisfaction level. The globalisation of the higher education sector in Malaysia came with the introduction of new policies, the introduction of modern technologies, the introduction of greater roles and demands and higher workloads with the objective of catering to the increase in both local and international student

population and to improve quality of graduates in building an innovative based economy. The role and job demands of a lecturer has also increased due to the direct contact with staff, university administration and the increasing number of local and international students. Hence, the demanding higher education sector environment in Malaysia may have contributed to an increase in role overload; lecturers' may be experiencing an increase in role demands from their role as a teacher, researcher and academic administrator.

Due to the overload of tasks from each role that lecturers are responsible for, lecturers may find it difficult to finish their designated roles and responsibilities on time. The overload of work could compel lecturers to stay back and complete their work after their normal working hours. Lecturers may even have to bring their work home and use their personal time to accommodate the work load and demands just to finish their work on time. This may affect their job satisfaction level. Nevertheless, some approaches to reduce role overload include; (1) employing tutors to help lessen the the teaching workload; (2) university management and faculty may even hire research assistants to aid lecturers in their research and development work; (3) university management can reduce the amount of paperwork and lessen the number of teaching hours designated to lecturers; (4) there should also be a small student-to-lecturer ratio as this can lessen the workload in managing a class and finally (5) it is also important that academics must be given the opportunity to accept or reject additional roles that

are offered or suggested by the university management (Abbas et al., 2012; Awang & Ahmad, 2020; Daly & Dee, 2010; Khan & Irfan, 2014) .

5.2.3 Internal Pull Factors and Turnover Intention

5.2.3.1 Opportunities for Advancement and Turnover Intention

Similar to studies by Haider Shah and Jumani (2015), Hassan (2014), Mikovich and Boudreau (1997) and Price and Mueller (1981), lecturers have rated opportunities for advancement as significant to their turnover intention; hence lack of opportunity to promote to a higher rank would affect their intention to quit. According to lecturers, the lack of opportunity for career advancement would make lecturers pursue their career elsewhere. It is recommended that employee retention can be increased by offering a career path that will make employees stay in their organisations. If lecturers are aware of the career path and the criteria required to attain academic promotion, this would encourage lecturers to stay in their present university (Awang & Ahmad, 2010; Rubel & Kee, 2015).

5.2.3.2 Responsibility and Turnover Intention

This study revealed that responsibility had a significant positive relationship with lecturers' turnover intention which however did not support the hypothesis of this study. This may be an indication that lecturers' responsibility could be considered as a stress factor to lecturers; hence this may have affected their turnover intention

in their current university. Responsibility is a job enrichment tool that is used to motivate employees, increase their performance at work and reduce turnover intention (Awang et al., 2013). Nevertheless in this study, responsibility was found to have a positive significant relationship with turnover intention, hence providing an employee with greater responsibility may unfortunately lead to more stress and this could lead to a decrease in job performance and a lack of confidence (Rageb et al., 2013).

Qasim et al. (2014) stated that responsibility is a challenge stressor. Challenge stressors are work-related demands that might be stressful but have possible gains for the employee; hence it is important to take note that job responsibility may also be a stressor which may have been the reason why lecturers rated responsibility as having a positive significant effect on turnover intention (Qasim, et al., 2014, Sacramento, Fay & West, 2013). According to Liu (2010), high level of employee responsibilities towards certain amount of people in the organisation such as; responsibility on student's progress and responsibility towards research quality may be a challenge stressor. The management of universities must clearly define the responsibilities given to lecturers by having a clear job scope and clear job content with description and procedures for each role. Management must explain to whom lecturers' should report to, what their responsibilities and corresponding expectations are and also the level of authority required for each role that a lecturer performs. University management may provide resources such as tutors to assist in student progress or hire research assistants to help lecturers'

in their research and development work; hence this may hopefully reduce the challenge stress associated with responsibilities and subsequently reduce lecturers' turnover intention.

5.2.4 Role Conflict (Internal Push Factor) and Turnover Intention

As per past studies, there is a highly significant positive relationship between role conflict and lecturers' turnover intention (Ali Shah et al., 2010; Glazer & Beehr, 2005; Idris, 2011; Khan & Irfan, 2014; Ngo et al., 2005 Rageb et al., 2013). The role conflict faced by lecturers may be due to the difficulty of dividing their time accordingly between teaching, research and academic administration work. Although there may be adequate resources provided by MOHE and university management to allow lecturers to perform their role, there may be conflict between teaching and research. Conflict between teaching and research needs to be addressed as research productivity may also be affected if lecturers are facing increased work load since the allocation of working time for research activities may be conflicting with other role demands.

There may also be conflict between teaching needs and increasing specialisation of research interest and conflict due to lack of collegial support. Private universities today are striving to become research universities while trying to attain a prestigious reputation; hence conflict may arise due to lack of consensus on the mission of the university. Lecturers who teach and conduct research should

be given adequate hours in a semester to fulfil their role which could reduce their role conflict. Student consultation, student coaching and mentoring and the supervision of students' final year projects and thesis may also be carefully planned by the university management within the semester plan to allow lecturers to reduce their role conflict with teaching and research. In order for lecturers to reduce role conflict while fulfilling their respective roles, lecturers must be given emotional support, ample resources and enough time to complete their jobs. The university management may reduce lecturers' role conflict by providing training in time management, increasing and improving communication between role senders and lecturers, allowing lecturers to have more job autonomy in making decisions and managing their teaching, research and academic administration roles and the university management must avoid conflicting work deadlines (Rathakrishnan et al., 2016).

5.2.5 Working Location (External Pull Factor) and Turnover Intention

Next, similar to the research by Ali Shah et al. (2010) and Yan et al. (2015), working location was the one external pull factor that was found to have a significant positive relationship with lecturers' turnover intention. In Malaysia, the urbanisation of Klang Valley has its fair share of advantages, thus lecturers may be pulled to leave if there is better accessibility to other universities which includes transportation, time, distance, traffic, commuting routes and parking facilities. Commuting time is an important factor in the Klang Valley where

traffic congestion has become a norm. When considering working location, distance between home of stay and the university may be important to lecturers in achieving a better work-life balance. Providing housing facilities for lecturers can also improve travelling time and present parking problems. This is something that the university management can consider as an attraction factor.

5.2.6 Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention

Lastly, academics' job satisfaction may influence lecturers' turnover intention and past research has consistently produced high significance levels between job satisfaction and employee turnover intention in both academic and non-academic settings (Abdullah Hashim & Mahmood, 2011; Daly & Dee, 2006; Goi, 2013; Hom et al., 2016; Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002; Mobley et al., 1978; Rathakrishnan et al., 2016; Rosser, 2004; Rosser & Townsend, 2006; Ryan et al., 2012; Smart, 1990; Stevens, 2005; Yücel, 2012; Zhang & Feng, 2011). The findings of this research have indicated that universities must minimise turnover intention through the improvement of lecturers' job satisfaction through intrinsic motivational factors such as the work itself and the opportunities for advancement while reducing lecturers' role stress namely through role ambiguity and role overload.

Lecturers are not only educators but they are actively involved in research and development, moreover, they are also responsible in shaping future talent. Hence the implications of the significant push and pull factors (the work itself,

opportunity for advancement, role ambiguity, role overload, role conflict, responsibility and working location) discussed in this study would definitely encourage policy makers, MOHE and government bodies to collaborate and discover ways to tackle these push and pull factors with the purpose of assisting lecturers and the university management in improving lecturers' job satisfaction and reducing turnover intention in institutions of higher education in Malaysia (Rathakrishnan et al., 2016). Besides the implications mentioned, this study also summarised the probable contribution of this study to both theory and practice.

5.3 Contribution

5.3.1 Theoretical Contribution

The findings of the study has contributed and added value to the current knowledge and understanding of the organisational factors, job related factors and external environmental factors which draws upon the social information processing theory that can affect lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention. The study has examined both internal and external factors and has produced a comprehensive job satisfaction and turnover intention model with a different perspective. Although internal factors play a much stronger role than external pull factors in the relationship with lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention, nevertheless the study has proven that the push and pull theory is supported. Firstly (1) the theory has validated the importance of organisational and job related internal pull and push factors such as the work itself, opportunities for

advancement, responsibility, role overload, role ambiguity and role conflict with lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention and, it was also discovered that (2) an external environmental factor; working location emerged as the only external pull factor that had a significantly affect with lecturers' turnover intention.

This research has contributed to existing knowledge on factors affecting job satisfaction and turnover intention, and it has improved our understanding that, yes there are certain internal factors that have a pull and push effect on lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention, however there are also factors that can attract lecturers to leave, in this case working location. The probable role of external pull factors having an impact on employees' turnover intention has been highlighted by economists and sociologists. Hence, lecturers may leave their current university after re-assessing the level of attractiveness of external conditions outside their university. As such, lecturers when confronted by attractive alternatives, may re-evaluate their intention to stay or leave their current university; hence the probable role of external pull factors being lecturer turnover studies is necessary to understand the push and pull effect affecting lecturers' turnover intention.

5.3.2 Practical Contribution

It is with great hope that the results produced from this research would carry an important message to MOHE, university management, recruitment bodies, teacher educators and policy makers that there must be policies and practices implemented to recruit and retain lecturers as they are a valuable asset to universities. The findings of this study has contributed to our understanding that efforts to improve job satisfaction and reduce turnover intention are vital so that MOHE will be able to achieve its objective of globalising the Malaysian Higher education sector.

Firstly, the focus on improving internal factors such as the work itself, opportunity for advancement and reducing role ambiguity and role conflict should be given greater emphasis by practitioners, policy makers and researchers to improve lecturers' job satisfaction. In addition to this, efforts to improve opportunity for advancement, clearly defining lecturers' responsibilities, reducing role conflict and paying attention to the attractiveness of the working location of a university can reduce turnover intention within the university.

The strong relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention will contribute to the understanding of the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention among lecturers in the higher education sector ; hence the necessity for researchers and practitioners to enhance lecturers' job satisfaction,

which will reduce lecturers' turnover intention (Rathakrishnan et al., 2016). This study has provided suggested strategies that MOHE and the university management can adopt to improve job satisfaction and reduce turnover intention among lecturers in the business administration field in Malaysian private universities. It is with great hope that MOHE should use the findings of this research to re-evaluate existing policies and introduce new policies in relation to lecturers' role and workload as a teacher, researcher and their involvement in academic administration. The results of this research would hopefully influence MOHE to conduct regular audits on the workload of a lecturer with regards to student to lecturer ratio, the number of teaching hours per week in a semester, the number of student supervision assigned to a lecturer in a semester, the number of target research publication per year set for a lecturer and the number of students assigned to a lecturer as mentees per semester. Furthermore MOHE and university management should re-evaluate the human resource policies on the criteria for a lecturer to be promoted. Lastly policies with regards to lecturers' housing and transportation should also be re-evaluated.

The results of this study will help university management to initiate preventive action and find a solution to lecturer turnover issues. Furthermore, the results of this research would aid in the development of retention programs which will be beneficial to both the university management and lecturers. These programs may especially be important to private universities where faculty work and the university objectives, vision and mission may be complex and often complicated.

Hopefully this would strengthen the relationship between the university management and lecturers, improve lecturers' motivation, reduce lecturers' role stress and increase the attractiveness of a university's working location.

5.4 Limitations of the Study

This research has several limitations mainly, the study focused only on the Faculty of Business of local private universities. Secondly, a mono method quantitative approach has its limitations in examining a complex environment, hence mixed methods approach that examined both quantitative and qualitative data is recommended and would provide a more precise and reliable result. The mixed methods mode approach would complement and further refine the quantitative data, on the effects of push and pull on lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention. Thirdly, the study could have included personal factors in studying lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention. Lastly, the research was conducted using a cross-sectional study.

5.5 Recommendation and Directions for Future Research

Future research could have a broader based population including other faculties that have also experienced poor job satisfaction and high turnover intention such as the engineering faculties (Goyal, Shah, & Naidu, 2015) and medical faculties

(Pololi, Krupat, Civian, Ash, & Brennan, 2012). These faculties have highlighted the importance of conducting research on lecturers' turnover intention, due to the increasing costs of recruiting and replacing lecturers that have left. Also, these faculties identified high workload, depression, anxiety, stress and burnout as the main factors that affected lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention (Goyal, Shah, & Naidu, 2015; Pololi, Krupat, Civian, Ash, & Brennan, 2012). For an improved research, future research is needed to validate the model with lecturers from public universities to allow for a comparative study. A comparative study may also be done on foreign branch universities, other faculty disciplines, colleges and schools as there may be different needs and expectations; hence the results of the study may differ. Also it would be interesting to see the effect of the study through a longitudinal study and to study the relationship between turnover intention and actual behaviour.

The complexity of this research in examining push and pull factors with lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention using a single research design and methodology alone may not be sufficient enough to provide sufficient details into the why and how, hence this research would benefit from the adoption of a mixed methods approach that examined both quantitative and qualitative data. This would assist in explaining and interpreting the findings of the push and pull factors that may have an impact on lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention. Using the concurrent triangulation design, both quantitative and qualitative data are collected concurrently in one phase and is analysed separately

and then compared and combined. This would allow for the confirmation, cross validation and corroboration of the research findings. The results may assist university management and MOHE to improve lecturers' job satisfaction and reduce turnover intention. Subsequently this research would generate a richer and deeper understanding of the factors that cause lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention (Mertens & Hesse-Biber, 2012). Future research may also examine other internal pull factors such as level of autonomy whereby according to Rathakrishnan et al. (2016) and Umaru and Ombugus (2017), lecturers' level of autonomy, which includes the freedom to make professional choices as a lecturer, is a motivational factor that can affect both job satisfaction and turnover intention. Next, internal push factors such as relationships with co-workers and students may also be examined as a stress factor that may affect both lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention (Sadeghi & Sa'adatpourvahidet, 2016). Also, external pull factors such as career advancement opportunities available in other universities (Yan et al., 2015) may be a possible attraction factor as lecturers may be attracted to the possibility of acquiring a higher academic rank in another university. Individual based internal factors such as family background (Ali Shah et al., 2010) may also influence both lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention as lecturers could experience family health problems which could take a toll on their work performance, satisfaction level at work and subsequently may also affect their intention to quit their job at their current institution of higher learning. According to AbuBakar and Kura (2015) future research is needed to test the moderating effect of age and gender with the relationship with job

satisfaction and turnover intention among lecturers, however based on the results of this study, the moderation effect should be studied in a different context, such as other faculties or public universities.

5.6 Conclusion

With the globalisation of the higher education sector in Malaysia, universities must be able to respond to the changes in university environment both internally and externally. Retaining quality lecturers is fundamental in preserving and enhancing academic quality in meeting the demands of a globalised economy. In order to attract and retain calibre lecturers, there must be improvements made to the role and job of a lecturer.

The results from this research have underlined the importance of both pull and push factors in relation to lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention. Hence, MOHE, policy makers, university governance and educators and recruitment bodies should work together and ensure that various policies must be enforced to lessen lecturers' turnover. Lecturers are the intellectual resources of the university. Hence, they are a valuable asset to the university and they play an important role in educating the future workforce. Lecturers are core employees of the universities and their contributions will achieve the goals and objectives set by stakeholders and policymakers. It is with great optimism that the findings of this

research will prove useful in the improvement of faculty and university climate which will hopefully aid in retaining the nation's high calibre academic staff.

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APPENDIX A

Survey Instrument: Questionnaire

Dear Lecturer,

I am a student currently pursuing a doctoral degree at Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman (UTAR). I am conducting a study examining the push and pull factors and their relationships with your job satisfaction and turnover intention. This research is being conducted as a partial fulfilment of the requirements of my doctoral degree.

Accompanying this letter is a short questionnaire for you to answer. The instructions for completing this questionnaire can be found on the form itself. Your cooperation in completing and returning this questionnaire is much appreciated. It should take you about 20 minutes to complete this survey.

Please be assured that the information you provide will only be used for academic purpose and will be treated with strict **CONFIDENTIALITY**. Please ensure that your name is not written anywhere in this questionnaire. I hope you find completing this survey enjoyable and thank you for taking the time to complete it. If you have any questions or issues, please do not hesitate to contact me at sudhashini888@yahoo.com.

Yours sincerely

Sudhashini Nair

SECTION A: Respondent Demographic

Please tick (☐) on the appropriate box or fill in the blank for each of the questions given below.

Gender:

☐

Male

☐

Female

Race:

☐

Malay

☐

Indian

☐

Chinese

☐

Others (Please specify)

Age: _____ **years.**

Marital Status:

☐

Single

☐

Others (Please specify)

☐

Married

Highest Education Qualification:

☐

Professional Qualification

☐

Master's Degree

☐

Bachelor's Degree

☐

Doctoral Degree

Academic Rank:

☐

Lecturer

☐

Associate Professor

☐

Senior Lecturer

☐

Professor

☐

Assistant Professor

Your gross income per month:

☐

Less than RM 3,000

☐

RM 9,001 - RM 11,000

☐

RM 3,001 - RM 5,000

☐

RM 11,001 - RM 13,000

☐

RM 5,001 - RM 7,000

☐

RM 13,001 - RM 15,000

☐

RM 7,001 - RM 9,000

☐

More than RM 15,000

Please indicate your current employment status:

☐

Probation

☐

Permanent

☐

Contractual

**Number of years and months teaching at your current university: _____ years
_____ months.**

SECTION B: Job Environmental Factors at your University

This section is asking for your opinions regarding different aspects of your job environment in your university. For each of the statements listed below, please circle the most appropriate number that represents your opinion the most.

Achievement

Please indicate the extent to which each of the following items exists in your current job.

No	Statements	To no extent	To a little extent	To some extent	To a consider able extent	To a great extent	To a very great extent
1	The actual achievement of work-related goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	The immediate results from my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	The actual adoption of practices which I recommend.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Personal goal attainment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Students follow the practices being taught by me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Observing my students' growth and success over a period of time.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	I am able to objectively evaluate my accomplishments.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Recognition

Please indicate the extent to which each of the following items is given in relation to your current job.

No	Statements	To no extent	To a little extent	To some extent	To a considerable extent	To a great extent	To a very great extent
1	Recognition of my accomplishments by co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Recognition of my accomplishments by superiors.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	My recognition compared to that of my co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	The recognition I get from the management for my ideas.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Publicity given to my work and activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6

The Work Itself

Please indicate the extent to which each of the following items describes your current work.

No	Statements	To no extent	To a little extent	To some extent	To a considerable extent	To a great extent	To a very great extent
1	I enjoy the type of work I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	My job is interesting.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	The challenging aspects of teaching.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	My level of enthusiasm about teaching.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	My job gives me a sense of accomplishment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	The work I do make a difference in my faculty.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Responsibility

Please indicate the extent to which each of the following items exists in your current job.

No	Statements	To no extent	To a little extent	To some extent	To a considerable extent	To a great extent	To a very great extent
1	The responsibility I have to get the job done.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	The total amount of responsibility I have.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	My responsibilities compared with those of my co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Committee responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Responsibilities outside my major areas of interest.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Opportunities for Advancement

Please indicate the extent to which each of the following items is present in your current job.

No	Statements	To no extent	To a little extent	To some extent	To a considerable extent	To a great extent	To a very great extent
1	Opportunities for advancement or promotion exist within the university.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	I know what is required of me to advance within the university.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Internal candidates receive fair consideration for open positions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Information about job vacancies within the university is readily available.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Opportunities for Growth

Please indicate the extent to which each of the following items is present in your current job.

No	Statements	To no extent	To a little extent	To some extent	To a considerable extent	To a great extent	To a very great extent
1	Opportunities for increased responsibility in education.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Opportunities provided for growth in education compared with growth in other fields.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Participation in in-service education. <i>(In-service education is defined as a program of planned activities designed to increase the competencies needed by all lecturers in the performance of their professional responsibilities.)</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Opportunities to grow professionally through formal education.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Opportunities to attend professional conferences, workshops, seminars and other professional activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Role Overload

Please indicate the level of agreement for each of the following items in relation to your current job roles.

No	Statements	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I have to do things which I don't really have the time and energy for.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	I need more hours in the day to do all the things which are expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	I can't ever seem to catch up.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I don't ever seem to have any time for myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	There are times when I can't meet everyone's expectations.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	I seem to have more commitments to overcome than some of the other lecturers I know.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Role Ambiguity

Please indicate the level of agreement for each of the following items in relation to your current job roles.

No	Statements	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I know exactly what is expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	I feel certain about how much authority I have.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Clear, planned goals and objectives exist for my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I know that I have divided my time properly.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	I know what my responsibilities are.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Explanation is clear of what has to be done.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Role Conflict

Please indicate the level of agreement for each of the following items in relation to your current job roles.

No	Statements	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I have to do things that should be done differently.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	I work on unnecessary things.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	I have to buck (<i>go against</i>) a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Job Opportunity

Please indicate the level of agreement for each of the following items in relation to your job opportunity.

No	Statements	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1	There are plenty of good academic jobs that I could have outside my current university.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Given the state of the academic job market, finding a job would be very difficult for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	It would be difficult for me to find another academic job that I like as much as my current job at the university.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	There is at least one good academic job that I could begin immediately if I were to leave my current university.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	I have good job opportunities outside my current university.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Compensation

For each of the following items, please indicate the degree of attractiveness of the compensation in other universities in comparison to your university.

No	Statements	Not attractive at all	Attractive to a little extent	Attractive to some extent	Attractive to a considerable extent	Attractive to a great extent	Attractive to a very great extent
1	The method used to determine salary in other universities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	The range of salaries paid to lecturers in other universities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	The amount of salary paid to lecturers in other universities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	The pay increment paid to lecturers in other universities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	The bonus paid to lecturers in other universities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	The fringe benefits available to lecturers in other universities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	The incentives available to lecturers in other universities.	1	2	3	4	5	6

University Image

For each of the following items, please indicate the degree of attractiveness of the image of other universities in comparison to your university.

No	Statements	Not attractive at all	Attractive to a little extent	Attractive to some extent	Attractive to a considerable extent	Attractive to a great extent	Attractive to a very great extent
1	The physical facilities of other universities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	The teaching quality of other universities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Being a well known university.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	The reputation of lecturers of other universities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	The national academic reputation of other universities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	The research funding available to lecturers at other universities.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Working Location

For each of the following items, please indicate the degree of attractiveness of the location of other universities in comparison with your place of stay.

No	Statements	Not attractive at all	Attractive to a little extent	Attractive to some extent	Attractive to a considerable extent	Attractive to a great extent	Attractive to a very great extent
1	Accessibility of transportation between my place of stay and other universities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Time taken commuting between my place of stay and other universities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Distance between my place of stay and other universities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Traffic between my place of stay and other universities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Alternative commuting routes between my place of stay and other universities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Parking facilities of other universities and their surroundings.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Job Satisfaction

Please indicate the level of agreement for each of the following items in relation to your job satisfaction.

No	Statements	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Each day at work seems like it will never end.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I find real enjoyment in my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	I consider my job to be rather unpleasant.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Turnover Intention

Please indicate the level of agreement for each of the following items in relation to your turnover intention.

No	Statements	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I often think about quitting my current job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	I will probably search for a new job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	I have the intention to leave my current university.	1	2	3	4	5	6

END OF QUESTIONNAIRE.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION.

ALL RESPONSES WILL BE KEPT PRIVATE AND CONFIDENTIAL.

CONSENT FORM

FULL TITLE OF STUDY

Push and pull factors: relationships with lecturers' job satisfaction and turnover intention.

Please Initial Box

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

☐

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving reason.

☐

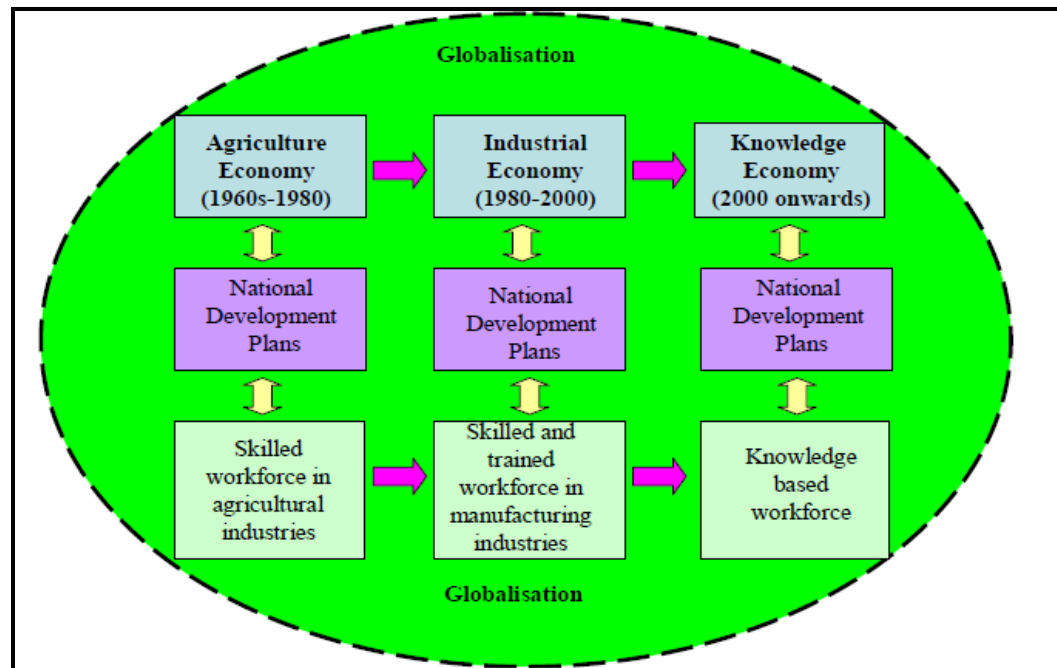
3. I agree to take part in the above study.

☐

Signature

Date

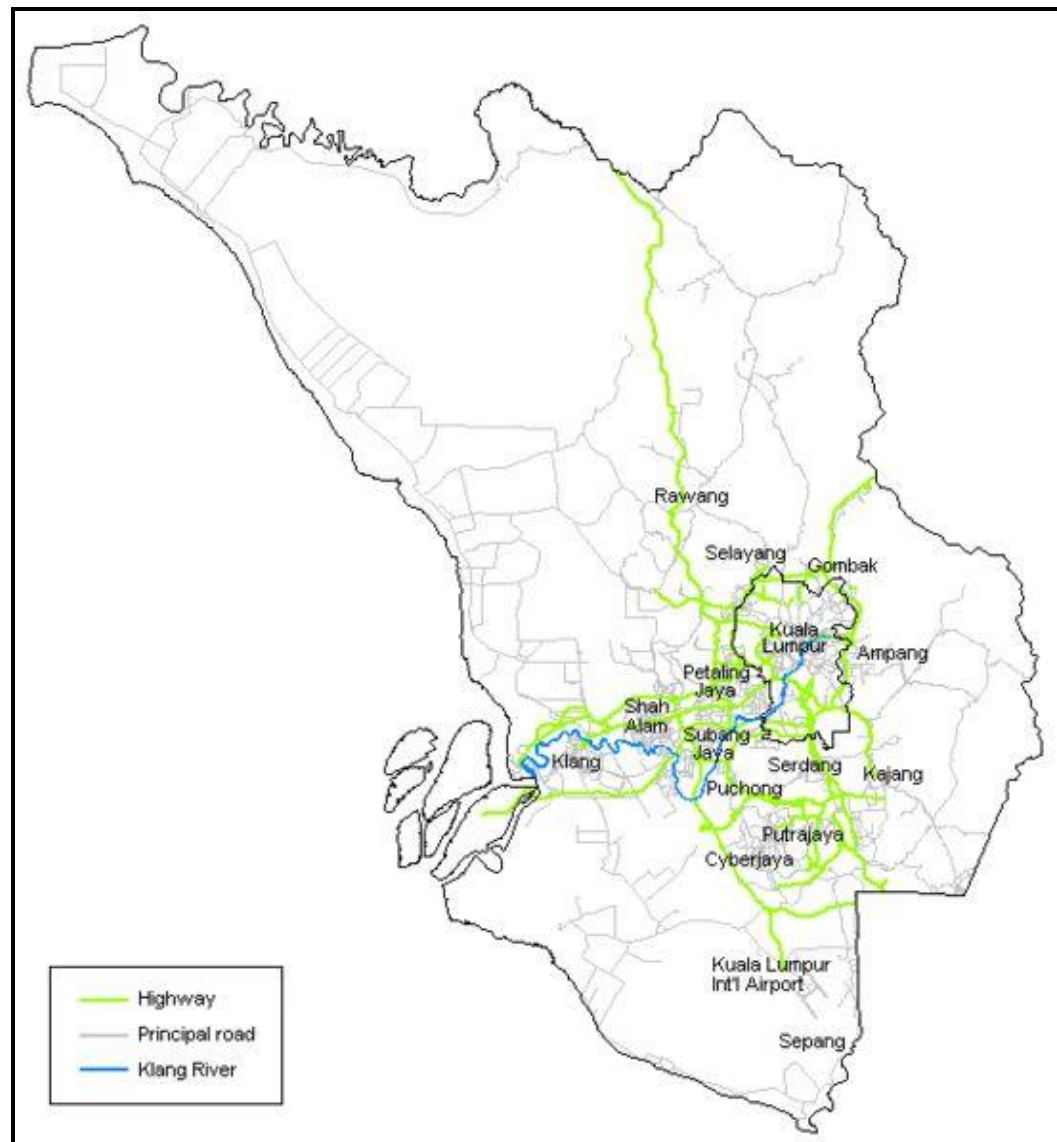
APPENDIX B



Framework of the Malaysian Economy: From Agricultural-Based Economy to Knowledge-Based Economy.

Source: Singh, Schapper & Mayson, 2010

APPENDIX C



Map of Klang Valley Malaysia

Source: Map of Klang Valley, 2013

Appendix D

The List of the 47 Private Universities in Malaysia

NO	University	Date of establishment	Location
1.	Asia e University (AeU) (Universiti Asia e)	2007	Kampung Atap, Kuala Lumpur, (Klang Valley)
2.	Asia Pacific University of Technology & Innovation (APU) (Universiti Teknologi dan Inovasi Asia Pasifik)	1993	Bukit Jalil, Kuala Lumpur (Klang Valley)
3.	HELP University (Universiti HELP)	1986	Pusat Bandar Damansara, Kuala Lumpur (Klang Valley)
4.	International Medical University (IMU) (University Perubatan Antarabangsa)	1992	Bukit Jalil, Kuala Lumpur (Klang Valley) and Seremban, Negeri Sembilan
5.	MAHSA University (Universiti MAHSA)	2005	Jalan University, Kuala Lumpur (Klang Valley)
6.	University Tunku Abdul Rahman (UTAR) (Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman)	2002	Setapak, Kuala Lumpur, Kajang, Petaling Jaya, (Klang Valley) Perak
7.	UCSI University (Universiti UCSI)	1986	Cheras, Kuala Lumpur (Klang Valley)

			Terengganu, Sarawak
8.	University of Kuala Lumpur (UniKL) (Universiti Kuala Lumpur)	2002	Jalan Sultan Ismail, Kuala Lumpur (Klang Valley)
9.	Open University of Malaysia (OUM) (Universiti Terbuka Malaysia)	2000	Jalan Tun Ismail, Kuala Lumpur (Klang Valley)
10.	International University of Malaya- Wales (IUMW)	2012	Jalan Tun Ismail, Kuala Lumpur (Klang Valley)
11.	Asia Metropolitan University (AMU) (Formerly known as Masterskill University College of health and Sciences)	2013	Cheras, Selangor (Klang Valley)
12.	GlobalNxt University (GNU) (a Manipal Group Institution)	2012	Kuala Lumpur (Klang Valley)
13.	Herriot Watt University of Malaysia (Universiti Herriot Watt Malaysia)	2014	Putrajaya, (Klang Valley)
14.	University Tenaga Nasional (UNITEN) (Universiti Tenaga Nasional)	1976	Putrajaya,& Kajang (Klang Valley)
15.	Al-Madinah International University (MEDIU) (Universiti Antarabangsa Al-Madinah)	2006	Shah Alam, Selangor (Klang Valley)
16.	Binary University of Management & Entrepreneurship (BUME) (Universiti Pengurusan dan Keusahawanan)	1984	Puchong Selangor (Klang Valley)
17.	Infrastructure University Kuala	1973	Kajang, Selangor

	Lumpur (IUKL) (Universiti Infrastruktur Kuala Lumpur)		(Klang Valley)
18.	Limkokwing University of Creative Technology (LUCT)University Teknologi Kreative Limkokwing	1992	Cyberjaya, Selangor (Klang Valley)
19.	Malaysia University of Science & Technology (MUST) (Universiti Sains dan Teknologi Malaysia)	2000	Petaling Jaya, Selangor (Klang Valley)
20.	Management and Science University (MSU) (Universiti Sains dan Pengurusan)	2002	Shah Alam, Selangor (Klang Valley)
21.	Monash University (MONASH) Universiti Monash Malaysia	1998	Petaling Jaya, Selangor (Klang Valley)
22.	Perdana University (PU) Universitii Perdana	2011	Serdang, Selangor (Klang Valley)
23.	SEGi University (SEGi) (Universitii SEGi)	1977	Kota Damansara, Selangor (Klang Valley)
24.	Sunway University (SYUC) (Universiti Sunway)	1987	Subang Jaya, Selangor
25.	Taylor's University (TAYLOR) Universiti Taylor	1969	Subang Jaya, Selangor (Klang Valley)
26.	Tun Abdul Razak University (UNIRAZAK) (Universiti Tun Abdul Razak)	1998	Petaling Jaya, Selangor (Klang Valley)
27.	University of Nottingham Malaysia Campus (UNMC) (Universiti Nottingham Kampus Malaysia	2000	Semenyih, Selangor (Klang Valley)
28.	University of Selangor (UNISEL) (Universiti Selangor)	1999	Betari Jaya, Selangor (Klang

			Valley)
29.	UNITAR International University (UNITAR) (Universiti Antarabangsa UNITAR)	2013	Petaling Jaya, Selangor (Klang Valley)
30.	Islamic University of Malaysia (Universiti Islam Malaysia (UIM)	2013	Cyberjaya(Klang Valley)
31	Putra Business School Graduate School of Management		Serdang, Selangor (Klang Valley)
32.	Multimedia University (MMU) (Universiti Multimedia)	1994	Malacca (main campus) Cyberjaya, (Klang Valley)Selangor and
33.	Wawasan Open University (WOU) University Terbuka Malaysia	2006	Penang, branches in Kuala Lumpur (Klang Valley)
34.	University Malaysia of Computer Science & Engineering (UniMy)	2012	Putrajaya (Klang Valley)
35.	INTI International University (INTI-IU) (Universiti Antarabangsa INTI)	1998	Nilai, Negeri Sembilan
36.	Manipal International University (MIU) (Universiti Antarabangsa Manipal)	2011	Nilai, Negeri Sembilan
37.	Nilai University (NU) (Universiti Nilai)	1997	Nilai, Negeri Sembilan
38.	Mayfield University (MFU) (Universiti Mayfield)	2002	Mayfield, Negeri Sembilan
39.	Petronas University of Technology (UTP) (Universiti Technology Petronas)	1997	Tronoh, Perak
40.	Quest International University	2008	Ipoh, Perak

	Perak (QIUP)		
41.	AMIST University(Asian Institute of Medicine, Science and Technology) (Universiti AMIST)	2001	Bedong, Kedah
42.	AlBukhary International University (AIU) (University Antarabangsa AlBukhary)	2010	Alor setar Kedah
43.	Curtin University Sarawak (Curtin) (Universiti Curtin Sarawak)	1999	Miri, Sarawak
44.	Swinburne University of Technology (Swinburne) (Universiti Teknologi Swinburne)	2000	Kuching, Sarawak
45.	Raffles University Iskandar Malaysia (RUI) Universiti Raffles Iskandar	2013	Johor Bahru, Johor
46	Newcastle University Medicine Malaysia (NUMM)(University Perubatan Newcastle Malaysia)	2009	Johor Bahru, Johor
47.	University of Southampton Malaysia Campus (USMC) (Universiti Southampton Kampus Malaysia)	2012	Johor Bahru, Johor

(MOHE, 2015).

Appendix E
The 34 Private Universities in the Klang Valley

NO	University	Date of establishment	Location
1	Asia e University (AeU) (Universiti Asia e)	2007	Kampung Atap, Kuala Lumpur (Klang Valley)
2	Asia Pacific University of Technology & Innovation (APU) (Universiti Teknologi dan Inovasi Asia Pasifik)	1993	Bukit Jalil, Kuala Lumpur (Klang Valley)
3	HELP University (Universiti HELP)	1986	Pusat Bandar Damansara, Kuala Lumpur (Klang Valley)
4	International Medical University (IMU) (University Perubatan Antarabangsa)	1992	Bukit Jalil, Kuala Lumpur (Klang Valley)
5	MAHSA University (Universiti MAHSA)	2005	Jalan University, Kuala Lumpur (Klang Valley)
6	University Tunku Abdul Rahman (UTAR) (Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman)	2002	Setapak, Kuala Lumpur, Kajang, Petaling Jaya, (Klang Valley)
7	UCSI University (Universiti UCSI)	1986	Cheras, Kuala Lumpur (Klang Valley)
8	University of Kuala Lumpur (UniKL) (Universiti Kuala Lumpur)	2002	Jalan Sultan Ismail, Kuala Lumpur (Klang Valley)
9	Open University of Malaysia (OUM) (University Terbuka Malaysia)	2000	Jalan Tun Ismail, Kuala Lumpur (Klang Valley)

10	Herriot Watt University of Malaysia (Universiti Herriot Watt Malaysia)	2014	Putrajaya, (Klang Valley)
11	University Tenaga Nasional (UNITEN) (Universiti Tenaga Nasional)	1976	Putrajaya,& Pahang (Klang Valley)
12	Islamic University of Malaysia (Universiti Islam Malaysia (UIM)	2013	Cyberjaya(Klang Valley)
13	Al-Madinah International University (MEDIU) (Universiti Antarabangsa Al-Madinah)	2006	Shah Alam, Selangor (Klang Valley)
14	Binary University of Management & Entrepreneurship (BUME) (Universiti Pengurusan dan Keusahawanan)	1984	Puchong Selangor (Klang Valley)
15	Infrastructure University Kuala Lumpur (IUKL) (Universiti Infrastruktur Kuala Lumpur)	1973	Kajang, Selangor (Klang Valley)
16	Limkokwing University of Creative Technology (LUCT)University Teknologi Kreative Limkokwing	1992	Cyberjaya, Selangor (Klang Valley)
17	Malaysia University of Science & Technology (MUST) (Universiti Sains dan Teknologi Malaysia)	2000	Petaling Jaya, Selangor (Klang Valley)
18	Management and Science University (MSU) (Universiti Sains dan Pengurusan)	2002	Shah Alam, Selangor (Klang Valley)
19	Monash University (MONASH) Universiti Monash Malaysia	1998	Petaling Jaya, Selangor (Klang Valley)
20	Perdana University (PU) Universiti Perdana	2011	Serdang, Selangor (Klang Valley)
21	SEGi University (SEGi) (Universiti SEGi)	1977	Kota Damansara, Selangor (Klang Valley)
22	Sunway University (SYUC) (Universiti Sunway)	1987	Subang Jaya, Selangor (Klang Valley)
23	Taylor's University (TAYLOR) Universiti Taylor	1969	Subang Jaya, Selangor (Klang Valley)

24	Tun Abdul Razak University (UNIRAZAK) (Universiti Tun Abdul Razak)	1998	Petaling Jaya, Selangor (Klang Valley)
25	GlobalNxt University (GNU) (a manipal group institution, delivered through online)	2012	School of Business (Klang Valley)
26	University of Nottingham Malaysia Campus (UNMC) (Universiti Nottingham Kampus Malaysia	2000	Semenyih, Selangor (Klang Valley)
27	University of Selangor (UNISEL) (Universiti Selangor)	1999	Shah Alam Selangor (Klang Valley)
28	UNITAR International University (UNITAR) (Universiti Antarabangsa UNITAR) previously known as UMTECH	2013	Petaling Jaya, Selangor (Klang Valley)
29	Asia Metropolitan University (AMU) (Formerly known as Masterskill University College of health and Sciences)	2013	Cheras, Selangor (Klang Valley)
30	Multimedia University (University multimedia) (MMU)	1994	Cyberjaya Campus, Selangor (Klang Valley)
31	Wawasan Open University (WOU) University Terbuka Malaysia (online programmes	2006	Penang, branches in Kuala Lumpur (Klang Valley)
32	University Malaysia of Computer Science & Engineering (UniMy)	2012	Putrajaya (Klang Valley)
33	International University of Malaya-Wales (IUMW)	2002	Kuala Lumpur (Klang Valley)
34	Putra Business School Graduate School of Managememt		Serdang, Selangor (Klang Valley)

Appendix F

The 15 private universities removed from the list

No	Name of Private University	Reasons
1	Asia e University (AeU)	ODL Online distance learning university
2	Al-Madinah International University	ODL Online distance learning university
3	GlobalNxt University (GNU)	ODL Online distance learning university
4	Wawasan Open University (WOU)	ODL Online distance learning university
5	Open University of Malaysia (OUM) (ODL Online distance learning university
6	Monash University (MONASH)	Foreign Branch University
7	University of Nottingham Malaysia Campus (UNMC)	Foreign Branch University.
8	Herriot Watt University of Malaysia	Freign Branch University.
9	International University of Malaya-Wales (IUMW)	Foreign Branch University and is under University of Malaya.
10	International Medical University (IMU)	Conduct Medical programmes only.
11	Perdana University (PU)	Conduct Medical programmes only
12	Islamic University of Malaysia (UIM)	Conduct Master's and Professional Islamic programmes only.
13	University Tenaga Nasional (UNITEN) (Business school is in Pahang.
14	University Malaysia of Computer Science & Engineering (UniMy)	Conduct computer science and engineering programmes only.
15	Putra Business School Graduate School of Managememt which although is under UPM	Conduct post graduate programmes only

Appendix G

Total number of full time Faculty of Business lecturers from each of the 19 private universities in the Klang Valley

NO	Private Universities in the Klang Valley	Number of Lecturers in the Faculty of Business
1	Asia Pacific University of Technology & Innovation (APU)	50
2	HELP University	36
3	MAHSA University (Universiti MAHSA)	5
4	University Tunku Abdul Rahman (UTAR)	80
5	UCSI University	48
6	University of Kuala Lumpur (UniKL)	31
7	Binary University of Management & Entrepreneurship (BUME)	10
8	Infrastructure University Kuala Lumpur (IUKL)	32
19	Limkokwing University of Creative Technology (LUCT)	34
10	Malaysia University of Science & Technology (MUST)	30
11	Management and Science University (MSU) (Universiti Sains dan Pengurusan)	80
12	SEGi University (SEGi)	30
13	Sunway University (SYUC)	54
14	Taylor's University	75
15	Tun Abdul Razak University (UNIRAZAK) (Universiti Tun Abdul Razak)	43
16	University of Selangor (UNISEL)	66
17	UNITAR International University (UNITAR)	48
18	Asia Metropolitan University (AMU) (Formerly known as Masterskill University College of health and Sciences)	20
19	Multimedia University (MMU)	77
Total Number of Full Time Lecturers from the Nineteen Private Universities in the Klang Valley		849

Appendix H

Krejcie & Morgan (1970) Table for Determining Sample Size from a Given Population

q	S	N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	150	108	460	210	2200	327
15	14	160	113	480	214	2400	331
20	19	170	118	500	217	2600	335
25	24	180	123	550	226	2800	338
30	28	190	127	600	234	3000	341
35	32	200	132	650	242	3500	346
40	36	210	136	700	248	4000	351
45	40	220	140	750	254	4500	354
50	44	230	144	800	260	5000	357
55	48	240	148	850	265	6000	361
60	52	250	152	900	269	7000	364
65	56	260	155	950	274	8000	367
70	59	270	159	1000	278	9000	368
75	63	280	162	1100	285	10000	370
80	66	290	165	1200	291	15000	375
85	70	300	169	1300	297	20000	377
90	73	320	175	1400	302	30000	379
95	76	340	181	1500	306	40000	380
100	80	360	186	1600	310	50000	381
110	86	380	191	1700	313	75000	382
120	92	400	196	1800	317	100000	384
130	97	420	201	1900	320		
140	103	440	205	2000	322		

Notes: N = Population size; S = Sample size

Source: Krejcie and Morgan (1970, p.608)

Appendix I

List of Measurement Items and Source

Internal Pull Factors /Intrinsic Motivation factors		
Achievement (Wood, 1976)	1.	The actual achievement of work-related goals.
	2.	The immediate results from my work.
	3.	The actual adoption of practices which I recommend.
	4.	Personal goal attainment.
	5.	Students follow the practices being taught by me.
	6.	Observing my students' growth and success over a period of time.
	7.	I am able to objectively evaluate my accomplishments.
Recognition (Wood, 1976)	8.	Recognition of my accomplishments by co-workers.
	9.	Recognition of my accomplishments by superiors.
	10.	My recognition compared to that of my co-workers.
	11.	The recognition I get from the management for my ideas.
	12.	Publicity given to my work and activities
The Work Itself (Wood, 1976)	13.	I enjoy the type of work I do.
	14.	My job is interesting.
	15.	The challenging aspects of teaching.
	16.	My level of enthusiasm about teaching.
	17.	My job gives me a sense of accomplishment.
	18.	The work I do make a difference in my faculty.
Responsibility (Wood, 1976)	19.	The responsibility I have to get the job done.
	20.	The total amount of responsibility I have.
	21.	My responsibilities compared with those of my co-workers.
	22.	Committee responsibilities.

	23. Responsibilities outside my major areas of interest.
Opportunities for Advancement (Smerek & Peterson, 2007)	24. Opportunities for advancement or promotion exist within the university 25. I know what is required of me to advance within the university. 26. Internal candidates receive fair consideration for open positions. 27. Information about job vacancies within the university is readily available.
Opportunities for Growth (Wood, 1976)	28. Opportunities for increased responsibility in education. 29. Opportunities provided for growth in education compared with growth in other fields. 30. Participation in in-service education. 31. Opportunities to grow professionally through formal education. 32. Opportunities to attend professional conferences, workshops, seminars and other professional activities.
Internal Push Factors /Role Stress Factors	
Role Overload (Thiagarajan, Chakrabarty & Taylor, 2006)	33. I have to do things which I don't really have the time and energy for. 34. I need more hours in the day to do all the things which are expected of me. 35. I can't ever seem to catch up. 36. I don't ever seem to have any time for myself. 37. There are times when I can't meet everyone's expectations. 38. I seem to have more commitments to overcome than

	some of the other lecturers I know.
Role Ambiguity (Rizzo, House & Lirtzman, 1970)	39. I know exactly what is expected of me. 40. I feel certain about how much authority I have 41. Clear, planned goals and objectives exist for my job. 42. I know that I have divided my time properly. 43. I know what my responsibilities are. 44. Explanation is clear of what has to be done.
Role Conflict (Rizzo, House & Lirtzman, 1970)	45. I have to do things that should be done differently. 46. I work on unnecessary things. 47. I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it. 48. I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it. 49. I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently. 50. I have to buck (<i>go against</i>) a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment. 51. I receive incompatible requests from two or more people. 52. I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others.
External Pull Factors/ Attraction Factors	
Job opportunity (Daly & Dee, 2006)	53. There are plenty of good academic jobs that I could have outside my current university. 54. Given the state of the academic job market, finding a job would be very difficult for me. 55. It would be difficult for me to find another academic job that I like as much as my current job at the university.

	<p>56. There is at least one good academic job that I could begin immediately if I were to leave my current university.</p> <p>57. I have good job opportunities outside my current university.</p>
Compensation (Wood, 1976)	<p>58. The method used to determine salary in other universities.</p> <p>59. The range of salaries paid to lecturers in other universities.</p> <p>60. The amount of salary paid to lecturers in other universities.</p> <p>61. The pay increment paid to lecturers in other universities.</p> <p>62. The bonus paid to lecturers in other universities.</p> <p>63. The fringe benefits available to lecturers in other universities.</p> <p>64. The incentives available to lecturers in other universities.</p>
University Image (Duarte, Alves, & Raposo, 2010)	<p>65. The physical facilities of other universities.</p> <p>66. The teaching quality of other universities.</p> <p>67. Being a well known-university.</p> <p>68. The reputation of lecturers of other universities.</p> <p>69. The national academic reputation of other universities.</p> <p>70. The research funding available to lecturers at other universities.</p>

Working Location (developed by the author for this research)	71. Accessibility of transportation between my place of stay and other universities. 72. Time taken commuting between my place of stay and other universities. 73. Distance between my place of stay and other universities. 74. Traffic between my place of stay and other universities. 75. Alternative commuting routes between my place of stay and other universities. 76. Parking facilities of other universities and their surroundings.
Job Satisfaction	
Job Satisfaction (Judge, Locke, Durham & Kluger, 1998)	77. I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job. 78. Most days I am enthusiastic about my work 79. Each day at work seems like it will never end. 80. I find real enjoyment in my work. 81. I consider my job to be rather unpleasant
Turnover Intention	
Turnover Intention (Mobley, Horner & Hollingsworth, 1978).	82. I often think about quitting my current job. 83. I will probably search for a new job. 84. I have the intention to leave my current university.

Appendix J
Respondents Profile

Demographic Features	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Male	155	38.7
Female	244	60.8
Total	399	99.5
Missing	2	.5
Total	401	100.0
Race		
Malay	181	45.1
Chinese	96	23.9
Indian	91	22.7
Others	31	7.7
Total	399	99.5
Missing	2	.5
Total	401	100.0
Age		
40 years old and below	264	65.8
41 years old and above	122	30.4
Total	386	96.3
Missing	15	3.7
Total	401	100.0
Marital Status		
Single	97	24.2
Married	296	73.8
Others	5	1.2
Total	398	99.3
Missing	3	.7
Total	401	100.0
Highest Education Qualification		
Professional Qualification	13	3.2
Bachelor's Degree	14	3.5
Master's Degree	284	70.8
Doctoral Degree	87	21.7
Total	398	99.3
Missing	3	.7
Total	401	100.0

Academic Rank		
Lecturer	263	65.6
Senior Lecturer	102	25.4
Assistant Professor	23	5.7
Associate Professor	6	1.5
Professor	5	1.2
Total	399	99.5
Missing	2	.5
Total	401	100.0
Gross Income		
Less than RM3,000	15	3.7
RM3,001 - RM5,000	168	41.9
RM5,001- RM7,000	127	31.7
RM7,001-RM9,000	49	12.2
RM9,001-RM11,000	23	5.7
RM11,001-RM13,000	8	2.0
RM13,001-RM15,000	4	1.0
More than RM15,000	3	.7
Total	397	99.0
Missing	4	1.0
Total	401	100.0
Employment Status		
Probation	20	5.0
Permanent	290	72.3
Contractual	89	22.2
Total	399	99.5
Missing	2	.5
Total	401	100.0
Number of years teaching at your current university		
Mean	5.0042	-
Standard Deviation	.21189	
Minimum	0.08	-
Maximum	22	
Total	396	98.8
Missing	5	1.2
Total	401	100.0

Appendix K

Publication Arising from the Thesis

Nair, S. Lim, Y.M., & Aik, N.C. (2016). Internal Push Factors and External Pull Factors and their Relationships with Lecturers' Turnover Intention. International Journal of Business and Management, 11(12),110-126.

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