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LEADERSHIP STYLE AND JOB SATISFACTION: THEIR IMPACT ON NON-ACADEMIC STAFF'S TURNOVER INTENTION IN SELF-ACCREDITING UNIVERSITIES IN MALAYSIA

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Abstract

For many organisations, the key to their long-term success is their ability to retain employee talent. Employee turnover has been a long-standing problem for several organisations, as it results in substantial losses to the organisations. In spite of the importance of employee retention, several organisations face challenges in retaining employees due to high turnover, a result of turnover intention behaviours. Their success depends heavily on leadership styles and employee job satisfaction, which are key to influencing turnover intention. In the higher education setting, the importance of non-academic staff is increasing as their roles are expanding to take on the core functions of a university's operations. However, little research attention has been given to non-academic staff. Therefore, this study specifically addresses these issues by examining the relationship between leadership style and non-academic staff's turnover intention, with job satisfaction as a mediator.

Data have been collected from non-academic staff working in 11 self-accrediting universities in Malaysia. The number of useable questionnaires returned was 415. The analysis of this data applied hierarchical multiple regression testing to investigate the mediator's effects on the relationship between leadership styles and turnover intention.

The study findings show that specific leadership behaviours in paternalistic and transformational leadership styles had a significant relationship with turnover intention. These behaviours were identified by examining the dimensions in the leadership styles individually. For paternalistic leadership, only benevolence and morality dimensions had a significant relationship with turnover intention; authoritarianism was not significantly related to turnover intention. Meanwhile, for transformational leadership, only inspirational motivation was significantly related to turnover intention; idealised influence, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration did not have an individual significant relationship with turnover intention. Job satisfaction as whole was found to mediate the relationship between leadership styles and turnover intention. When the dimensions were examined individually, the strongest predictor of turnover intention was satisfaction with supervision, followed by work itself, promotional opportunities, pay and co-workers.

On the whole, this research produces results that shed light on how leadership styles and job satisfaction affect turnover intention. Furthermore, the study identifies specific dimensions of leadership style and job satisfaction that play a significant role in influencing non-academic staff's turnover intention in the Malaysian context. In addition, this research is also valuable to university policy makers who are now able to design more effective human resource policies and practices, with a focus on teamwork and development, management transparency, and promotional opportunities that can motivate employees to reduce turnover intention and consequently retain talent within the university.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background

Since the existence of society on Earth, leadership has been present. History shows that there has never been any society without a leader (Bass 1997). According to the Oxford English Dictionary, society refers to the community of people residing in a specific country or region, and these people share common customs, laws, and organisations. Hence, the type of organisation and culture play a role in determining the right style of leadership. Nevertheless, industrial globalisation and media have facilitated systematic approaches to leadership across geographical borders. Organisations constantly engage in benchmarking against counterparts in efforts to adopt best practices and be on par with them. Likewise, in the cultural context, less developed cultures change as a result of adoption of ideas and practices from more developed cultures (Bass 1997).

The concept of leadership does not have a single, straightforward and universal definition. According to observations by Bernard Bass, a leadership historian and scholar, the number of leadership definitions and individuals who tried to provide a definition of the concept is similar (Gini & Green 2013). The words "leader" or "leadership" is estimated to have over 1,400 definitions in the literature. "Leader" originates from the old English word, "laedan", meaning "to guide". It implies a voluntary and mutual relationship that is beneficial to both the leader and follower. According to Burns (1978), leadership encompasses leaders persuading followers to perform actions for specific objectives; these objectives reflect the aspirations and expectations that leaders and followers both share. The leadership needed for the future must emphasise these qualities: patience; work-life balance; empathy; humility; inclusiveness; vulnerability (Misner 2016). In sum, leadership is the leader's ability to empower individuals towards achieving a common goal (Bass & Avolio 1994).

Leadership is the most widely researched variable deemed to have significant impact on employee performance (Sakiru et al. 2013). Leaders play the main role in ensuring employees are motivated, possess the required skills to perform the job and to provide an environment

conducive to working. These elements determine employee job satisfaction and performance, which both have a positive relationship with organisational performance (Buchanan 2006).

The nexus between leadership and organisational performance renders leaders as the main determinant for the failure or success of any organisation (Sakiru et al. 2013). Hence, the literature has given much research attention to leadership, as it is undeniably a crucial element in any business organisation (Sakiru et al. 2013). An excellent leader heads every successful organisation, and organisational performance depends on leadership style (Sakiru et al. 2013). Many organisations are most concerned with developing effective and sustainable leadership. Past studies have put heavy emphasis on grooming up leaders in top-level positions of an organisation (Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam 1996). However, a paradigm shift in management has seen empowerment of middle-level leaders through more information sharing, decentralised decision-making and working in teams (Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam 1996). The middle-level leaders have more influence on employees than top-level leader, as the extent of leader-subordinate interaction is probably greater at lower levels than at higher levels in an organisation. Top-level leaders are usually expected to spend much of their time interacting with external stakeholders, thus less time is dedicated to leader-subordinate relationships (Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam 1996). Hence, it is crucial that organisations provide sufficient support and training to ensure middle-level leaders possess strong leadership skills that are aligned with the organisation's vision and goals.

A key question that is vital to be answered is whether all leadership styles produce similar outcomes universally. For instance, do transformational and paternalistic leadership styles produce similar effects on the leader's followers? Several scholars posit that transformational leadership, which is the most widely studied leadership style in Western countries, is the ideal leadership style regardless of cultural or situational contexts. However, other scholars believe effectiveness of leadership styles are dependent on the cultural context in which they operate (Göncü Köse, Aycan & Johnson 2014). Contextual leadership, which is rooted in Fielder's (1978) contingency model posits that contextual factors influence the type of leadership exhibited and its effectiveness (Oc 2018). Followers' views of their leaders' behaviour are key in determining whether such leadership is effective. This is influenced by several contextual factors, including type of organisation and national culture. These contextual factors in turn influence the leadership styles, follower perceptions and its outcomes,

including turnover intention. Hence, it is not surprising that leadership styles have different effects due to cultural differences, which may be unique to each country or region (Oc 2018).

The literature reveals that transformational leadership leads to positive organisational and employee outcomes. It is considered the universally best leadership style to produce the most desirable outcomes for any organisation. In contrast, paternalistic leadership has been criticised in Western studies for obstructing employee independence, empowerment and advancement (Göncü Köse, Aycan & Johnson 2014). However, studies have found that certain dimensions of transformational leadership have an opposite effect in Asian context. This is mainly due to high power distance in Asian countries as opposed to a relatively much lower power distance in Western countries. For example, in Asia, employees expect clear directions from their leaders for them to follow, which is a key characteristic of paternalistic leadership. Meanwhile, transformational leaders who engage with employees for their feedback result in followers feeling sceptical of leaders' capabilities, and this approach is not very welcome (Koo & Park 2018). It is therefore evident that contextual factors play a significant role in determining whether a leadership style is effective.

The motivation for identifying effective leadership styles and increasing employee job satisfaction is to improve organisational outcomes, which is often hindered by high employee turnover intention. On this basis, leadership style and job satisfaction are recognised in existing studies as among the most powerful influences on employee turnover decisions (Buchanan 2006; Lambert, Lynne Hogan & Barton 2001; Noureen & Abbas 2017; Sakiru et al. 2013; Tett & Meyer 1993b; Van Dick et al. 2004a). This is attributed to the fact that leaders by virtue of their role have a strong influence on employees' decision to remain in or leave the organisation. Khalid, Pahi and Ahmed (2016) discovered that effective leadership has a strong positive influence on employee retention. Although several factors affect employees' decision to stay in or leave their jobs, leadership style has been known to have a significant effect on their decisions (Alatawi 2017).

Several theories posit that workers disliking their jobs will shun them: resigning (permanent measure) or through behaviours like being absent or coming late to work (temporary measure). The key motivation for these withdrawal behaviours is job satisfaction. This suggests high level of job satisfaction is negatively related to employee turnover intention (Spector 1997). Job satisfaction is considered one of the most accurate predictors of

employee turnover intention (Cotton & Tuttle 1986; Lambert, Lynne Hogan & Barton 2001; Meyer, Allen & Smith 1993; Noureen & Abbas 2017; Smith & Shields 2013; Spector 1997; Van Dick et al. 2004a).

High employee turnover has negative impacts on an organisation due to additional hiring, selection, and training costs. It also causes disruptions to work, resulting in negative impacts on organisational productivity and performance. Hence, keeping employee turnover in check should be on the priority list of any organisation (Alatawi 2017). Only a small portion of the actual turnover costs are monetary, with only 15-30% of the overall costs of turnover being direct costs (e.g. recruitment, advertising, and training). The remaining 70-85% that exist and are typically not captured in companies' balance sheets are hidden costs, including lowered productivity, knowledge loss and demotivation among the remaining employees (Racz 2000). It is evident that although turnover can never be completely eliminated, it is a crucial factor that organisations should aim to minimise, particularly among employees with excellent performance (Robbins & Coulter 2012). Similarly, in the higher education sector whereby non-academic staff are crucial to the university's operations, high employee turnover will have significant negative impact on the university's financial costs.

According to Collier and Dollar (2002, p. 2) education is the "main engine of poverty reduction", which breaks the vicious cycle of poverty. Through education, in particular, higher education, the human capital moves from an unskilled to skilled level, enabling increase in productivity, command for higher wages, and significant increase in the country's overall standard of living and competitiveness. Higher education institutions are a "repository for scholarship and knowledge" (Lu, Laux & Antony 2017, p. 638), with the ultimate goal of elevating a person's capacity to earn income and enabling them to give back to society (Lu, Laux & Antony 2017).

In this era of globalisation, higher education institutions are at the forefront of fulfilling increasing societal demands, in which professional support staff or non-academic staff play an essential role to the success (Ryttberg & Geschwind 2017). To begin with, the cornerstone of a higher education institution is a robust administration system, which will then determine the success of the institution's societal impact in delivering quality teaching and research (Maassen & Olsen 2007).

According to Baltaru (2018), non-academic staff play a crucial role in helping universities improve their performance. Examples of their roles include professional development of staff and students, academic support for students, societal engagement and research impact. These aspects are vital in view of mounting pressures and expectations from both the governments and global markets. In particular the study by Baltaru (2018) found that universities which improved their non-academic staff to students ratio resulted in increased numbers of student degree completions over shorter and longer periods. This underscores the role of non-academic staff in their contributions to the effective functioning of a university, which is still an underexplored area. With higher education being the main driver of economic growth, the management of universities cannot be handled by academic staff alone. The administrative roles should be fully handled by non-academic staff to enable academic staff to focus on their core functions of an educator and researcher.

Earlier studies have also expressed support for the importance of non-academic or administrative staff, which have often been overlooked. In higher education, studies on administrative staff's job satisfaction are sparse as the primary focus of job satisfaction research has been on academic staff (Smerek & Peterson 2007). According to Henkin and Persson (1992), non-academic staff have an important role in the operational system of a university, and both academic and non-academic staff should be given equal recognition. Non-academic staff are key components of the university, who are responsible for the daily business operations (Smerek & Peterson 2007). According to Liebmann (1986), he found that non-academic staff outnumbered academic staff in the US, and they could be deemed largely responsible for the successful day-to-day operations of every institution of higher learning.

The study by Henkin and Persson (1992) also found that university governance boards were typically dominated by the faculties. Their findings revealed that non-academic staff representation should be present to ensure equal distribution of power between the academic and administrative staff. This will ensure fair allocation of resources and opportunities for both groups of staff who are vital to the functioning of the university.

The limited research on non-academic staff may be attributed to their relatively recent appearance, which started only in the 19th century. Throughout the history of higher education, academic staff who tutored the students served the role as administrators as well.

However, the growth in the higher education sector in the mid-19th century required organisational restructuring, which gave rise to the existence of non-academic staff to focus on the administrative duties of running the university (Liebmann 1986). Administrative staff members' roles are expanding to wider scopes, including quality assurance, teaching and research support, financial and infrastructure management and strategic planning. Hence, attracting and retaining competent administrative staff is crucial to the higher education institutions' performance (Jung & Shin 2015). In summary, further research among non-academic staff in universities is warranted to facilitate talent retention of these employees who are fundamental to the successful operation of the university.

1.1   The Malaysian Scenario

Throughout the past few decades, the higher education system in Malaysia has achieved significant progress in gaining global recognition for several institutions of higher learning as well as rising as an international student hub. The Malaysian Government is committed to investing and spurring higher education to attain greater heights through the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2015-2025 (Higher Education) or the MEB (HE). The 10-year strategy spells out the nation's aspirations to create a higher education system that is world-class, produce skilled workforce and ultimately enable Malaysia to become a high-income nation (*Malaysia Education Blueprint 2015-2025 (Higher Education)*).

As at May 2018, there are a total of 613 tertiary education institutions established in Malaysia comprising 75 universities (55 private, 20 public), 33 university colleges (private) and 505 colleges (380 private, 125 public) (*Ministry of Higher Education Statistics* 2018). The private tertiary education sector is the largest contributor to the country in comparison with the other private education sectors, namely primary and secondary education and other education. According to *Services Statistics Education (Private Sector) 2015* college and university education recorded the highest gross output value of RM7.5 billion (69.9%). It was also the largest contributor to the total value added in the education services at RM4.8 billion (68.0%). This sector also employs the biggest workforce, with 43,852 employees (51.7%). It is clear that higher education has a leading role to play in the education landscape in Malaysia.

The realisation of the Malaysian Government's aspirations in the MEB (HE) 2015-2025 requires not only academicians, but non-academic staff as well. According to the blueprint, an excellent higher learning institution community ranging from institutional leaders, academicians and academic support staff result in high-quality higher learning institutions, which form the higher education system. To achieve this aspiration, higher learning institutions must be capable of attracting, developing and retaining excellent talent through a systematic mechanism for talent recruitment and development. This is especially crucial for universities, which are the highest level higher learning institution, and emphasis on research outcomes is expected, along with offering courses at undergraduate and postgraduate levels.

With increased diversity among higher education institutions that cater to the needs of various groups of students, quality assurance processes differ from one institution to another. A single set of quality assurance standards could not be applied across all institutions; instead the traditional quality assurance approach required adaptation or development of new quality assurance approaches to suit a particular institution. In response to the need for diversity, several countries, especially those in the Asia Pacific region, have introduced self-accreditation to promote flexibility in the higher education sector. The first country to implement self-accreditation was the UK, and has also been introduced in Hong Kong, Australia and Malaysia, among others (Chen & Hou 2016). The International Network of Quality Assurance Agencies of Higher Education (INQAAHE) defines self-accreditation as autonomy granted to well-established institutions to be exempt from external accreditation for its courses and institution (INQAAHE 2014). The self-accreditation system in Malaysia was first introduced by the Ministry of Higher Education in April 2010. The aim of this status is to empower universities with proven academic and management governance through autonomy in accrediting their courses without the need to go through the MQA. However, self-accreditation is not applicable to professional programmes, which are still subject to accreditation from the relevant professional bodies. Universities need to receive an invitation from the Education Ministry in order to apply for this self-accreditation status. The qualifying criteria to receive an invitation include being in operation for a minimum of 10 years achieving a minimum 5-stars in the Malaysian Higher Education Institution Rating System (SETARA), and presence of a robust internal quality assurance system (*Self-Accreditation, MQA*). Universities are required to submit a self-review portfolio report to the MQA, who will then conduct an institutional audit to decide if the self-accreditation status should be

granted. The self-accreditation status is still subject to re-evaluation every 5 years and can be revoked if there is decline in quality of the university courses and management (Star 2017).

Self-accrediting universities are deemed by MQA to have complied with all the requirements and standards set out in the MQA Code of Practice for Institutional Audit (COPIA). The 9 areas in the Code of Practice focus on accrediting the internal quality assurance system of the institution in the spirit of continuous quality improvement.

The 8 universities that were first granted this status in 2010 are Universiti Malaya (UM), Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM), Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM), Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM), Curtin University Sarawak, Monash University Malaysia, University of Nottingham Malaysia Campus, and Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak Campus. Subsequently, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM) was granted self-accreditation status in March 2013. This was followed by another 8 universities granted the self-accreditation status in March 2017, namely Universiti Teknologi Petronas, Universiti Teknologi Mara, Universiti Utara Malaysia, International Medical University, Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman, International Islamic University Malaysia, Multimedia University and Universiti Tenaga Nasional (Menon 2017). In August 2017, the two campuses of University Kuala Lumpur (UniKL): City Campus which is UniKL's main campus in Kuala Lumpur and its second campus, Malaysia France Institute located in Bangi were granted the self-accreditation status. At the time of this study, there are nineteen universities with self-accreditation status (self-accrediting universities). They comprise 8 public universities, 7 private universities and 4 foreign university branch campuses (MQA 2017).

Overall, studies in the area of human resource management, namely leadership and job satisfaction among employees of higher education institutions (HEIs) in Malaysia, in particular universities, have typically been conducted among academic staff (Santhapparaj & Alam 2005; Sirat et al. 2009; Wan Ahmad & Abdurahman 2015). There are very few studies that focus on non-academic staff in spite of the growing importance of non-academic staff. This may be due to the fact that university performance is rarely associated with the roles of non-academic staff. This is further aggravated by the fact that non-academic staff may not be recognised as part of the academic community (Henkin & Persson 1992). The existing global literature has typically focused on top-level academic management (Baltaru 2018). Coupled with the recent existence of non-academic staff roles in higher education, it can be expected

that limited research is available in the areas of leadership, job satisfaction and turnover intention among non-academic staff in Malaysia. In summary, there is much room for research in this understudied area concerning non-academic staff in HEIs in Malaysia.

1.1.1 Malaysian National Cultural Values

According to Hofstede (2011), culture is the group mindset that differentiates the members of one group of individuals from others. Hofstede's cultural dimensions theory is a globally recognised framework that provides a description of the how a society's culture impacts its members' values, and how these related to different behaviours. These characteristics and behaviours are categorised and measured according to Hofstede's five dimensions, and Malaysia's scores are elaborated on as below. The cultural dimensions are a representation of independent preferences for each of these aspects that different countries (instead of individuals) have compared with each other. It is worth noting that Hofstede's data was collected over 30 years ago in 1984, and this present study serves to validate if these characteristics still hold true or have evolved over time.

Power Distance Index (PDI)
This dimension address the fact that all members of society are unequal. It portrays the culture's attitude in handling these inequalities that exist in society. Power distance is the degree to which the less influential institution and organisation members in a nation are acceptable to the unequal distribution of power.

For this dimension, Malaysia has a very high score (score of 100). This implies people's acceptance of a hierarchical order that has a place for everybody, and no further explanation is needed for such order. Organisational hierarchy is viewed as a reflection of fundamental inequalities, centralisation is common, employees wait to receive orders and the benevolent and autocratic boss is ideal. Questioning the leadership is not welcome (Insights 2018).

Individualism versus Collectivism
This dimension measures the extent to which interdependence is present within members of a society. It is associated with whether a person's identity is rooted in "I" or "We". People in

individualist societies are expected to take care of themselves and their immediate family members only. On the contrary, collectivist societies are characterised by integration of individuals into primary groups, which look after them in return for loyalty.

Malaysia, which scores 26, is considered a collectivistic society. This is clearly demonstrated in a close long-term commitment to the "member" group, including a family, extended family or extended relationships. In a collectivist culture, loyalty is the top priority and supersedes many other societal rules and regulations. Such a society promotes strong relationships, where all members take on responsibility for fellow members of their group. Offence results in shame and loss of face in collectivistic societies. Employer/employee relationships are understood in moral terms (like a family relationship), hiring and promotion takes into consideration the employee's inner circle, and management is done at group level rather than individual (Insights 2018).

Masculinity versus Femininity

In this dimension, masculinity is representative of society's preference for achievement, heroism, assertiveness, and material rewards for success. Being competitive is a characteristic of such society. On the other hand, femininity, is rooted in cooperation, modesty, caring for the weak and quality of life. Society is generally more consensus-oriented. Malaysia has an intermediate score of 50; hence, it is not possible to determine a preference for this dimension (Insights 2018).

Uncertainty Avoidance Index

This dimension addresses the extent to which members of a society feel uneasy with uncertainty and ambiguity. The core issue addressed is the approach taken by a society in dealing with an unknown future: should we attempt to control the future or just let nature take its course? Countries with high uncertainty avoidance stick to rigid beliefs and behaviours and resist new behaviours and ideas. Meanwhile, societies with low uncertainty avoidance adopt a more relaxed attitude where practice is more important than principles.

Malaysia scores 36 on this dimension, which means the society has a low preference for avoiding uncertainty. This implies that practice is more important than rules and society is

more receptive to differing from the conventional ways. In addition, excessive red tapes that do not work are resisted and new ideas are welcomed (Insights 2018).

Long Term Orientation versus Short Term Normative Orientation

This dimension addresses the extent to which society maintains connections with its own past when dealing with present and future challenges. Societies with a low score on this dimension prefer to keep to traditions and norms, and are suspicious of change. Meanwhile, a culture that scores high has a society that adopts a more practical approach, where persistence, perseverance and preparing for the future is emphasised (Insights 2018).

Malaysia scores low, with only 41 in this dimension, which implies that Malaysia has a normative culture. In these societies, individuals are bound by rules in their thinking. They show a lot of respect for traditions, do not bother to save up for the future, and are focused on obtaining quick results (Insights 2018).

1.2   Problem Statement

High employee turnover has negative impacts on an organisation due to additional hiring, selection, and training costs. It also causes disruptions to work, resulting in negative impacts on organisational productivity and performance. Hence, keeping employee turnover in check should be on the priorities list of any organisation (Alatawi 2017). Although turnover can never be completely eliminated, it is a crucial factor that organisations aim to minimise, particularly among employees with excellent performance (Robbins & Coulter 2012). Recent evidence shows that employee retention is relevant to employees working in Malaysia. According to the 2018 Hays Asia Salary Guide, Malaysia had the most restless labour force among the Asian countries surveyed (China, Singapore, Hong Kong, Japan, Malaysia) with 48 percent of respondents actively searching for a new job and 35 percent planning a move within six months. The top three reasons cited for job hunting are salary or benefit package, lack of career progression and insufficient training or development opportunities. In addition, 97 percent of businesses in Malaysia opine that the skill shortage due to high turnover will have adverse effects on their operations in the near future (Hays 2018).

Leadership style and job satisfaction are recognised in the literature to be among the most powerful influences on employee turnover decisions (Buchanan 2006; Lambert, Lynne Hogan & Barton 2001; Noureen & Abbas 2017; Sakiru et al. 2013; Tett & Meyer 1993b; Van Dick et al. 2004a). In the higher education arena, in both the global and Malaysian context, studies have largely focused on managing academic staff turnover, and there is a dearth of research on non-academic staff (Abouserie 1996; Ibrahim, Kassa & Tasisa 2017; Owence, Pinagase & Mercy 2014; Rosser 2004; Santhapparaj & Alam 2005; Wan Ahmad & Abdurahman 2015; Watanabe & Falci 2016).

According to Maassen and Olsen (2007), a robust administration system is the foundation of the success of any higher education institution. Despite the increasingly important roles played by support staff in higher education institutions, little scholarly attention has been given to them. Their study found that support staff felt their contributions were not recognised in an academic dominated culture (Wan Ahmad & Abdurahman 2015). This issue is aggravated by the fact that similar findings from researches on academic staff cannot be extended and generalised to non-academic staff. In line with the study of Küskü (2003), the job nature and expectations for both academic and administrative staff are extremely different, and it does not seem to be rational to use the same basis to evaluate the job satisfaction levels of both groups. Non-academic staff have a closer relationship with their supervisors compared with academic staff, as many of their tasks are monitored by their supervisors. On the other hand, academic staff, who spend most of their time teaching students or doing their research, have minimal contact with their supervisors, and their teaching tasks are carried out with high autonomy.

This finding is in line with a study conducted by Sang Long et al. (2012) among academic staff, whose results revealed an insignificant relationship between transformational leadership and academic staff turnover intention. The authors attributed this situation to the nature of academic staff's work, whereby the majority of time is spent on teaching students. They have minimal contact with their supervisors, and their teaching tasks are carried out with high autonomy. This warrants the need for a study focusing specifically on non-academic staff.

In terms of leadership styles, several scholars posit that transformational leadership, which is the most widely studied leadership style in Western countries, is the ideal leadership style

regardless of cultural or situational contexts. However, other scholars believe effectiveness of leadership styles are dependent on the cultural context in which they operate (Göncü Köse, Aycan & Johnson 2014). The two different schools of thought are worth investigating in view of studies that have found that certain dimensions of transformational leadership that usually lead to positive outcomes, especially in Western culture has an opposite effect in Asian context. For example, in Asia, employees expect clear directions from their leaders for them to follow, which is a key characteristic of paternalistic leadership. In contrast, transformational leaders who engage with employees for their feedback result in followers feeling sceptical of leaders' capabilities, and this approach is not very welcome (Koo & Park 2018). Moreover, on a whole, paternalistic leadership has been largely ignored in leadership studies. This may be attributed to the negative connotations associated with paternalism, especially in the West. Hence studies in Asian countries have followed suit, although this leadership style is actually prevalent in these countries (Jackson 2016).

Today, the line between transformational and paternalistic leadership is blurring, as Western culture permeates the Asian region. The new generation is moving towards individualism and autonomy, leading to traditional and modern values coexisting in the region (Koo & Park 2018). In a recent study by SPR et al. (2020) in Malaysia among academic staff, Generation Y employees were found to have a preference for a collaborative working relationship with their leaders, were willing to challenge leaders and had a strong sense of independence and autonomy. At the same time, these employees still favoured traditional values like having a polite relationship with authority. Hence, this study is timely in identifying a mix of leadership characteristics derived from both transformational and paternalistic leadership styles that would lead to positive outcomes for both employees and organisations, particularly among non-academic staff.

The relationship between leadership style and employee job satisfaction was studied by Jung and Shin (2015), who found that leadership has a significant relationship with job satisfaction of university staff. Over-controlling by supervisors over task performance and low self-reliance reduce employees' satisfaction with the job. On the other hand, leaders who communicate with staff and set clear expectations, give staff recognition for their work, provide a reasonable level of work autonomy and self-development opportunities have a positive influence on job satisfaction (Johnsrud 2002; Jung & Shin 2015). In turn, job

satisfaction has a direct impact on employee morale, which then affect their turnover intention (Johnsrud 2002).

Moreover, very few studies have been conducted exclusively among universities in Malaysia that have been granted the self-accreditation status. The conferment of this status is recognition of the university's strong internal quality assurance system. The homogeneity of this sample is expected to result in meaningful findings, since all the self-accrediting universities have already been recognised by the Malaysian Qualifications Agency (MQA) to have reached a certain level of performance. The similar qualities among self-accrediting universities are expected to control for other elements that may affect employee turnover intention. With this, the effects of leadership style and job satisfaction on employee turnover intention are expected to yield meaningful and valuable findings. In particular, the award of self-accreditation status requires the university to demonstrate existence of a robust internal quality assurance system, which is in accordance with relevant standards and policies set by the Malaysian Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE) and MQA (*Self-Accreditation, MQA*).

In spite of the importance of non-academic staff in the higher education sector and the stark differences with academic staff job nature, a lack of studies in the literature on non-academic staff signify a significant gap in existing studies. Moreover, this research gap exists among self-accrediting universities in Malaysia, in which retention of non-academic staff talent is needed in accordance with the MQA standards since high turnover will also impact the university negatively. Based on these reasons, since this research covers areas that have yet to be investigated in existing studies, it is expected to produce novel and cohesive findings to help self-accrediting universities identify strategies to reduce their non-academic staff turnover. The findings will also help universities aspiring to achieve self-accreditation status to put in place the necessary practices and mechanisms pertaining to management of non-academic staff.

1.3 Research Questions

Based on the above problem statement, research questions have been formulated to address the areas that will be covered in this research. The four research questions that will be answered by this study are as follows:

i. Which leadership styles are practised by non-academic staff in self-accrediting universities in Malaysia?

ii. To what extent do paternalistic and transformational leadership styles influence non-academic staff job satisfaction in self-accrediting universities in Malaysia?

iii. To what extent does job satisfaction influence non-academic staff turnover intention in self-accrediting universities in Malaysia?

iv. Does job satisfaction mediate the relationship of paternalistic and transformational leadership styles with non-academic staff turnover intention in self-accrediting universities in Malaysia?

1.4   Research Aims

This research attempts to achieve the following aims:

General aim: The general aim of this study is to develop a better understanding of how leadership styles and job satisfaction affect employee intention to quit their jobs.

Specifically, the aims of this research are to:

1. Determine the impact of paternalistic leadership style on non-academic staff's turnover intention in self-accrediting universities in Malaysia.

2. Determine the impact of transformational leadership style on non-academic staff's turnover intention in self-accrediting universities in Malaysia.

3. Determine the impact of job satisfaction on non-academic staff's turnover intention in self-accrediting universities in Malaysia.

4. Determine whether job satisfaction mediates the relationship between the leadership styles (transformational and paternalistic) and non-academic staff's turnover intention in self-accrediting universities in Malaysia.

1.5 General Conceptual Framework

Based on the research aims, the conceptual framework provides a graphical illustration of the main variables and relationships that will be explored in this study. The conceptualised relationships between this study's variables are shown as below.
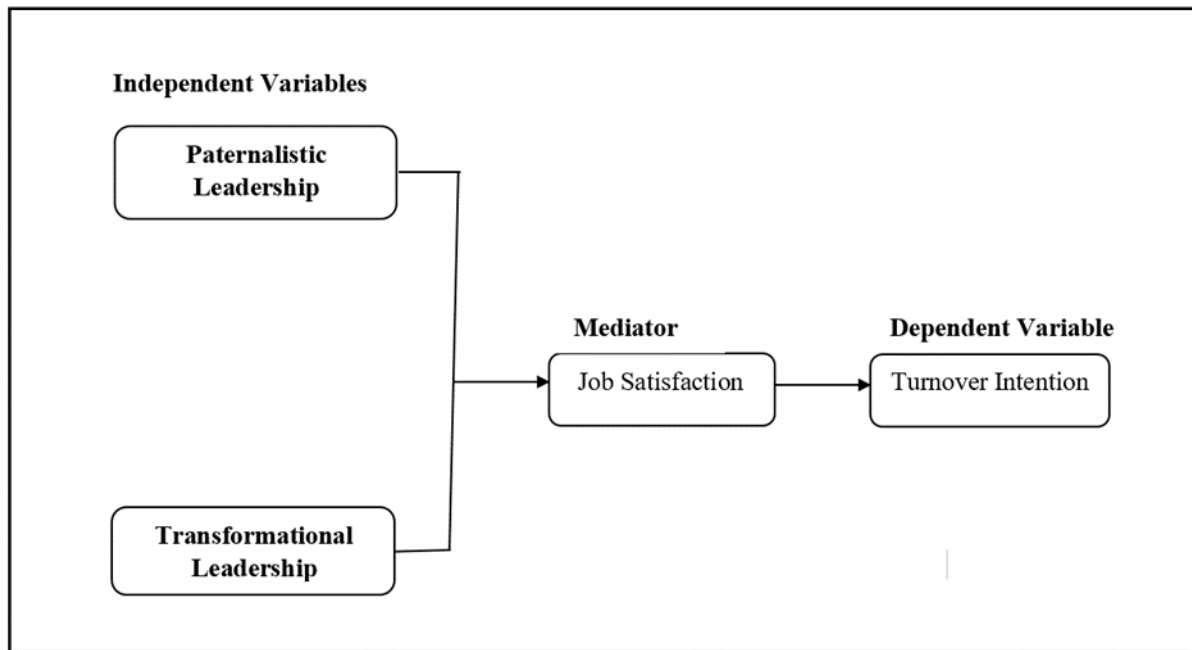
Figure 1.1 The conceptualised relationship between independent and dependent variables with the presence of a mediator

In this study, leadership styles, comprising paternalistic and transformational leadership, are modelled as independent variables. The dependent variable is non-academic staff turnover intention with job satisfaction as the mediator.

1.6 Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined for the purposes of this study:

Higher education: teaching of an academic programme that leads to conferral of a certificate, diploma or degree upon successful completion (*Private Higher Educational Institutions Act 1996*). Conferment of such award is beyond secondary school level.

Job satisfaction: a combination of attitudes, feelings and beliefs that people possess about their present work. Extremely satisfied to extremely dissatisfied are two ends of the spectrum that describe the range of an individual's job satisfaction (George 2012).

Leadership: the ability of a leader to empower individuals towards achieving a common goal (Bass & Avolio 1994).

MOE: Malaysian Ministry of Education (previously known as Ministry of Higher Education). Effective 21 May 2018, Malaysian Ministry of Higher Education has been abolished and has been merged with the Ministry of Education (MOE). Hence, both instances of MOHE and MOE are used in this study, depending on the context.

MQA: Malaysian Qualifications Agency

Non-academic staff: Staff who are not categorised as academic staff. They are often referred to as administrative staff; they play a large role in facilitating research and teaching activities (Küskü 2003). Hence, both terms, i.e. non-academic staff and administrative staff refer to the same meaning for the purpose of this study.

Paternalistic leadership: a leadership style that integrates strong discipline and authority with fatherly characteristics and moral integrity in a personalised environment (Farh et al. 2006).

Polytechnics and community colleges: Institutions funded by the Malaysian government and and are governed in accordance with the Education Act 1996. These institutions typically offer Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) courses.

Private Higher Educational Institutions: an organisation or educational institution providing higher education, including a university, foreign branch campus, university college and college that are approved and registered under the Act, and are not formed or operated by the Malaysian Government (*Private Higher Educational Institutions Act 1996*).

Public Higher Educational Institutions: a higher education institution established and funded by the Malaysian Government in accordance with the Universities and University Colleges Act 1971. This includes public universities.

Self-accreditation status: a status granted by MQA to universities that have shown strong evidence of a highly reliable internal quality assurance system. The legal provisions for the MQA to implement self-accreditation are provided for in the MQA Act 2007 (Act 679). MQA empowers Senate of the self-accrediting universities to conduct accreditation for their own courses in accordance with relevant standards and policies set by the MOHE and MQA.

Transformational leadership: leaders practising this leadership style promote a new outlook of work among co-workers and followers; create awareness of organisational and team mission or vision; harness potential of co-workers and followers; and encourage co-workers and followers to put the group's interest above their own (Bass & Avolio 1994).

Turnover intention: a situation in which employees consciously and deliberately make a voluntary effort to quit the company or organisation (Tett & Meyer 1993a).

1.7   Significance of the Study

This research will examine the influence of two leadership styles, namely transformational and paternalistic leadership on administrative staff's turnover intention in self-accrediting universities in Malaysia, with job satisfaction as a mediator.

The reason for choosing to examine how leadership and employee turnover intention relate to each other stems from the fact that leaders by virtue of their role have a strong impact on employees' decision to remain in or leave the organisation. Khalid, Pahi and Ahmed (2016) found that effective leadership has a strong positive impact on employee retention. Although several factors affect employees' decision to stay in or leave their jobs, leadership style has been known to have a significant effect on their decisions (Alatawi 2017).

In an organisation, the important role played by leadership is further underscored by the 21st century's emphasis on knowledge work. Transformational leadership is selected for this study as it is a model of effective leadership, characterised by envisioning, enabling and empowering employees. Leadership today must go beyond the transactional reward-punishment exchange relationship, in which the carrot and stick approach is a key characteristic of transactional leadership. The four universal characteristics of leadership are: simple, variform, functional and systematic (Bass 1997). There is vast and strong evidence showing that transformational leadership is better than transactional leadership, among others, in increasing employee job satisfaction and decreasing employee turnover intention (Robbins & Coulter 2012).

Although several researches have revealed that transformational leadership and turnover intention are negatively related to each other, there is still insufficient information on this relationship. Findings from past studies have contradicting conclusions (Alatawi 2017). Certain studies noted that transformational leadership and job satisfaction were insignificantly related to each other. A possible reason for this is that supervision is just one aspect of employees' jobs. The basic aspects of employee's jobs, such as type of work and working conditions, may be beyond the control of transformational leaders (Judge & Bono 2000). This inconclusiveness warrants further investigation into the relevance and effectiveness of transformational leadership in current organisational settings.

In contrast with the long-standing transformational leadership style, the three-dimensional paternalistic leadership was only fully developed by China researchers in the year 2000, rooted in the Chinese culture. Nevertheless, it remains extremely relevant to modern organisations. This is because leaders today have universal goals: to command, to organise, to influence, to decide and to control. Although paternalistic leadership style is prevalent in businesses in China, scarce research has been conducted on this leadership style even in China itself; hence there is little knowledge about its effects on an organisation (Cheng et al. 2004). The impact of paternalistic leadership on employee work attitudes (e.g. job satisfaction) and job performance has yet to be studied (Cheng et al. 2004). In addition, Pellegrini and Scandura (2008) state it is necessary to investigate the influence of paternalistic leadership on performance and turnover. In a recent study by Jackson (2016), it was highlighted that there is a huge gap in the literature on paternalism, which has been

ignored despite its prevalence in non-Western countries. Much research is required to comprehend the nature of paternalism and positive outcomes from this type of leadership.

In view of Malaysia being a multi-racial Asian country, it will be interesting to investigate the prevalence of this leadership style. In addition, paternalism is very welcomed in high power distance societies (Hakimian et al. 2014). In an organisational context, power distance is the degree to which subordinates accept the unequal power distribution in the organisation. The score for Malaysia is very high, which means people accept the hierarchical structure and leadership is not questioned(Insights 2018). This culture warrants further investigation into paternalistic leadership style. Cheng et al. (2004) also stated that there are similarities between the dimensions of paternalistic leadership and transformational leadership, which was developed in the Western cultural context. Hence, it would be interesting to draw comparisons between the impact of both leadership styles on employee satisfaction and turnover intention. To date, to the best of our knowledge, there has been no study conducted in Malaysia that compares paternalistic and transformational leadership. Therefore, these findings will provide new contributions to this untapped research area.

The mediator for this study, job satisfaction is considered one of the most accurate predictors of employee turnover intention (Cotton & Tuttle 1986; Lambert, Lynne Hogan & Barton 2001; Meyer, Allen & Smith 1993; Noureen & Abbas 2017; Smith & Shields 2013; Spector 1997; Van Dick et al. 2004a). The dependent variable, turnover intention, is selected rather than actual turnover. According to Harhara, Singh and Hussain (2015), turnover intention is one of the most accurate predictors of turnover, as well as a predecessor of actual employee turnover. According to Alatawi (2017), researchers who utilised actual employee turnover encountered challenges in following up with the individuals who left their organisations. Hence, turnover intention is a more practical measure to be used for research purpose.

The sample selected for this study is universities in Malaysia that have been awarded self-accreditation status. It is a status granted by the Malaysian Qualifications Agency (MQA) to universities that are confirmed to possess a strong internal quality assurance system. This recognition empowers the University's Senate to accredit their own programmes, subject to a 5-year institutional maintenance audit from the MQA. In April 2010, four foreign branch campus universities and four public universities, including Swinburne Sarawak were the first batch of universities to be granted the self-accreditation status. As at 2018, there are 19

universities that have been granted this status. To date, there have been few studies conducted exclusively among self-accrediting universities. The homogeneity of this sample is expected to result in meaningful findings, since all the self-accrediting universities have already been recognised by the MQA to have reached a certain level of performance. Hence, this research is timely in producing findings that will help the universities make further improvements in the area of human resource management, which may be applicable to both academic and non-academic staff.

Little research attention has been given to leadership in institutions of higher education (Bass 1990), and Malaysia is no exception (Lo, Ramayah & Run 2010). Moreover, in the global and Malaysian context, the majority of studies on human resource management, including job satisfaction and turnover intention in university setting was conducted only for academic staff (Abouserie 1996; Ibrahim, Kassa & Tasisa 2017; Owence, Pinagase & Mercy 2014; Rosser 2004; Santhapparaj & Alam 2005; Wan Ahmad & Abdurahman 2015; Watanabe & Falci 2016). To date, in Malaysian context, the few studies available include both academic and non-academic staff (Sirat et al. 2009) . No study has focused solely on non-academic staff. This study fills the research gap by focusing on non-academic staff, who are equally important in ensuring the university's service quality.

1.8   Scope of the Study

This study will only examine the effects of the leadership styles on full-time non-academic staff members' turnover intention in self-accrediting universities in Malaysia. This study employs job satisfaction as the mediator to examine the relationship of paternalistic and transformational leadership styles with employee turnover intention.

Data are collected from non-academic staff who are employed full-time in self-accrediting universities in Malaysia at the time of this study. Out of the 19 self-accrediting universities, 11 universities agreed to participate in this study, which are International Medical University, Multimedia University, Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak Campus, University of Malaya, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Universiti Teknologi Petronas, Universiti Tenaga Nasional, Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman and Universiti Utara Malaysia.

1.9   Organisation of Chapters

This thesis comprises six chapters. The first chapter provides an introduction to the thesis, with research background on the higher education sector, particularly pertaining to non-academic staff and self-accreditation status. This is followed by the study's problem statement, aims of the study and research questions. The chapter ends with the definition of terms, the significance of the study in contributing to the body of knowledge, scope of the study and the organisation of chapters for this thesis.

The remaining chapters of this study are organised in the following manner. Chapter Two will provide a review of the current and historical literature available on the key concepts being studied. For instance, leadership styles, job satisfaction and employee turnover intention. It also describes the conceptual framework, justification of the study and the hypotheses used in this study. Chapter Three details the research methodology, the research design, population and sampling process, followed by explanation of the measurement instrument and data collection procedures. Chapter Three ends with an explanation of the study's statistical analysis techniques. Chapter Four presents and discusses the outcomes of the statistical analysis. Chapter Five synthesises the findings and presents the conclusions drawn from the research findings. Finally, the impacts of the study from the theoretical and practical perspectives, its strong points and possible limitations, and direction for future research are presented in Chapter Six.

1.10   Conclusion

This first chapter has provided an overall picture of the research, including its purpose, background information and context. It starts with a description of the global scenario relevant to the study, followed by contextualisation in both the global and Malaysian higher education context. The chapter then introduces the problem statement, aims of the study and the research questions. These are followed by the definition of terms, the significance of the study in contributing to the body of knowledge and the scope of the study. Finally, it outlines the organisation of the following chapters. The next chapter, Chapter Two, reviews the existing literature relevant to the study.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter examines the existing literature on leadership. The chapter begins with the definitions of leadership provided by past studies, followed by a review of leadership studies conducted in the higher education industry. The two leadership styles examined in this research, namely paternalistic leadership and transformational leadership are then discussed in detail. Next, the chapter focuses on turnover intention, including its significance to organisations and how it is impacted by leadership styles. Job satisfaction, as the mediator is also discussed, as it is expected to influence how leadership styles and employee turnover intention are related to each other. After all the variables have been presented, the chapter provides the underlying theories, justifications, and the basis for development of the hypotheses and conceptual framework.

2.1 Definitions of Leadership

The concept of leadership does not have a single, straightforward and universal definition. According to observations by Bernard Bass, a leadership historian and scholar, "the number of leadership definitions of leadership are almost the same as the number of individuals who have tried to define the concept (Gini & Green 2013). The literature is estimated to contain over 1,400 definitions of the words "leader" or "leadership". This shows there has yet to be agreement on what leadership means, and the quest for a better definition is still ongoing. Efforts to identify one definition of leadership may not be of use since there is no one-size-fits-all definition; an appropriate definition of leadership depends on a researcher's interest and type of problem under study. Nevertheless, having a good definition of leadership is crucial to provide a better understanding of the concept of leadership and to help organisations develop effective leaders (Silva 2016).

It is of paramount importance to first highlight the differences between "leadership" and "management", which are often use interchangeably in organisations, but these two terms actually possess stark differences between them. This nexus can be attributed to leadership

being frequently associated with managerial positions like directors or managers. However, holding any of these roles does not equate to being a leader (Mott 2006). Moreover, one should not equate leadership with social status, power, position, rank, or title (Gini & Green 2013). "Leader" is derived from the old English word, "laedan", which means "to guide". It implies a voluntary and mutual relationship that is beneficial to both the leader and follower. According to Burns (1978), leadership encompasses leaders persuading followers to act for certain objectives that reflect the aspirations and expectations shared by both leaders and followers.

The leadership needed for the future must emphasise these qualities: empathy; vulnerability; humility; work-life balance; inclusiveness; patience (Misner 2016).

According to the late Apple Computer CEO Steve Jobs, management usually concerns getting people to do things not of their free will. On the other hand, through leadership, people are motivated to achieve things that were beyond their imagination (Lawn 2001). Management is "the systematic side of running a business, department or organisation; of setting goals and strategy, of allocating resources and evaluating results" (Lawn 2001, p. 8). Its core focus is on achieving predetermined goals by delegating the tasks to followers (Yukl 1994). A person in charge of giving orders, checking compliance, executing performance-based rewards and punishments, can hold a manager position but that does not automatically make the person a leader (Gini & Green 2013). In contrast, leadership is not about being "in charge". It is about "leading the charge" (Lawn 2001).

While a plethora of leadership definitions exist, they all share a common focus. Every type of leadership, across all levels, revolves around convincing others with a plan, challenge, goal, purpose that they are willing to execute. It is the ability to motivate and empower people to get things done. The enabler of this impact is essentially influence. According to Yukl (1994), the majority of leadership definitions reflect the belief that a social influence process needs to be present; this is where an individual deliberately uses influence over other individuals to steer the activities and relationships in a team or organisation. Leadership also concerns personality, character and ethics of a leader; ethics defines leadership (Gini & Green 2013). Leaders must walk the walk by acting with integrity and trust in order to maintain the loyalty and goodwill earned from others (Ulrich & Smallwood 2012).

Leadership is the human side of running an organisation or business. It is the ability to express a vision of an organisation to others; to motivate employees by providing them with an understanding of where their work fits in and adds value to the overall organisational goal; to provide meaning when, without leadership, work can seem meaningless (Lawn 2001). Leadership is "an attitude that generates, and does not have to demand, enthusiasm, loyalty and respect" (Lawn 2001, p. 8). It is the cornerstone to an organisation's success through building up high productivity and high morale among employees. Even when employees do not fully agree with the organisation's direction, strong leadership is able to turn the situation around and empower employees to continue to work as a team (Lawn 2001).

According to DePree (2010), leadership is about stewardship, serving and taking responsibility towards the organisation and people. This includes succession planning to ensure the organisation's sustainability and empowering employees to reach their full potential. Leadership is not measured by the capability of the head. Rather, the results of outstanding leadership are reflected through the followers who exhibit characteristics attributed to the leadership they are under. Hence, an effective leader does not necessarily need to have personal charisma. Strong leadership hinges on the leader's ability to lead "down" by setting an example and direction for their team; and lead "up" by fostering understanding among the management team on their department's role and contribution to the organisation (Lawn 2001). This is the role of leaders as strategists, who answer the question, "Where are we going?" Leaders must set direction for the organisation, plan the resources required to reach the goal and ensure others around them understand the direction clearly (Ulrich & Smallwood 2012). This is crucial as a leader cannot operate without followers. According to Drucker (1996), a leader can only exist if there are followers (Silva 2016).

For several centuries, leadership was only deemed as a personal attribute. A great Chinese thinker called Confucius, who lived over 2500 years ago, had no definition of leadership; he simply stated the role of the leader was to be virtuous and care for the people. After World War II that ended in 1945, the definitions of leadership pointed to direction and results achievement. According to Stogdill (1950), leadership is "the process (act) of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal achievement". This was possibly the first attempt to highlight that leadership involved the process of influence over others rather than merely being an individual trait. In addition, Stogdill's definition

explicitly stated the motivation behind that process: "goal setting and goal achievement" (Silva 2016, p. 2).

Indeed, it is worth noting that effective leadership is defined by results, not by attributes. At the end of the day, leaders who are not achieving desired results are not truly leading. They have basically failed to fulfil their responsibilities as leaders (Gini & Green 2013). Leadership is about identifying what customers, shareholders, organisation and employees expect; and working towards providing what they need. It is about leading and empowering employees to meet the expectations of external stakeholders. By being results oriented, the right resources can be allocated accordingly. In this situation, the leader plays the role of an executor to make things happen. Leaders need to answer the question, "How will we make sure we get to where we are going?" In essence, it involves translating strategy into action and results. Throughout the process, leaders ensure teams are working in harmony and stakeholder expectations are met (Ulrich & Smallwood 2012). To achieve success, everyone must be on board, which is possible through leadership, which is "a power-laden, value-based and ethically driven relationship between leaders and followers who share a common vision and accomplish real changes that reflect their mutual purpose and goals" (Gini & Green 2013, p. 5).

In the 1990s, the leadership researchers started to give attention to the role of followers in the leadership process. Bass (1990) was a pioneer in this field, where he noted that leadership was not merely a process of influence by the leader over others; instead, it was a process involving interaction that was subject to influence by any other person involved. According to Bass, "Leadership is an interaction between two or more members of a group that often involves a structuring or restructuring of the situation and the perceptions and expectations of members…Leadership occurs when one group member modifies the motivation or competencies of others in the group. Any member of the group can exhibit some amount of leadership" (Silva 2016, p. 2). Leadership is not just at the top but should be present at all levels of an organisation in order to for the organisation to face challenges and complete tasks entrusted to employees (Gini & Green 2013). Nevertheless, for leadership to be effective, the leaders must be accepted by followers. It is "the process of interactive influence that occurs when, in a given context, some people accept someone as their leader to achieve common goals" (Silva 2016, p. 3).

Great leaders are merely mortal individuals. However, leadership focuses on the quality of leadership capability through the organisation: the ability to develop other leaders in the organisation. In the long term, leadership matters more than leaders, as individual leaders come and go. It is about developing a leadership brand and developing the next generation of leaders. This is where leaders need to play the role of human capital developers in answering the question, "Who stays and sustains the organisation for the next generation?" Talent managers provide shorter-term results by identifying and nurturing the right talents in helping people maximise their potential to the organisation's good; human capital developers develop longer-term competencies for future success. They ensure talent sustainability by investing in developing future leaders to lead the organisation. The focus is on perpetuity of the organisation despite different individuals taking the helm of leadership (Ulrich & Smallwood 2012). One of the most crucial responsibilities of an organisation's current leadership is to first identify and recognise potential leaders. These potential leaders should then trained and given opportunities to initiate new ventures and make a difference to the organisation (Sweeney 2001).

Mott (2006) summarises the key qualities of a leader: visionary (able to see the big picture); willing to take risks, lead and make change that will benefit the organisation and community; challenge self and others to meet high standards while encouraging and rewarding those working with him or her; able to set goals that are achievable. These characteristics are important, and even more so is the willingness of leaders to invest in others in order to develop future leaders, which will ensure sustainable success of an organisation.

The definitions of management and leadership tend to overlap and their differences are not measurable to clearly distinguish between both of them. Nevertheless, it has been widely accepted that leadership is crucial in managerial roles. Hence, individuals appointed as managers need to be leaders at the same time (Yukl 1994). Moreover, it is critical for an organisation to have both capable managers and leaders, while recognising the difference between them. Managers are great at keeping the daily operations moving within existing guidelines, while leaders are more visionary and use a strategic instead of tactical approach to solve the issues at hand (Sweeney 2001).

Based on the above-mentioned definitions of leadership from the literature, leadership in this study is operationalised as the ability and characteristics of a leader that can influence individuals towards achieving a common goal.

2.2 Leadership in Higher Education Institutions

On the whole, little research attention has been given to leadership in institutions of higher education (Bass 1990), and Malaysia is no exception (Lo, Ramayah & Run 2010). According to Durie and Beshir (2016), leadership development in higher education remains an under-investigated research area. This is in spite of the fact that leaders in higher education institutions face more complex situations than leaders in other public and private sectors; this is because leaders in higher education are expected to fulfil their responsibilities to a wide range of stakeholders, including students, staff, government and the public. In addition, Dopson et al. (2016) found there are few empirical studies on leadership development and its effectiveness, especially among universities. One of the distinguishing features of higher education institutions is that employees are classified into two categories: academic staff: academic affairs such as research and teaching are their core responsibilities; and non-academic staff: providing support for research and teaching activities are their core responsibilities (Küskü 2003).

Leaders in higher education institutions holding senior management positions are responsible for leading their institutions through the complexity of changing global 21st century contexts. Leaders are tasked with identifying innovative practices and strategies to ensure their institutions stay abreast of the latest developments in the education industry and are able to maintain their competitive edge among students and other stakeholders (Ng'ambi & Bozalek 2013). According to van Ameijde et al. (2009), higher education institutions are expected to deal with a complex operating environment—to operate according to market pressures while balancing to uphold academic quality. Issues, including affordability, accountability and relevance to the evolving economy are among the key societal pressures faced by the leadership of higher education institutions (Lu, Laux & Antony 2017). Societal demands shape the ways in which universities have evolved (Hussain & Albarwani 2015). As a result, several quality procedures and audits, along with performance management systems have been rapidly introduced in efforts to improve effectiveness and accountability of higher education institutions. However, leaders face much resistance from employees, as higher

education institutions typically have a collegial work culture, which is the complete opposite of all these improvement processes put in place by the leaders (van Ameijde et al. 2009). A top-down approach is also not feasible as higher education institutions increasingly rely on self-managing work teams to handle the various complexities faced; this renders the conventional leader-centric approaches redundant (van Ameijde et al. 2009).

According to Lu, Laux and Antony (2017, p. 641) the key challenge faced by HEI leaders is balancing "the demands of constantly increasing administrative and reporting requirements with the advancement of scholarship and knowledge, universities are caught between the two worlds of 'academe' and 'business'." HEI leaders have to deal with international, national and regional issues in a competitive education industry. In addition, the literature reveals that effective leadership in higher education are characterised by the following features: academic credibility and experience, along with people skills, including communication skills (Lu, Laux & Antony 2017).

2.3 Paternalistic Leadership

2.3.1   Overview of Paternalistic Leadership

On a whole, paternalistic leadership has been largely ignored in leadership studies. This may be attributed to the negative connotations associated with paternalism, especially in the West. Hence studies in Asian countries have followed suit, although this leadership style is actually prevalent in these countries (Jackson 2016). Although paternalistic leadership (Sirat et al. 2009) style is prevalent in Chinese businesses, scarce research has been done on this leadership style even in China itself; hence there is little knowledge about its effects on an organisation. In spite of paternalistic leadership being rooted in the Chinese culture, it remains extremely relevant to modern organisations. This is because leaders today have universal goals: to command, to organise, to influence, to decide and to control. Hence, some aspects of paternalistic leadership may be relevant only to organisations within Chinese culture, while others may be independent of cultural context (Cheng et al. 2004).

Early research on paternalistic leadership (Sirat et al. 2009) focused on it as a unidimensional construct and found it to have positive effects on several outcome variables; for example,

leader-member exchange, job satisfaction, obligation and goal setting (Pellegrini & Scandura 2008).

Paternalistic leadership is common, widely accepted and potentially effective in collectivistic Eastern cultures (e.g. Confucian Asia, Central Asia, Middle East, Africa and Latin America) as opposed to individualistic Western cultures, which shun this type of leadership (Hiller et al. 2019). With Eastern cultures, not all forms of paternalism are welcome as two forms of paternalism exist: benevolent and exploitative paternalism. Benevolent leaders provide subordinates with genuine care and help, who are loyal to and respect the leaders in return. In contrast, exploitative leaders do not actually care for subordinates, but focus on achieving organisational goals through rewards and punishment as the means of getting subordinates to obey them. Malaysia was found to be a country that endorsed high levels of benevolence and integrity (which are characteristic of benevolent paternalism) in order for it to be effective among subordinates. Exploitative paternalism was only endorsed in countries with extremely high power distance, where subordinates would never challenge the authority of the leaders (Mansur, Sobral & Goldszmidt 2017).

2.3.2   Dimensions of Paternalistic Leadership

In the year 2000, a triad model for paternalistic leadership was proposed by Cheng and colleagues. The model comprises three dimensions, namely authoritarianism, benevolence and morality/ integrity.

Based on the above-mentioned 3 dimensions, paternalistic leadership is defined as a style integrating strong discipline and authority with fatherly benevolence and moral integrity in a personalised environment (Farh et al. 2006). Evidence suggests leader gender has no impact on exhibiting characteristics of paternalistic leadership. According to (Hiller et al. 2019), the term 'paternalistic' that appears to be a male-dominated leadership style, which may be one of the reasons why this leadership style is largely ignored by researchers. It is suggested that the more accurate term should be 'parental', based on the direct translation of the term in Chinese. Research utilising this triad model has been conducted mainly in China and Taiwan (Pellegrini & Scandura 2008). The model has been used in the majority of studies more recently, as it has been found that the 3 dimensions do not generally co-occur, and should

therefore be examined separately (Hiller et al. 2019). In fact, different elements of paternalistic leadership have different effects on employees in different ways, and under different conditions (Chen, Zhou & Klyver 2019). For instance, a study by Didik, Rofiaty and Mintarti (2018) revealed that leaders using the benevolent-moral approach instead of moral-authoritarian approach were effective in reducing employee turnover intention.

According to Farh et al. (2006), paternalistic leadership occurs more frequently (and perhaps more effective) in family run businesses than in non-family-run businesses. Positive responses to paternalistic leadership are more likely to occur among individuals who adopt Chinese cultural values (e.g. submission to authority) than those who do not. However, recent studies have found that paternalistic leadership is not only confined to the Chinese community. Paternalistic leadership style is common, widely accepted and potentially effective in collectivistic Eastern cultures (e.g. Confucian Asia, Central Asia, Middle East, Africa and Latin America) as opposed to individualistic Western cultures, which shun this type of leadership (Hiller et al. 2019). Paternalistic leadership may be deemed the "Asian transformational leadership" as it is effective in this cultural context (Göncü Köse, Aycan & Johnson 2014).

It is also believed that paternalistic leadership brings more positive value when used in a small organisation with a simple environment compared with a large organisation with complex environment (Farh et al. 2006). In contrast with Farh et al. (2006), evidence suggests that paternalistic leadership is dependent on whether it is culturally accepted rather than the organisation size. For instance, a study by Dodi and Phil (2011) among Indonesian government agencies revealed that paternalistic leadership behaviours, particularly benevolence had a positive relationship with employee responses. On the other hand, authoritarianism was not favoured by employees.

Based on the above-mentioned findings from the literature, paternalistic leadership in this study is operationalised as a leadership style that integrates strong discipline and authority with fatherly benevolence and moral integrity in a personalised environment. Each dimension is discussed in detail as below.

Authoritarianism

In authoritarianism, leaders impose complete authority and power over subordinates and demand full submission as well as obedience from them. There is no room for discussion or negotiation (Chen, Zhou & Klyver 2019; Cheng et al. 2004). Koo and Park (2018) in their study reported that authoritarianism is not only accepted, but expected in Asian context. Due to high power distance, employees expect clear directions from their leaders for them to follow, which is a key characteristic of paternalistic leadership. As opposed to general presumptions, employees feel sceptical of leaders' capabilities when leaders engage with them for feedback, and this approach is not welcomed by employees. It gives employees the impression that the leader is not able to make a decision.

In contrast, Farh et al. (2006) and Hiller et al. (2019) reported that authoritarianism resulted in several negative outcomes: lower organisational commitment, lower satisfaction with supervision, higher turnover intentions and other unwanted workplace behaviours. In addition, their study revealed that fear was positively related to compliance but negatively related to organisational commitment and satisfaction with supervision. This suggests authoritarian leaders may gain compliance from subordinates using fear, but at the expense of relationships, i.e. lower satisfaction with supervision and lower organisational commitment, leading to higher employer turnover intention. This is further supported by Chen, Zhou and Klyver (2019) that authoritarianism arouses negative emotional feelings among employees, which increase their belief that they would be better off leave the organisation than from staying.

The impact of authoritarianism on employees is also affected by local societal cultural values. In low uncertainty avoidance cultures people are fairly relaxed and comfortable with uncertainty and ambiguity. A society with low uncertainty avoidance believe that rules that do not work should be abolished, practice is more important than rules and society is more receptive to differing from conventional ways (Insights 2018). People with such characteristics also do not have an emotional needs for rules to govern their environment. They are likely to resist a highly rule-regulated work environment (Hackman & Kleiner 1990). In low uncertainty avoidance cultures, authoritarianism may not be favourable among employees.

Benevolence

A benevolent leader shows personalised, holistic care for subordinates' personal and family welfare, aiming to foster high-quality exchange relationships between leadership and staff (Chen, Zhou & Klyver 2019; Cheng et al. 2004). This relationship spans across both work and non-work areas, resulting in a family-like environment at the workplace. The leader's kindness and care are expected to result in subordinates' respect, gratefulness and liking towards the leader (Hiller et al. 2019).

Farh et al. (2006) found that benevolence demonstrated a strong, positive relationship to gratitude to supervisor; benevolence had positive effects on identification, compliance, satisfaction and commitment, which leads to lower employee turnover intention. However, supervisor positional power must also be taken into account when assessing the impact. A powerful leader's benevolent act may be perceived as a sign of genuine care for subordinates; however, a weak leader's benevolent acts may be perceived as a sign of weakness, and it is not appreciated at all by subordinates. Nevertheless, a leader's benevolence acts are likely to be appreciated by subordinates, which may be attributed to the fact that the relationship in paternalistic leadership tends to be emotional or relational in nature. There is likely to be strong emotional bonding between the leaders and followers, as followers view leaders with much respect and loyalty (Göncü Köse, Aycan & Johnson 2014). In addition, a leader who provides employees with sincere support increases their perceived costs of leaving the organisation (Chen, Zhou & Klyver 2019).

Morality/ Integrity

Morality/ integrity refers to leader behaviours that show superior personal virtues or characteristics that enable leaders to gain respect from subordinates (Cheng et al. 2004). The leader displays selflessness, moral character, high ethical standards and integrity (Hiller et al. 2019). According to Farh et al. (2006), among the three paternalistic leadership dimensions, their study found morality had the most significant effect on identification, satisfaction with supervision and organisational commitment, which lead to lower employee turnover intention.

According to Demirtas and Akdogan (2015), leaders' values are crucial in influencing the working environment. The role of leaders and their ethical behaviour, demonstrated through their relationships and actions, are fundamental factors in setting the moral framework for their subordinates and the organisation. The leader acts as a role model who exerts influence and shapes the ethical climate (Chen, Zhou & Klyver 2019). When subordinates perceive existence of an ethical climate, this increases organisational commitment, leading to less turnover intention. Moreover, a culture that supports and promotes ethical behaviours are crucial in enabling organisations to achieve sustainable growth, competitive advantage and a good corporate image. In establishing ethical working conditions, leaders must be role models by demonstrating ethical behaviours and appropriate conduct by making fair and transparent decisions, as well as acting in honest and trustworthy ways (Demirtas & Akdogan 2015). Moreover, when employees experience ethical treatment from their leaders, they feel a sense of security, support and fair treatment. Given that employee job satisfaction is closely associated with their leaders' behaviours, leaders who demonstrate ethical behaviours improve employees' job satisfaction, leading to increase in employees' engagement in positive work behaviours, and reduction in likelihood of quitting their job (Shafique, Kalyar & Bashir 2018). In addition, moralism increases employees' satisfaction with their leader and improves their perception of his or her effectiveness, since they believe that the leader is not simply acting according to his or her personal feelings. As a result, it creates a comfortable environment for employees to express their ideas, which also increases their sense of loss should they consider leaving the organisation. Employees may even feel a moral obligation to stay with the organisation and feel guilty about quitting (Chen, Zhou & Klyver 2019).

2.4 Transformational Leadership

2.4.1   Overview of Transformational Leadership

Although the term transformational leadership was coined by Downton in 1973, its significant development only started when Burns first introduced the concept of transformational leadership following his study on the biographies of famous political leaders. Burns also made a clear distinction between transactional and transformational leadership.

The three factors contained the original transformational leadership theory are charisma, individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation (Bass 1985). Subsequently, the theory was refined by Bass and Avolio (1994) to include four components: idealised influence (behaviour and attributes), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration.

Bass and Avolio (1993) built on Burn's work to develop the full-range leadership model (FRLM), which consists of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership behaviours. It has been deemed one of the best-formulated leadership models as the three leadership styles in the model cover almost all the leadership characteristics exuded by leaders (Donald 2017). The FRLM is based on the premise that leaders may exhibit a combination of characteristics from the three mentioned leadership style, and not use one style exclusively. According to Bass and Avolio (1994), transformational leadership is evident when leaders promote a new outlook of work among co-workers and followers; create awareness of organisational and team mission or vision; harness potential of co-workers and followers; and encourage co-workers and followers to put the group's interest above their own. These characteristics are the hallmark of superior leadership performance, which is transformational leadership (Bass 1990).

Advocates of transformational leadership state that it provides solutions for leaders with followers who have a negative perspective of the organisation. The transformational leader focuses on building a personalised and meaningful relationship with his or her followers, which aligns with followers' moral values and provides guidance on followers' behaviours. Over time, organisational goals and individual goals may align. Transformational leadership as a preferred style is influenced by the historical, social and economic environment, the type of organisation, the personality and values of the leader. He believes that in times of distress and rapid changes, transformational leaders will emerge, to be able to develop new solutions together with followers (Bass 1985). This is because a transformational leader is able to engage and motivate followers to attain exceptional results. The three key things this type of leaders do: They take heed of followers' concerns and career development; they give followers' a fresh perspective by helping them view longstanding problems in a different way; and they are able to get followers on board to go to extra mile and contribute to achieving the organisation's goals (Robbins & Coulter 2012). Transformational leaders are capable of changing members' behaviours by encouraging them to exceed expectations (Lai

et al. 2020). Transformational leaders are therefore able to drive the organisation towards effectiveness as subordinates' needs are met and they are motivated to work harder (SPR et al. 2020). This style of leadership is desirable and necessary due to the competitive environment that forces organisations to be leaders of change; such leaders are needed to keep driving change that will improve the capacity and innovativeness of organisation (Usman 2020).

Based on the above-mentioned conceptualisations of transformational leadership from the literature, transformational leadership in this study is operationalised as a leadership style where leaders promote a new outlook of work among co-workers and followers; create awareness of organisational and team mission or vision; harness potential of co-workers and followers; and encourage co-workers and followers to put the group's interest above their own.

2.4.2 Transformational Leadership versus Transactional Leadership

According to Burns (1978, p. 3), "Transactional leaders approach followers with an eye to exchanging one thing for another: jobs for votes, or subsidies for campaign contributions. Such transactions comprise the bulk of the relationships among leaders and followers, especially in groups, legislatures and parties."

On the other hand, "The transforming leader looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower. The result of transforming leadership is a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents (Burns 1978, p. 4)."

In his book, *Leadership*, Burns discusses both transformational and transactional leadership. He describes transformational leadership as a process in which leaders and followers both play a role in helping each other achieve higher levels of motivation. In particular, leaders lead by example and can motivate their followers to achieve beyond what is expected of them. In contrast, transactional leadership focuses on a "give and take" relationship. Transactional leaders do not place focus on inspiring their followers through change in work and organisational culture (Burns 1978). Transactional leadership can be said to be more

control-oriented as it is task based and focuses on rewards for accomplishment and punishment for failure (Usman 2020). In contrast, the foundation of Bass's transformational theory is that leadership goes beyond an achievement-reward relationship. Instead, the focus is on moulding followers through intellectual stimulation, self-development and motivating followers to see beyond their own interests for the benefit of the group (Howell & Avolio 1993; Usman 2020). Transactional leadership also tends to be more rigid and such leaders prefer routine tasks. On the other hand, transformational leadership is more dynamic and leaders tend to enjoy new and difficult tasks (Usman 2020).

Burns (1978) classified transformational and transactional leadership at two ends of the spectrum. In contrast, Bass (1985) suggested that leaders can simultaneously display both transformational and transactional leadership. Moreover, transactional and transformational leadership should not be seen as two leadership styles at two extreme ends of the spectrum. Rather, transformational leadership is actually an extension of transactional leadership. Many transformational leaders engage in transactional behaviours, but complement them with some elements of transformational leadership (Howell & Avolio 1993). Hence, transformational leadership results in degrees of employee effort and performance that are higher than the result of transactional approach alone (Robbins & Coulter 2012), and up till today, it remains one of the most recognised theories on leadership behaviour (Donald 2017). In most organisations, transformational leadership is considered a more effective leadership style compared with transactional leadership (Usman 2020).

2.4.3 Dimensions of Transformational Leadership

The original transformational leadership model by Bass and his colleagues in 1995 contain five dimensions:

- Idealised influence (attributes)
- Idealised influence (behaviour)
- Inspirational motivation
- Intellectual stimulation
- Individualised consideration

However, some researchers have classified transformational leadership into four dimensions as opposed to the original five dimensions (Avolio, Waldman & Yammarino 1991; Kirkbride 2006; Nemanich & Keller 2007). It has also been called the four I's of transformational leadership (Avolio, Waldman & Yammarino 1991). The reduction from five to four dimensions is a result of idealised influence (both attributes and behaviour) being considered as only one dimension. As shown in the above five dimensions, idealised influence is considered as two dimensions, i.e. idealised influence (attributes) and idealised influence (behaviour). Each dimension is discussed in detail as below:

Idealised Influence (Charisma)

According to Bass (1985), the most crucial concept of transformational leadership is charisma. It is not confined to heads of organisations, but can be present at all levels of leaders in an organisation. Leaders who possess idealised influence are exemplary or role models to other individuals. Followers feel a sense of pride in being associated with their leaders, and they desire to be like them (Bass 1998; Kirkbride 2006). In addition to their willingness to identify with the leader's attributes, followers are prepared to divert from self-interest to higher collective goals (Lai et al. 2020). Earning this credit is attributed to certain personal characteristics, charisma, or demonstration of certain moral behaviours (Kirkbride 2006). Transformational leaders are charismatic, display high standards of ethical and moral conduct and are trusted, respected and admired (Lappalainen, Härkänen & Kvist 2020). Burns (1978) emphasised two ways that charismatic leaders influence followers: personality and values or ideas they uphold. According to Bass (1990), charismatic leaders motivate followers with the idea that extra effort will enable them to achieve great things.

Among other things, such leader always consider the interests and needs of others above his or her own personal needs for the benefit of the group (Bass 1985; Bass & Avolio 1994). Leaders who practise idealised influence set holistic and challenging yet achievable goals, and motivate followers to look beyond their self-interests to achieve collective goals with moral purpose and commitment (Lai et al. 2020). Most importantly, leaders with idealised influence possess a clear vision and direction, and are prepared to take risks (Bass 1998). Through respect for others and showing followers they can outperform themselves, this "ideal" leader gains significant influence over followers to participate in future missions and goals. These leaders are role models whom their followers highly respect, admire and trust

(Bass 1998; Bass 2006). As the leader instils beliefs, attitudes and behaviour to the followers, charisma is hence a bond between a leader and a follower (Usman 2020). Idealised influence is the outcome of the other three characteristics: inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration (Avolio, Waldman & Yammarino 1991). These leaders are highly regarded by their followers in terms of morality, trust, honesty, purpose, confidence, charisma and ideals (Donald 2017; Kirkbride 2006). The leader shares risks with followers, acts consistently and with integrity, and avoids using power for personal benefit (Bass & Avolio 1994). A leader who exhibits this style exudes the following key characteristics:

- has shown exceptional competence;
- celebrates followers' successes;
- deals with issues "head on"; and
- uses authority for beneficial purpose (Kirkbride 2006).

Transformational leaders employ idealised influence to empower followers, which increase their adaptability and ability to cope with changing conditions (Nemanich & Keller 2007). Charismatic leaders provide a sense of strength, confidence and team dynamics in the organisation (Usman 2020). Barnett, McCormick and Conners (2001) consider idealised influence as two dimensions. Idealised influence (attributes) is present when followers desire to emulate a leader who is deemed trustworthy and having a sound vision and mission. Idealised influence (behaviour) stems from exemplary leader behaviour that results in followers desiring to emulate the leader's behaviour. The former indicates the followers' perception of the leader, while the latter reflects the leader's behaviour (Donald 2017). In this study, idealised influence (both attributes and behaviour) is considered as one dimension.

Inspirational Motivation

To be an inspirational leader, he or she first creates awareness of the team and organisation's mission or vision. Although inspiration is of paramount importance, it has been an ignored aspect of leadership (Bass & Avolio 1994). According to Barnett, McCormick and Conners (2001), inspirational motivation is closely linked with idealised influence. The presence of individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation, which evidence a leader's ability to make followers feel valuable and confident in the leader's leadership ability, strengthens a

leader's inspirational motivation (Avolio, Waldman & Yammarino 1991). Inspirational leaders exude behaviours that provide purpose and motivation to followers. These leaders also communicate their expectations clearly, set a positive outlook for the organisation's future and show strong commitment to work with followers towards achieving shared vision and goals (Bass 1998; Bass & Avolio 1994). Inspirational leaders articulate visions to inspire and motivate subordinates to reach desired goals, which increase employees' positive perceptions of their jobs (Lai et al. 2020; Peng, Liao & Sun 2020). Inspirational leaders focus on longer term goals, and encourage followers to concentrate efforts on reaching them (Howell & Avolio 1993). Moreover, inspirational leaders motivate their followers by setting challenging goals and tasks to provide meaning to the work (Usman 2020). Such leaders possess the ability to get their followers to buy in their vision and goals. Moreover, these leaders are able to build strong team spirit and empower followers to reach their goals (Bass 2006). In inspirational motivation, leaders are enthusiastic and optimistic, and motivate followers with challenge and persuasion, which makes it meaningful and understandable (Lappalainen, Härkänen & Kvist 2020). As a result, followers are motivated and driven to achieve more than they expect of themselves. This is because transformational leaders have a fresh vision that differs from status quo; they serve as the change agent in inspiring their followers to participate in achieving that new vision (Nemanich & Keller 2007). A leader who exhibits this style exudes the following key characteristics:

- presents an positive and achievable perspective of the future;
- sets expectations and provides meaning;
- breaks down complex matters to key issues in an understandable manner; and
- establishes a sense of priorities and purpose (Kirkbride 2006).

This involves leaders engaging with followers by giving them an active role in achieving the organisation's vision. Leaders also set an example through their own dedication to the organisation's goals and by keeping open communication with the followers. This step promotes an environment of trust and follower loyalty to the organisation, in spite of difficult situations (Donald 2017).

Intellectual Stimulation

Leaders who exhibit this characteristic promote creativity among followers by encouraging them to question assumptions, and approach old problems in new ways, which lead to development of new ideas (Barnett, McCormick & Conners 2001; Bass & Avolio 1994; Bass 2006; Nemanich & Keller 2007). To encourage intellectual stimulation, such leaders usually allow experimentation, emphasise creative thinking and stimulate followers' higher-order needs. These leaders are prepared to challenge the status quo, and they welcome members' opinions or solutions to improve productivity and conserve resources (Bass 1985; Lai et al. 2020). Such approach encourages members to utilise their intelligence or experience effectively, view issues from different angles, master the problem-solving process, and decide on the best solution to improve efficiency (Lai et al. 2020; Usman 2020). Such leaders never correct or criticise others publicly, which provides a safe environment for followers to develop creativity (Bass 1998). This is in contrast with the "telling" approach where followers are expected to take instructions, leaving no room for questions. Instead, the leader stimulates followers to ponder on issues and develop their own thinking abilities, resulting in discovery of new methods of completing tasks. Intellectually stimulating leaders are also open to a bottoms-up type of influence, where followers are allowed to question even the leaders' assumptions and values. This is particularly useful when the leader does not have much experience or information to solve the problem. Such approach encourages creativity rather than conformity (Avolio, Waldman & Yammarino 1991). These leaders essentially send the message of appreciation for diversity and openness to their followers' ideas when they differ from their own (Donald 2017). These leaders deem unexpected circumstances as learning opportunities (Bass 1998). Difficulties are viewed as problems to be solved, with strong emphasis on logical problem solving (Bass 1990). A leader who exhibits this style exudes the following key characteristics:

- revisits assumptions;
- acknowledges patterns that are challenging to imagine;
- is willing to consider ideas that seem to be bizarre;
- encourages followers to rethink issues; and
- establishes a "readiness" for changes in mindset (Kirkbride 2006).

Individualised Consideration

According to Bass (1985, p. 82), individualised consideration consists of two aspects. The first is treating followers as unique individuals having different needs, including investing time to nurture those who appear neglected. The second is identifying followers' weaknesses and strengths and supporting their development and growth. Through individualised consideration, leaders have an individual two-way relationship with followers, which takes into account followers' views and encourages higher achievement of goals and upskilling (Barnett, McCormick & Conners 2001; Kirkbride 2006). These leaders consider staff individually and give support, coaching and learning opportunities. This leadership style is also known as 'management by walking around' (Lappalainen, Härkänen & Kvist 2020). Leaders also give personal attention to each member, seek to understand their needs, and provide them with emotional support; this increases perceived supervisor support (Lai et al. 2020). These leader behaviours are in line with Burns (1978, p. 4) who states, "The transforming leader looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower." In essence, the leader is able to make their followers feel important to the organisation while nurturing followers to achieve their greatest potential (Bass & Avolio 1993; Donald 2017). A leader's charisma may attract followers to pursue the mission or vision; however, individualised consideration is what enables followers to achieve their fullest potential in reaching that mission or vision (Yammarino & Bass 1990). This can be attributed to the core of individualised consideration where the leader cares for employee welfare and is willing to accept difference in individuals (Usman 2020). Leaders who practise individualised consideration are mentors to their followers and cater to individual followers' needs; this provides them with robust support to achieve growth (Bass 1990; Bass 2006). When leaders listen and empathise with an individual's concerns, this helps to build the individual's confidence and promote self-development (Avolio, Waldman & Yammarino 1991). When leaders acknowledge individuals' unique viewpoints and contributions to the team, there is a higher likelihood of intrinsic motivation to achieve their personal and organisation's goals (Bass 1998; Bono & Judge 2003). Followers' willingness to go the extra mile can be attributed to their dedication towards the leader, their level of development, or a defined goal that motivates them to transcend standard expectations. Through individualised consideration, followers' self-interest and organisational goals are taken care of, resulting in maximisation of performance for both individuals and the organisation (Howell & Avolio 1993).

A leader who exhibits this style exudes the following key characteristics:

- recognises differences among people in their strong and weak points, and preferences;
- listens actively;
- assigns projects according to individual ability and needs;
- promotes a two-way discussion of perspectives; and
- encourages self-development (Kirkbride 2006).

2.5 Paternalistic Leadership versus Transformational Leadership

Although leadership is a universal concept, the same leadership style may have very different outcomes depending on the cultural context in which it is being practised. Several scholars posit that transformational leadership, which is the most widely studied leadership style in Western countries, is the ideal leadership style regardless of cultural or situational contexts. However, other scholars believe effectiveness of leadership styles is dependent on the cultural context in which they operate (Göncü Köse, Aycan & Johnson 2014). The literature reveals that transformational leadership leads to positive organisational and employee outcomes. In contrast, paternalistic leadership has been criticised in Western studies for obstructing employee independence, empowerment and advancement. In spite of this, research in cultural contexts that have high collectivism and high power distance reveal that paternalistic leadership is effective in producing positive outcomes for both the organisation and employees (Göncü Köse, Aycan & Johnson 2014).

For example, in Asia, the culture of hierarchy rooted in paternalism is prevalent. Paternalistic leadership is widespread in Eastern cultures and may be as effective as transformational leadership, which is more prevalent in Western cultures (Göncü Köse, Aycan & Johnson 2014). In Asia particularly, followers expect leaders to play both an authoritarian and benevolent role, to provide guidance to followers, who will follow their leaders' decisions. Leaders and followers that have a greater power distance leads to increase in leaders' control over followers. As mentioned above, high power distance and strong collectivist culture are two distinct traditional values in Asian culture that make paternalism a salient leadership style in the region (Koo & Park 2018). Due to high power distance, certain dimensions of

transformational leadership that usually lead to positive outcomes, especially in Western culture has an opposite effect in Asian context. For example, in Asia, employees expect clear directions from their leaders for them to follow, which is a key characteristic of paternalistic leadership. In contrast, transformational leaders who engage with employees for their feedback result in followers feeling sceptical of leaders' capabilities, and this approach is not very welcome (Koo & Park 2018). Collectivist culture places emphasis on group considerations as opposed to individual goals; followers expect leaders to put the group's interest ahead of their own. In this aspect, transformational and paternalistic leadership styles lead to similar outcome, as both styles emphasise collective interest of groups (Koo & Park 2018).

One key difference between transformational and paternalistic leadership styles is the nature of relationship between leaders and followers. The relationship in paternalistic leadership tends to be emotional or relational in nature. There is likely to be strong emotional bonding between the leaders and followers, as followers view leaders with much respect and loyalty. On the contrary, the relationship between leaders and followers in transformational leadership is business-oriented instead of one that is emotional. This is attributed to the fact that transformational leaders emphasise on building an environment that motivates followers rather than building it on a personal bonding between the leader and follower (Göncü Köse, Aycan & Johnson 2014).

In spite of differences between both leadership styles, three characteristics of transformational leadership, i.e. individualised consideration, high performance emphasis and modelling, have been identified as corresponding to the three paternalistic leadership dimensions: benevolence, authoritarianism and morality respectively (Cheng et al. 2004). Past studies have shown that outcomes of transformational and paternalistic leadership styles may overlap (Göncü Köse, Aycan & Johnson 2014). Generally, relationship-oriented characteristics in transformational leadership overlap with paternalistic leadership. For instance, encouraging cooperation, providing individual support, and setting example for followers. These leadership characteristic is welcomed in collectivistic cultures. On the other hand, behaviours that challenge the status quo such as risk taking, vision building and intellectual stimulation are transformational leadership characteristics that are not present in paternalistic leadership. Going against existing regulations is frowned upon as followers expect leaders to act according to the norm and risk taking tends to diminish followers' trust

in leadership. These behaviours are instead welcomed in transformational leadership, which emphasis on challenging status quo and taking risks if this leads to a better outcome (Tang, Yin & Min 2011).

Individualised consideration is present when a leader shows care for individual followers' feeling and needs, which is similar to benevolence in paternalistic leadership. High performance standard is when leaders expect followers to perform with excellence, which is similar to authoritarianism in paternalistic leadership. However, an important difference occurs here, whereby the legitimacy of authoritarianism is rooted in followers' inferior role (high power distance) rather than accepting the leader's assignment of job tasks per se. In Western context, modelling suggests that the leader will set a higher level of moral values, and lead by example. This is similar to morality/ integrity in paternalistic leadership (Cheng et al. 2004). In sum, transformational leaders are prepared to forgo their personal interests for the benefit of the group, duly reward their followers' performance and actively try to improve followers' performance and intellectual capability. Similarly, paternalistic leaders create a family atmosphere in the workplace by protecting their followers, maximising the group's interest, consider individual needs of followers and go beyond the work domain (Göncü Köse, Aycan & Johnson 2014). Although similarities exist, the effects of transformational and paternalistic leadership will still have significant differences in different cultural contexts, especially when each dimension is examined in detail. Moreover, both leadership styles may have cultural-specific ideologies that are not applicable to other cultural contexts (Cheng et al. 2004).

Today, the line between transformational and paternalistic leadership is blurring, as Western culture permeates the Asian region. The new generation is moving towards individualism and autonomy, leading to traditional and modern values coexisting in the region (Koo & Park 2018).

2.6 Turnover Intention

2.6.1 Definitions of Turnover Intention

According to Khalid, Pahi and Ahmed (2016), employee retention is an organisation's ability to retain its employees. In order to retain employees, organisations need to ensure they are satisfied. In particular, service organisations aim to satisfy employees and foster high organisational commitment to retain them. George (2012, p. 85) defines turnover as the "permanent withdrawal of an employee from the employing organization". Hence, turnover intention, which is an antecedent to voluntary turnover, essentially starts when employees have thoughts of permanently leaving the organisation. According to Tett and Meyer (1993a, p. 262), turnover intention is "a conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organization". It is also described as the extent to which employees intend to stop their membership with their organisations (Alatawi 2017). For example, employees who do not plan on leaving have zero turnover intention. Turnover intention also can be defined as the likelihood of individuals voluntarily changing jobs during a specific period of time (Yukongdi & Shrestha 2020). According to Mahoney et al. (2020), turnover intention is defined as "the last in a sequence of withdrawal cognitions, a set to which thinking of quitting and intent to search for alternative employment also belongs".

Based on the above-mentioned definitions of turnover intention from the literature, this study operationalises turnover intention as a situation in which employees have a conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organisation.

2.6.2 Significance and Consequences of Employee Turnover to Organisations

Employee turnover has been a long-standing problem for several organisations, as it results in substantial losses to the organisations, especially when the organisation has invested heavily in employee higher education and upskilling (Cascio 1991). Employee turnover is a global issue and continues to be a significant problem worldwide in spite of several studies done on this matter. Much research has been done on employee turnover by several scholars in the past century (Hom et al. 2017). In 2016, the global voluntary employee turnover rate was 9.6% (Gutmann 2016). The key reason warranting attention to address this problem is the humongous losses borne by the organisation. One employee turnover may cost organisations

1.5-2.5 times higher than the employee's salary (Rubel & Hung 2013). High employee turnover has negative impacts on an organisation due to additional recruitment, selection, and training costs. It also causes disruptions to work, resulting in negative impacts on organisational productivity and performance. Hence, keeping employee turnover in check should be on the priorities list of any organisation (Alatawi 2017). Although turnover can never be completely eliminated, it is a crucial factor that organisations aim to minimise, particularly among employees with excellent performance (Robbins & Coulter 2012). Recent evidence shows that employee turnover is relevant to employees working in Malaysia. According to the 2018 Hays Asia Salary Guide, Malaysia had the most restless labour force among the five Asian countries surveyed (China, Singapore, Hong Kong, Japan, Malaysia) with 48 percent of respondents actively searching for a new job and 35 percent planning a move within six months. The top three reasons cited for job hunting are salary or benefit package, lack of career progression and insufficient training or development opportunities. In addition, 97 percent of businesses in Malaysia opine that the skill shortage due to high turnover will have adverse effects on their operations in the near future (Hays 2018).

Turnover may pose problems to an organisation due to additional hiring, selection, and training costs. It also causes disruptions to work, resulting in negative impacts on organisational productivity and performance. Hence, keeping employee turnover in check should be on the priorities list of any organisation (Alatawi 2017). Although turnover can never be completely eliminated, it is a crucial factor that organisations aim to minimise, particularly among employees with excellent performance (Robbins & Coulter 2012). It is worth noting that this research is on the assumption of managing dysfunctional turnover, whereby loss of talent is undesirable to any organisation.

2.6.3 Validity of Turnover Intention as a Predictor of Actual Employee Turnover

According to Harhara, Singh and Hussain (2015), turnover intentions is one of the most accurate predictors of turnover, as well as a predecessor of actual employee turnover. Furthermore, it is widely accepted among researchers that intention to stay or leave an organisation is the last cognitive stage in voluntary turnover decision-making process. Hence, the majority of employee turnover models developed over the last two decades have

incorporated turnover intention (Lambert, Lynne Hogan & Barton 2001). The theory of planned behaviour provides further support for validity of turnover intention. Intentions are driven by motivational factors that affect a behaviour; they are indicators of how much effort individuals are willing to put in to carry out the behaviour. Generally, the stronger the intention to perform a behaviour, the higher the likelihood of executing it (assuming the behaviour it at one's will) (Ajzen 1991). This principle can be applied to turnover intention, whereby the stronger the turnover intention, the more likely the employee will quit. Research has also consistently found turnover intention to be the strongest cognitive antecedent of actual turnover (Tett & Meyer 1993a).

Moreover, an employee's intention to quit is deemed more valuable to employers than actual turnover. If factors contributing to intention to quit can be addressed, there are still chances the employer can change the employee's intention. However, an employee who has left leaves an employer with not much choice but to incur costs of replacing the employee who has left(Lambert, Lynne Hogan & Barton 2001). Similarly, Harris states that investigating high turnover intentions is more crucial than turnover itself. The two aims are to avoid negative employee behaviours that might influence other colleagues; and reduce actual turnover costs, both of which incur financial costs for organisations (Hughes, Avey & Nixon 2010). According to Yukongdi and Shrestha (2020), other than financial costs, employee turnover results in loss of skills, knowledge and business relationships. Since turnover intention is a precursor of actual turnover, employers can influence employees' intention to leave since they have yet to quit their jobs. Moreover, studies of employee turnover often focus on turnover intention rather than actual employee turnover because actual turnover is predicted by turnover intention. Studying turnover intention allows managers to understand what they can do to influence turnover intentions before employees actually quit their jobs and turnover costs are incurred (Mahoney et al. 2020).

According to Alatawi (2017), researchers who utilised actual employee turnover encountered challenges in following up with the individuals who left their organisations. Hence, turnover intention is a more practical measure to be used for research purpose.

2.6.4 Turnover in Higher Education Institutions

An employee is estimated to change jobs seven times throughout their career. Like any other organisation, high voluntary turnover rates in higher education have several negative impacts on both the organisation and the remaining employees. It has cost some universities up to 68 million dollars annually (Jo 2008). The is attributed to higher education institutions allowing high turnover among non-academic and academic staff to become a norm within the industry, often blaming it on the poor economic situations, leading to downsizing or budget cuts. As a result, staffing shortage coupled with increasing work demands lead to burnout or employees leaving (Figueroa 2015). According to a study by Jo (2008) among university administrators, turnover rate among women in higher education institutions were higher than that of men. Among the reasons cited are challenges of balancing work life and family, not feeling valued, disrespected, belittled, along with no career progression and lack of flexible working arrangements. The reasons are both monetary and non-monetary, suggesting that institutions need to create both financial incentives and also recognition awards for outstanding employee performance. According to Küskü (2003), especially in developing countries where economic satisfaction level may be low with respect to the job completed, improvements in non-economic factors are very important in increasing job satisfaction, which will boost productivity while reducing turnover intention as well.

According to Figueroa (2015), longitudinal studies found that low retention among administrative staff remains a challenge for institutions. The key reasons for this phenomenon were low staff engagement, low organisational commitment, little sense of value, inadequate career progression opportunities, insufficient staff development and low pay. Based on the foregoing, it is evident that talent retention among administrative staff warrants more attention, as the operations of the higher education institutions depend heavily on administrative staff. Without efficient operations, the institutions will be unable to provide high quality education to the community. The reasons driving administrative staff turnover intention can be addressed through sound leadership and strategic actions taken by the organisation to retain the administrative staff.

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2.7 Job Satisfaction

2.7.1 Definitions of Job Satisfaction

Employees who are satisfied with their jobs are the driving force for healthy and productive companies. Hence, in recent decades, job satisfaction has been the most studied parameter in working life researches, as much attention has been given to the value of health at the workplace (Gull et al. 2020). The literature shows several definitions of job satisfaction, and the different schools of thought stem from variations in the emphasis of job satisfaction: is it an attitude, feeling, belief, value, or all of them?

Hoppock (1935) conducted a comprehensive analysis of 32 studies on job satisfaction that were done before 1933. Following the review, he defined job satisfaction as "a combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that cause a person to truthfully say 'I am satisfied with my job'" (Hoppock 1935, p. 47).

Certain definitions view job satisfaction as a feeling. For example, job satisfaction is simply the feelings people have concerning their jobs and various aspects of their jobs. It is the degree to which individuals are satisfied or dissatisfied with their work. Job satisfaction can be deemed as an overall feeling towards the job or as a combination of attitudes towards specific aspects of the job (Spector 1997). Similarly, Newstrom (2002) defines job satisfaction as "a set of favourable or unfavourable feelings with which employees view their work". According to Locke (1969), job satisfaction is a happy emotion experienced by individuals who perceive that their job fulfils or facilitates fulfilment of their job values. This definition emphasises the fact the job satisfaction is unique to each individual. Job satisfaction starts with perception, which is determined by individuals' job values, i.e. what individuals seek to obtain/ achieve or deem beneficial from to their job. They differ from one individual to another. If the result is in favour of what one values ("better than expected"), it is a pleasant surprise. If the result is concerned with what an individual does not value ("worse than expected"), it is an unpleasant surprise. Hence, different people may view the same situation differently due to differences in importance of the values involved. For example, a lower pay by one thousand dollars will be make a person who deemed pay to be extremely important more dissatisfied than one who did not. According to Siriattakul, Jermsittiparsert and Abdurrahman (2019), job satisfaction is the extent to which the actual

rewards given to the employees meet their expectations. On a similar note, Tett and Meyer (1993a, p. 261) state that job satisfaction is "one's affective attachment to the job viewed either in its entirety (global satisfaction) or with regard to particular aspects (facet satisfaction; e.g. supervision)." Job satisfaction can be deemed an affective reaction to work and is an indicator that the employee has a positive job attitude (Zhang & Li 2020). Zakariya (2020) also defines job satisfaction in terms of feeling, whereby it is the sense of fulfilment and gratification experienced by employees through their work. In another recent study by Mahoney et al. (2020, p. 40), job satisfaction is defined as "the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values".

It is worth noting that Locke (1969) explicitly expressed disagreement with definitions that equate values to expectations and needs. This is because values are not synonymous to expectations and needs. Expectation is a belief of what may occur in the future, but may not be desirable to the individual. In contrast, what is valued may not be what is expected. What one values or disvalues remain constant regardless of whether it is expected. Indeed, values and expectations overlap as people generally value what they believe in within reasonable attainment. Needs refer to what individuals need to survive. Unlike values, needs do not require awareness, as it automatically arises when required by an individual. On the other hand, individuals desire to keep what they value, in which awareness must first be present. Hence, it is values rather than needs that determine an individual's actions and emotional responses. His study also found that values ultimately determine satisfaction. This view is supported by George (2012, p. 89) who states that work values are "an employee's personal convictions about what outcomes one should expect from work and how one should behave at work". Work values are broad and long-term feelings and beliefs people possess that influence how they experience work. They are a reflection of what people aim to achieve through and at work. Although values, attitudes, moods and emotions encompass the thoughts and feelings of employees, work values are the strongest and affect the other elements. This suggests it is work values that have the strongest influence on job satisfaction.

Other definitions deem job satisfaction as a combination of attitudes, feelings and beliefs. According to Armstrong (2006), job satisfaction refers to the feelings and attitudes and people possess about their work. Job satisfaction is indicated by positive and favourable attitudes towards the job. Job dissatisfaction is indicated by negative and unfavourable

attitudes towards the job. In a similar vein, George (2012, p. 71) defines job satisfaction as "the collection of feelings and beliefs that people have about their current jobs. People's levels or degrees of job satisfaction can range from extreme satisfaction to extreme dissatisfaction."

Certain authors have also placed emphasis only on attitude in defining job satisfaction. According to Weiss (2002, p. 175), job satisfaction is defined as an attitude. It is "a positive (or negative) evaluative judgment one makes about one's job or job situation." Furthermore, the author expresses disagreement with job satisfaction definitions that equate feelings/ affect to attitude. They are two completely different elements. Job satisfaction is an attitude, not an affective reaction. An attitude involves evaluation of an attitudinal object using job satisfaction measures, and this is not the same as simply having emotional response. Emotions and moods vary based on the situation, and have longer term effects on individuals than the evaluative judgments. Van Dick et al. (2004b, p. 352) share the same view where job satisfaction is "an attitude towards specific aspects of the concrete job and tasks one has to perform". Similarly, Ivancevich, Gibson and Konopaske (2011, p. 102) define job satisfaction as "the attitude that workers have about their jobs. It results from their perception of the job." Similarly, according to Setiawati and Ariani (2020), job satisfaction is the attitude of workers towards work, for instance, how happy they are seeing their work.

In a more recent definition by Moradi et al. (2013), the concept of job satisfaction is deemed a more complex concept with several aspects to be considered. Job satisfaction comprises job characteristics, work environment, personal characteristics and attitudes. However, all these environmental factors are dynamic and change in any one of them affects job satisfaction. In fact, job satisfaction is an outcome of these factors whereby "job satisfaction is an evaluative description of job conditions or characteristics" (Jaime Andrés, Caballer & Peiró 2020, p. 2).Similarly, Bha and Ye (2020) state that job satisfaction is attained when the employee is satisfied with specific factors related to their job such as the work culture and team empowerment. In line with this, it can be said that job satisfaction is the level to which an individual is content with the job. It shows convergence between employee's personal interest and what is provided by the organisation (Yukongdi & Shrestha 2020). Moreover, job satisfaction can be measured globally as the general satisfaction with a job, or in a multi-faceted manner according to satisfaction with specific dimensions such as salary, benefits,

career development, training, work relationships, promotions, managements, work environment, recognition and supervision (Wang et al. 2020).

Based on the above-mentioned definitions of job satisfaction from the literature, this study operationalises job satisfaction as a combination of attitudes, feelings and beliefs that individuals possess about their existing work. Each individual's job satisfaction level can range from being extremely satisfied to being extremely dissatisfied.

2.7.2 Job Satisfaction in Higher Education Institutions

According to Küskü (2003), since the early 1990s, there has been increasing research attention given to employee satisfaction in higher education; this is attributed to the fact that higher education institutions are labour intensive, in which their effectiveness is heavily dependent on both administrative and academic staff (Johnsrud 2002). Moreover, the current competitive market in the education field calls for higher education institutions to focus on strategies to maintain employee satisfaction in order to retain employees and help the organisation build competitive advantage (Siriattakul, Jermsittiparsert & Abdurrahman 2019). This need is further supported by the fact that higher education pays a unique role in the society. Demand for highly skilled, socially engaged people is both increasing and changing, which is a gap filled by higher education institutions. Monitoring of job satisfaction is extremely crucial to the continuing growth of educational systems around the world. The success and failure of an institution can be measured by job satisfaction level among its employees because of the great effect caused by this satisfaction upon the performance of employees, which will reflect positively or negatively on the quality of the institution's services (Szromek & Wolniak 2020). Hence, employee satisfaction in higher education institutions are of paramount importance. With increase in employees' satisfaction level, the quality level of higher education institutions will improve as well. Küskü (2003) also notes that the majority of studies among higher education institution employees have been conducted in the West, with few studies done in developing or underdeveloped countries. In addition, much research has been focused on academic staff, with considerably less attention given to administrative or non-academic staff (Johnsrud 2002). In many countries, authors have done research on job satisfaction from academic staff perspective (Szromek & Wolniak 2020). Administrative staff warrants to be studied on its own, as Küskü (2003) found

significant differences between the levels of satisfaction of academic and administrative employees. This is due to the differences in job nature and expectations of the two groups. For instance, academic staff's job satisfaction is deeply connected with their teaching results, which is a reflection of their teaching quality. On the other hand, for administrative staff, leadership style has the strongest influence on job satisfaction (Songcog & Guhao 2020). In a study on academic staff, particularly professors, job satisfaction and turnover may be driven more strongly by factors related to the desire to pursue individual and institutional reputation in research (Hofmann & Strobel 2020). This is not applicable to administrative staff. Moreover, administrative staff members' job satisfaction has strong influence on higher education institutions' effectiveness and performance. Their work supports the primary missions of the institution (Johnsrud 2002). Governance and performance management of higher education institutions (HEI) increasingly rely on data to monitor administrative structures and processes, as well as performance, in research and teaching (Hofmann & Strobel 2020). Such monitoring roles call for administrative staff.

Hence, attracting and retaining competent administrative staff, keeping them motivated and rewarding them accordingly is of paramount importance (Jung & Shin 2015). According to Jung and Shin (2015), leadership has a significant relationship with job satisfaction of university staff. Over-controlling by supervisors over task performance and low self-reliance reduce employees' satisfaction with the job. On the other hand, leaders who communicate with staff and set clear expectations, give staff recognition for their work, provide a reasonable level of work autonomy and self-development opportunities have a positive effect on job satisfaction (Johnsrud 2002; Jung & Shin 2015). University leaders are recommended to fulfil the intrinsic needs of their subordinates and promote creativity and self-learning among them (Jung & Shin 2015). Job satisfaction has a direct effect on employee morale, which then affects their turnover intention (Johnsrud 2002). These findings provide evidence that that job satisfaction among employees, particularly non-academic staff in higher education institutions is a crucial factor to be studied.

2.8 The Impact of Leadership Styles on Job Satisfaction and Employee Turnover Intention

2.8.1 Relationship of Transformational Leadership with Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention

It is worth noting that certain contextual factors moderate the impact of transformational leadership on both the organisation and individuals. According to Bass (1985), transformational leaders are likely to be welcomed in organisations that are receptive to change and willing to take risks. On the contrary, organisations bound by bureaucracy may view transformational leaders who often question status quo, as a threat and inappropriate to the existing structure.

There is vast and strong evidence showing that transformational leadership is better than transactional leadership. For instance, studies that covered managers in multiple work environments, such as the military and business, reported that transformational leaders were assessed as more effective, higher performers, more promotable than their counterparts who exhibited transactional leadership, and possessed better interpersonal sense. Moreover, evidence shows that transformational leadership has a strong relationship with lower turnover rates and higher levels of productivity, employee satisfaction, creativity, goal attainment, follower well-being, and corporate entrepreneurship, particularly in start-up firms (Robbins & Coulter 2012).

According to the first study done by Bass (1985), transformational leaders positively influence their employees' job satisfaction, particularly satisfaction with their leaders. The leader makes each employee feel special (through individualised consideration) and gives them motivation to achieve their full potential (through idealised influence and inspirational motivation). Several other studies have also reported that transformational leadership and job satisfaction have a significant positive relationship (Berson & Linton 2005; Bono & Judge 2003; Nemanich & Keller 2007; Podsakoff, Mackenzie & Bommer 1996). Considering the large impact leaders have in determining an individual's overall job satisfaction, many studies have focused mainly on satisfaction with the leader; they have consistently found that transformational leaders have the strongest positive influence on followers' job satisfaction in comparison with other leadership styles (Bass 1990; Bycio, Hackett & Allen 1995; Dunham-

Taylor 1995; Koh, Steers & Terborg 1995; Yammarino & Bass 1990). The positive impact of transformational leadership in generating higher satisfaction levels among employees has been consistently supported by over two decades of research (Walumbwa et al. 2005).

Existing research shows strong evidence that transformational leaders reduce their followers' intention to quit. Transformational leaders equip employees with the ability to remain loyal to the organisation and pull through in difficult circumstances. This stems from encouragement given to employees to overcome obstacles and remain effective in their work. Alatawi (2017) found that transformational leadership had a negative relationship with employees' turnover intention. In contrast with the characteristics of transformational leaders, managers having a narrow-minded vision experience high employee turnover. They may end up with untalented employees due to loss of talented employees. Workers who remain may feel disappointment and demotivated to perform their tasks well (Alatawi 2017).

Dupré and Day (2007) found that transformational leaders had a significant positive impact on employee job satisfaction, which led to lower turnover intention. Employees who felt supported by their leaders found purpose in their jobs, and were less inclined to leave the organisation. According to Bass (2006, p. 36), effective transformational leaders decrease followers' intentions to quit by demonstrating that "the goals and values of the group, follower, leader and organization" are in alignment with one another. Hence, the followers are less likely to quit as they regard the leader as a facilitator to achieve their personal goals, which are congruent with that of the organisation. Moreover, followers who receive individual consideration from the leader feel their needs are met and will likely remain in the organisation. Similarly, Krishnan (2005) found that transformational leadership and subordinate's intention to quit had a significant negative relationship.

In particular, a transformational leader who exhibits idealised influence (i.e. charisma) creates a desire among followers be identified with the leader; this motivates followers to remain in the organisation so long as the leader is there (Shamir, House & Arthur 1993). Transformational leaders also "use inspirational motivation to build emotional commitment to a mission or goal" (Bass 2006, p. 36). This emotional commitment may cause followers to desire remaining in the organisation. On the same note, Hughes, Avey and Nixon (2010) reported that leaders who engaged in transformational leadership significantly reduced followers' intention to quit.

Since transformational leadership involves engagement with followers for it to be effective, employees whose jobs require minimal supervision may not be affected by this leadership style. For example, Sang Long et al. (2012) conducted a study among academic staff in a Malaysian Community College. Their results revealed an insignificant relationship between transformational leadership and academic staff turnover intention. The authors attributed this situation to the nature of academic staff's work, whereby the majority of time is spent on teaching students. They have minimal contact with their supervisors, and their teaching tasks are carried out with high autonomy.

2.8.2 Relationship of Paternalistic Leadership with Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention

On a whole, paternalistic leadership has been largely ignored in leadership studies. This may be attributed to the negative connotations associated with paternalism, especially in the West. Hence studies in Asian countries have followed suit, although this leadership style is actually prevalent in these countries (Jackson 2016). Hence, it is not surprising that the impact of paternalistic leadership on employee work attitudes (e.g. job satisfaction) and job performance has yet to be studied (Cheng et al. 2004). In addition, Pellegrini and Scandura (2008) state there is a need to examine the impact of paternalistic leadership on performance and turnover.

It is undeniable that certain aspects of paternalism may have negative outcomes. In line with previous research, Farh et al. (2006) and Hiller et al. (2019) reported that authoritarianism resulted in several negative outcomes: lower organisational commitment, lower satisfaction with supervision, higher turnover intentions and other unwanted workplace behaviours. In addition, their study revealed that fear was positively related to compliance but negatively related to organisational commitment and satisfaction with supervision. This suggests authoritarian leaders may gain compliance from subordinates using fear, but at the expense of relationships, i.e. lower satisfaction with supervision and lower organisational commitment. There is little evidence that authoritarian leadership results in even compliance (Hiller et al. 2019).

In contrast, benevolence demonstrated a strong, positive relationship to gratitude to supervisor; benevolence had positive effects on identification, compliance, satisfaction and commitment. However, supervisor positional power must also be taken into account when assessing the impact. A powerful leader's benevolent act may be perceived as a sign of genuine care for subordinates; however, a weak leader's benevolent acts may be perceived as a sign of weakness, and it is not appreciated at all by subordinates. Among the three PL dimensions, morality had the most significant effect on identification, satisfaction with supervision and organisational commitment. Unlike benevolent leaders who cultivate personal relationships with subordinates through reciprocity, moral leaders influence subordinates through integrity. Hence, a moral leader can still exert strong influence despite lack of position power (Farh et al. 2006).

Nevertheless, paternalistic leadership as a whole is not necessarily bad. For example, founder of Dilmah Tea, Merrill Fernando's paternal leadership, led to high organisational commitment among employees. He had a strong focus on staff welfare, where he provided free in-house medical facilities and aid for education of employees' children. In addition his "management by walking around" style has led to high motivation among employees as problems are dealt with promptly in an appropriate manner ('Dilmah Tea's blend of paternalistic leadership: Approach builds commitment, good communications and teamwork' 2011). This is in line with the study of Hiller et al. (2019), which stated that the authority dimension of paternalistic leadership is not necessarily displayed in the extreme form of authoritarianism. Instead, as described by key researchers, including Cheng and colleagues, authority was originally mean to be used with good intentions and control.

In this study, paternalistic leadership is operationalised as a leadership style that integrates strong discipline and authority with fatherly characteristics and moral integrity in a personalised environment.

2.9 Underlying Theories

Underlying theories represent the theoretical perspectives that form the rationale for the relationship between leadership styles and employee turnover intention in a higher education setting. The relevant underlying theories in this research are as follows:

- Social exchange theory: Why is there a relationship between leaders and followers?

- Role Theory: The influence of leadership style on employees

- Herzberg's two-factor theory, also known as motivation-hygiene Theory: The relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention

2.9.1 Social Exchange Theory

The social exchange theory is the underlying theory that provides a foundation to explain the establishment of a relationship between leaders and followers. The social exchange theory postulates that relationship between individuals is based on an equitable exchange of social and material resources. Individuals who are given favourable treatment are likely to feel obligated to reciprocate (Blau 1964). Social exchanges are "voluntary actions of individuals that are motivated by the returns they are expected to bring and typically do bring from others" (Blau 1964, p. 91).

The relationship between leaders and followers can be explained by the leader-member exchange (LMX) theory, which states that the influence of leaders on employees in their group (referred to as members) is dependent on the quality of relationships established with them (Erdogan & Bauer 2015). According to Dulebohn et al. (2012) , LMX is deeply rooted in the social exchange theory whereby low LMX relationships are purely economic exchange in nature (i.e. employment contract stating pay and performance) while high-LMX relationships are largely based on social relationships built on reciprocity. In a high-quality leader-member relationship, benefits received by members from leaders include support, developmental opportunities and mentoring. Hence, on the members' end, receiving such resources provides motivation to reciprocate to the leader by showing behaviours such as loyalty and increase positive work attitudes. Although economic exchange plays a role in motivating such behaviour, it is largely due to an affective attachment between leaders and followers (social exchange). Research has shown that high-quality LMX leads to increased job satisfaction and organisational commitment, along with reduced turnover intention (Erdogan & Bauer 2015).

The present study focuses on the impact of leadership styles on employee job satisfaction and turnover intention, which is explained by the relationship between leaders and followers. Hence, the social exchange theory is relevant for this study.

2.9.2 Role Theory

Role theory is the underlying theory that explains the defined behavioural pattern among leaders and followers in an organisation. Role theory states that individuals exhibit behaviours consistent with the general expectations and obligations that come with the role (Kessler 2013). Roles remain constant regardless of the role occupants. Hence, the concept of role is crucial for organisational sustainability. In organisations, those in the role of managers are responsible to lead, coach and mentor their followers to ensure job expectations are communicated to followers. The followers are expected to perform according to the tasks assigned to them by their managers. Role ambiguity has negative effects on job performance and satisfaction (Kessler 2013).

Hence, the role theory is the cornerstone to understanding the influence of leaders on followers, and why the respective groups behave in a certain manner in an organisational setting. In addition, it explains why leaders' behaviours will have an impact on followers' job satisfaction, and ultimately determining if to remain or quit an organisation.

The present study is concerned with the roles of leaders and followers, in particular the different leader behaviours that influence employee job satisfaction and turnover intention. Hence, the role theory is relevant for this study.

**2.9.3 Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory**

Herzberg's two-factory theory, also called motivation-hygiene theory, is the underlying theory that explains what brings satisfaction or dissatisfaction to employees. The presence of job satisfaction affects employee satisfaction, which is expected to reduce employee turnover intention. Several studies have found that job satisfaction plays a significant role in reducing

turnover intention (e.g. (Cotton & Tuttle 1986; Lambert, Lynne Hogan & Barton 2001; Meyer, Allen & Smith 1993; Noureen & Abbas 2017; Spector 1997; Van Dick et al. 2004b)). Hence, Herzberg's theory forms the foundation for establishing and understanding how job satisfaction and employee turnover intention are related to each other.

Herzberg's theory was established by Frederick Herzberg in 1959 and is widely accepted and recognised (Malik & Naeem 2013). In 1959, Herzberg's study began with researching on employee attitudes related to job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. He then built further on his research to develop the motivation-hygiene theory, which provides a list of factors affecting employee attitudes towards their jobs. According to Herzberg, the factors for job satisfaction (and motivation) and job dissatisfaction move on two separate and independent continuums. Herzberg's theory states that certain job factors cause satisfaction; meanwhile, other job factors prevent dissatisfaction. The opposite of "Satisfaction" is "No Satisfaction"; and the opposite of "Dissatisfaction" is "No Dissatisfaction"(Herzberg 1968).

The present study involves job satisfaction as a mediator in the relationship between leadership style and employee turnover intention. The results of each job satisfaction dimension is linked back to Herzberg's theory. Hence, Herzberg's theory is relevant for this study.

2.9.3.1 Herzberg's Satisfaction-Dissatisfaction Continuum
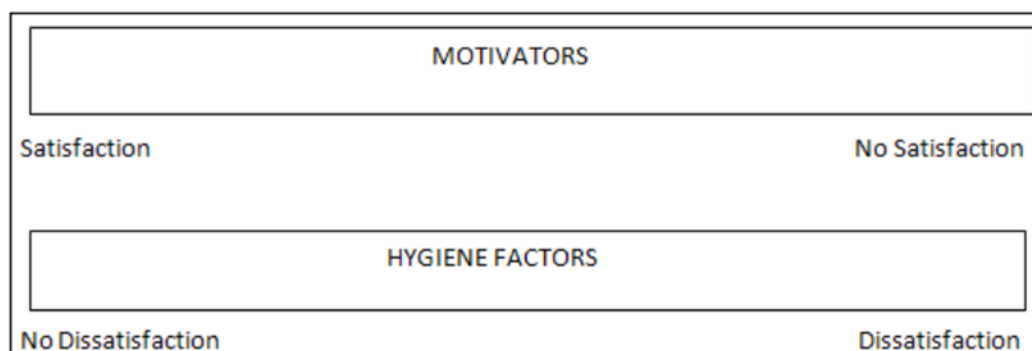
Source: Herzberg, F 1967, *The Motivation to Work,* 2nd ed.. edn*.,* New York : Wiley.

Figure 2.1 Illustration of Herzberg's Satisfaction-Dissatisfaction Continuum

Herzberg (1968) divided the factors into two categories: Motivator and hygiene factors. According to Herzberg's theory, motivators were the main cause of satisfaction, while hygiene factors were the main cause of dissatisfaction with the job. Herzberg's theory states that individuals are more motivated by intrinsic factors compared with extrinsic factors.

2.9.3.2 Intrinsic/ Motivator factors

The growth or motivator factors intrinsic to the job are: achievement; recognition for achievement; the work itself; responsibility; and growth or advancement. These job satisfying factors are the only intrinsic motivators that provide true meaning and fulfilment to employees, which lead to satisfaction and genuine motivation that is sustainable (Herzberg 1968; M. Jarkas, Radosavljevic & Wuyi 2014). According to Herzberg, the absence of these factors is not likely to result in dissatisfaction, rather it will result in a state of neutrality (Larkin, Brantley-Dias & Lokey-Vega 2016).

In particular, appreciation for employee's work and performance (recognition for achievement) in deemed the most effective motivator for employee satisfaction (Frey, Bayón & Totzek 2013). According to Herzberg, occupational role is able to fulfil an individual's need for self-actualisation, which influences job satisfaction (Smith & Shields 2013). It is important to highlight that a crucial role is played by university leaders in fulfilling the intrinsic needs of their subordinates and promoting creativity and self-learning among them (Jung & Shin 2015). Leaders who communicate with staff and set clear expectations, give staff recognition for their work, provide a reasonable amount of work autonomy and self-development opportunities have a positive influence on job satisfaction (Johnsrud 2002; Jung & Shin 2015).

2.9.3.3 Extrinsic/ Hygiene/ Maintenance factors

The dissatisfaction-avoidance or hygiene factors that are extrinsic to the job are: company policy and administration procedures; supervision; interpersonal relationships; working conditions; salary; status; and security. These extrinsic "maintenance" factors or hygiene needs may serve as demotivators and lead to dissatisfaction if they are not present. However, these factors per se do not provide any motivation; once such needs are satisfied, their effects

are only short-term and do not instil any motivation in employees (Larkin, Brantley-Dias & Lokey-Vega 2016; M. Jarkas, Radosavljevic & Wuyi 2014).

These factors are environmental or organisational factors that sit outside the individual's perception of the job. Issues or unhappiness with these factors were generally linked to dissatisfaction, leading to increased employee turnover intention (Smith & Shields 2013). A study by Smerek and Peterson (2007) among higher education institutions found that effective supervisors and senior management are crucial in affecting non-academic staff's job satisfaction levels. In line with Herzberg's theory, Jo (2008) found that dissatisfaction with supervisor due to certain management styles, disrespect shown by supervisor was the most significant factor affecting non-academic staff's turnover decisions.

2.9.3.4 Validity of Herzberg's Theory

Herzberg's theory was in complete opposition to existing ideas in the late 1950s, which emphasised maintenance factors as the primary reason for job satisfaction. Nevertheless, recent studies support Herzberg's concept of differentiating the two types of job satisfaction factors, backed up by research findings that motivation factors have a stronger connection with job satisfaction. Smith found that both maintenance and motivation factors positively influence job satisfaction. Nevertheless, the motivation factor related to work itself had a significantly larger impact on job satisfaction than maintenance factor related to supervision (Smith & Shields 2013).

2.10 Conceptual Framework

This research studies how leadership styles and employees' turnover intention are related to each other, in the environment of Malaysian higher education institutions. The theories and models discussed so far have been combined into a theoretical model. Based on the theoretical relationships presented in existing research and logical reasoning, this model serves as a guideline and gives an overall picture of the different hypotheses tested in this study. The conceptualised relationship between the variables in this study is shown in Figure. 2.2.
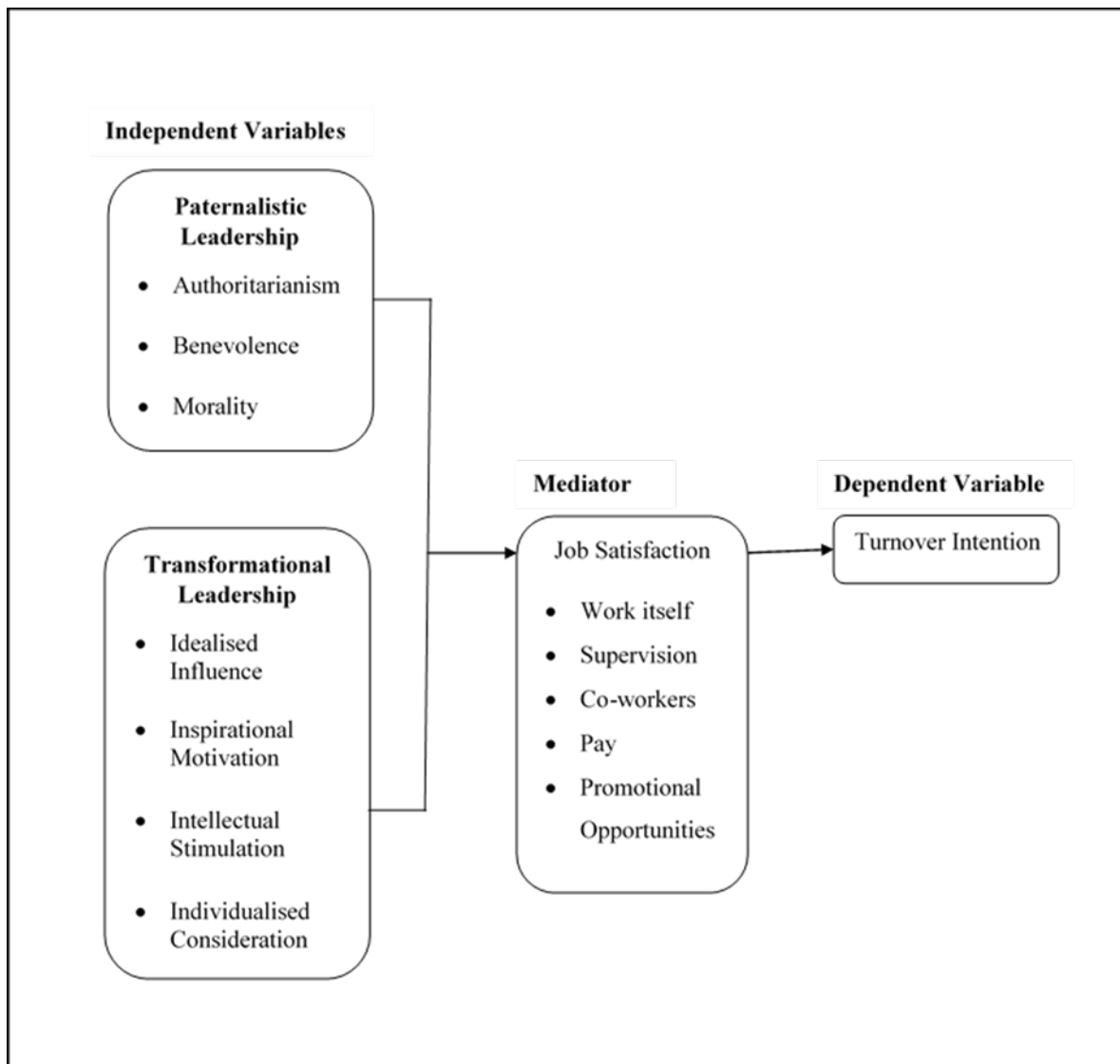
Figure 2.2 The conceptualised relationship between independent and dependent variables with the presence of a mediator

2.11   Description of Variables

2.11.1 Gaps in the Literature and Justification for the Conceptual Framework

This research will examine the influence of two leadership styles, namely transformational and paternalistic leadership on administrative staff's turnover intention in self-accrediting universities in Malaysia, with job satisfaction as a mediator.

The reason for choosing to study the relationship between leadership and employee turnover intention stems from the fact that leaders by virtue of their role have a significant influence on employees' decision to remain in or leave the organisation. Khalid, Pahi and Ahmed (2016) found that effective leadership has a strong positive impact on employee retention. Although several factors affect employees' decision to stay in or leave their jobs, leadership style has been known to have a significant effect on their decisions (Alatawi 2017).

The success of any organisation depends very much on its employees, and more often than not, high employee turnover has negative consequences on the organisation's performance. This is no surprise as loss of talent leads to low productivity and ultimately leading to a negative effect on the organisation's bottom line. Leadership is one of the key factors affecting employee turnover, as it largely determines how the organisation is run, for the better or the worse. In addition, employee turnover often starts with employee turnover intention, since leaving one's job is a rather major decision, which is not decided upon overnight. Leaders therefore play a crucial role in determining employees' turnover intention. In spite of challenging circumstances the organisation may face, good leadership is able to keep employees motivated. On the other hand, even if the company is prospering, bad leadership will result in employees thinking of leaving their jobs.

Leadership style and job satisfaction are recognised in the literature to be among the most powerful influences on employee turnover decisions (Buchanan 2006; Lambert, Lynne Hogan & Barton 2001; Noureen & Abbas 2017; Sakiru et al. 2013; Tett & Meyer 1993b; Van Dick et al. 2004a). The significant role of leadership in reducing employee turnover is attributed to the fact that leaders by virtue of their of their position have a strong influence on employees' decision to remain in or leave the organisation. Khalid, Pahi and Ahmed (2016) found that effective leadership has a significant impact in reducing employee turnover. Job

satisfaction is important to both the organisation and employees. Employees feel motivated when they are satisfied, leading to lower job turnover and higher productivity, along with better profits for the organisation. In contrast, a dissatisfied employee is likely to actively seek alternative opportunities as their actual situation is materially different from what they desire (Aguiar do Monte 2012). In the higher education arena, in both the global and Malaysian context, studies have largely focused on managing academic staff turnover, and there is a dearth of research on non-academic staff (Abouserie 1996; Ibrahim, Kassa & Tasisa 2017; Owence, Pinagase & Mercy 2014; Rosser 2004; Santhapparaj & Alam 2005; Wan Ahmad & Abdurahman 2015; Watanabe & Falci 2016). According to Maassen and Olsen (2007), a robust administration system is the foundation of the success of any higher education institution. Despite the increasingly important roles played by support staff in higher educational institutions, little scholarly attention has been given to them. Their study found that support staff felt their contributions were not recognised in an academic dominated culture.

The crucial role of leadership in an organisation is further underscored by the 21st century's emphasis on knowledge work. Transformational leadership is selected for this study as it is a model of effective leadership, characterised by envisioning, enabling and empowering employees. Leadership today must go beyond the transactional reward-punishment exchange relationship, in which the carrot and stick approach is a key characteristic of transactional leadership. The four universal characteristics of leadership are: simple, variform, functional and systematic (Bass 1997). There is vast and strong evidence showing that transformational leadership is better than transactional leadership, among others, in increasing employee job satisfaction and reducing employee turnover intention (Robbins & Coulter 2012).

Although several studies have that transformational leadership and turnover intention are negatively related to each other, there is still insufficient information on this relationship. Findings from past studies have contradicting conclusions (Alatawi 2017). Certain studies noted an insignificant relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction. This may be attributed to the fact that supervision is just one aspect of employees' jobs. The basic aspects of employee's jobs, such as type of work and working conditions, may be beyond the control of transformational leaders (Judge & Bono 2000). This inconclusiveness warrants further investigation into the relevance and effectiveness of transformational leadership in current organisational settings.

In contrast with the long-standing transformational leadership style, the three-dimensional paternalistic leadership was only fully developed by China researchers in the year 2000, rooted in the Chinese culture. Nevertheless, it remains extremely relevant to modern organisations. This is because leaders today have universal goals: to command, to organise, to influence, to decide and to control. Although paternalistic leadership style is prevalent in businesses in China, very little research has been done on this leadership style even in China itself; hence there is little knowledge about its effects on an organisation (Cheng et al. 2004). The impact of paternalistic leadership on employee work attitudes (e.g. job satisfaction) and job performance has yet to be studied (Cheng et al. 2004). In addition, Pellegrini and Scandura (2008) state there is a need to examine the impact of paternalistic leadership on performance and turnover. In a recent study by Jackson (2016), it was highlighted that there is a huge gap in the literature on paternalism, which has been ignored despite its prevalence in non-Western countries. Much research is required to comprehend the nature of paternalism and positive outcomes from this type of leadership.

In view of Malaysia being a multi-racial Asian country, it will be interesting to investigate the prevalence of this leadership style. In addition, paternalism is very welcomed in high power distance societies (Hakimian et al. 2014). In an organisational context, power distance is the extent to which subordinates accept the unequal power distribution in the organisation. The score for Malaysia is very high, which means people accept the hierarchical structure and leadership is not questioned(Insights 2018). This culture warrants further investigation into paternalistic leadership style. Cheng et al. (2004) also stated that there are similarities between the dimensions of paternalistic leadership and transformational leadership, which was developed in the Western cultural context. Hence, it would be interesting to draw comparisons between the impact of both leadership styles on employee satisfaction and turnover intention. To date, to the best of our knowledge, there has been very few studies conducted in Malaysia that compares paternalistic and transformational leadership among non-academic staff. Overall, studies in the area of human resource management among higher education institutions (HEIs) in Malaysia, in particular universities, have typically been conducted among academic staff (Santhapparaj & Alam 2005; Sirat et al. 2009; Wan Ahmad & Abdurahman 2015). Even globally, recent studies have focused only on academic staff (Hofmann & Strobel 2020; Szromek & Wolniak 2020). Therefore, these findings will provide new contributions to this untapped research area.

The mediator for this study, job satisfaction is considered one of the most accurate predictors of employee turnover intention (Cotton & Tuttle 1986; Lambert, Lynne Hogan & Barton 2001; Meyer, Allen & Smith 1993; Noureen & Abbas 2017; Smith & Shields 2013; Spector 1997; Van Dick et al. 2004a). The dependent variable, turnover intention, is selected rather than actual turnover. According to Harhara, Singh and Hussain (2015), turnover intention is one of the most accurate predictors of turnover, as well as a predecessor of actual employee turnover. According to Alatawi (2017), researchers who utilised actual employee turnover encountered challenges in following up with the individuals who left their organisations. Hence, turnover intention is a more practical measure to be used for research purpose.

The sample selected for this study is universities in Malaysia that have been awarded self-accreditation status. It is a status granted by the Malaysian Qualifications Agency (MQA) to universities that are confirmed to possess a strong internal quality assurance system. In particular, the award of self-accreditation status requires the university to demonstrate existence of a robust internal quality assurance system, which is in accordance with relevant standards and policies set by the Malaysian Ministry of Education (MOE) and MQA (Self-Accreditation, MQA). This recognition empowers the University's Senate to accredit their own programmes, subject to a 5-year institutional maintenance audit from the MQA. In April 2010, four public universities and four foreign universities branch campuses, including Swinburne Sarawak were the first batch of universities to be granted the self-accreditation status. As at 2018, there are 19 universities that have been granted this status. To date, there have been very few or no studies conducted exclusively among self-accrediting universities. Hence, no benchmark data are currently available, which would be helpful to universities to make further improvements in the area of human resource management. The homogeneity of this sample is expected to result in meaningful findings, since all the self-accrediting universities have already been recognised by the MQA to have reached a certain level of performance. The similar qualities among self-accrediting universities are expected to control for other elements that may affect employee turnover intention. With this, the effects of leadership style and job satisfaction on employee turnover intention are expected to yield meaningful and valuable findings. Hence, this research is timely in producing findings that will help the universities make further improvements in the area of human resource management, which may be applicable to both academic and non-academic staff.

On the whole, scarce research exists on leadership in institutions of higher education(Bass 1990), and Malaysia is no exception (Lo, Ramayah & Run 2010). Employees of higher education institutions can be classified into two categories: academic staff, whose responsibility is for the academic matters such as teaching and research; and administrative staff, whose responsibility is playing a support role for teaching and research activities (Küskü 2003). In the global and Malaysian context, the majority of studies on human resource management, including job satisfaction and turnover intention in university setting was conducted only for academic staff (Abouserie 1996; Ibrahim, Kassa & Tasisa 2017; Küskü 2003; Owence, Pinagase & Mercy 2014; Rosser 2004; Santhapparaj & Alam 2005; Wan Ahmad & Abdurahman 2015; Watanabe & Falci 2016). Studies on non-academic staff are sparse (Smerek & Peterson 2007). To date, in Malaysian context, the few studies available include both academic and non-academic staff (Sirat et al. 2009). Despite the increasingly important roles played by non-academic staff in higher educational institutions, little scholarly attention has been given to them; there has been no study solely dedicated to non-academic staff. In line with the study of Küskü (2003), the job nature and expectations for both academic and administrative staff are extremely different, and it does not seem to be rational to evaluate the job satisfaction levels of both groups on the same basis. This shows that a study focusing on non-academic staff in particular is necessary. Non-academic staff have a closer relationship with their supervisors compared with academic staff, as many of their tasks are monitored by their supervisors. On the other hand, academic staff, who spend most of their time teaching students or doing their research, have minimal contact with their supervisors, and their teaching tasks are carried out with high autonomy. Moreover, world-class status is not a result of solely academic staff achievement, but stems from concerted efforts of academic staff, administrative staff and students, all play an equally important role in transforming higher education institutions. A key characteristic of a world-class university is having both plentiful resources as well as human talent, which includes expertise of administrative staff (Jung & Shin 2015). Administrative staff members' roles are expanding to wider scopes, including quality assurance, teaching and research support, financial and infrastructure management and strategic planning. Hence, attracting and retaining competent administrative staff is crucial to the higher education institutions' performance (Jung & Shin 2015). This study therefore fills the research gap by focusing on non-academic staff, who are equally important in ensuring the university's service quality.

2.12 Research Model and Hypotheses Development

The design of this empirical research is based on the research objectives of this study. In accordance with the research model, a set of hypotheses concerning the relationships between the constructs under study are developed. The research hypotheses in this study are as follows.

2.12.1 Paternalistic Leadership and Employee Turnover Intention

According to Göncü Köse, Aycan and Johnson (2014), paternalistic leadership covers hierarchical relationships whereby the leader's roles include providing care, protection, and guidance in both work and personal areas of employee's lives. In return, subordinates are expected to be loyal and respectful towards the leader. Paternalistic leaders are parental figures who protect followers, maximise the group's benefit through a family atmosphere in the workplace, building individualised relationships with subordinates are getting involved in employees' lives beyond work (Göncü Köse, Aycan & Johnson 2014).

On a whole, paternalistic leadership has been largely ignored in leadership studies. This may be attributed to the negative connotations associated with paternalism, especially in the West. Hence studies in Asian countries have followed suit, although this leadership style is actually prevalent in these countries whereby Asian culture is rooted in paternalism (Göncü Köse, Aycan & Johnson 2014; Jackson 2016). Paternalistic leadership may be deemed the "Asian transformational leadership" as it is effective in this cultural context (Göncü Köse, Aycan & Johnson 2014). In view of the negative connotation associated with paternalistic leadership, it is not surprising that the impact of paternalistic leadership on employee work attitudes (e.g. job satisfaction) and job performance has yet to be studied (Cheng et al. 2004). Employees' attitudes towards their jobs are significantly related to employee turnover intention. In addition, Pellegrini and Scandura (2008) state there is a need to examine the impact of paternalistic leadership on performance and turnover.

There are mixed findings on the impact of paternalistic leadership on employees, which ultimately lead to their decision whether to stay or leave their jobs. Some studies have found

that certain aspects of paternalism may have negative outcomes. In line with previous research, Farh et al. (2006) and Hiller et al. (2019) reported that authoritarianism resulted in several negative outcomes: lower organisational commitment, lower satisfaction with supervision, higher turnover intentions and other unwanted workplace behaviours. In addition, their study revealed that fear was positively related to compliance but negatively related to organisational commitment and satisfaction with supervision. This suggests authoritarian leaders may gain compliance from subordinates using fear, but at the expense of relationships, i.e. lower satisfaction with supervision and lower organisational commitment, leading to higher employer turnover intention.

On the other hand, Koo and Park (2018) reported that authoritarianism is not only accepted, but expected in Asian context. Due to high power distance, employees expect clear directions from their leaders for them to follow, which is a key characteristic of paternalistic leadership. As opposed to general presumptions, employees feel sceptical of leaders' capabilities when leaders engage with them for feedback, and this approach is not welcomed by employees. It gives employees the impression that the leader is not able to make a decision. Followers expect leaders to play both an authoritarian and benevolent role, to provide guidance to followers, who will follow their leaders' decisions.

Benevolence demonstrated a strong, positive relationship to gratitude to supervisor; benevolence had positive effects on identification, compliance, satisfaction and commitment, which leads to lower employee turnover intention. However, supervisor positional power must also be taken into account when assessing the impact. A powerful leader's benevolent act may be perceived as a sign of genuine care for subordinates; however, a weak leader's benevolent acts may be perceived as a sign of weakness, and it is not appreciated at all by subordinates. Among the three paternalistic leadership dimensions, morality had the most significant effect on identification, satisfaction with supervision and organisational commitment, which lead to lower employee turnover intention. Unlike benevolent leaders who cultivate personal relationships with subordinates through reciprocity, moral leaders influence subordinates through integrity. Hence, a moral leader can still exert strong influence despite lack of position power (Farh et al. 2006).

Based on the findings of extant literature, the following hypotheses are therefore proposed for this study:

H1: Paternalistic leadership is significantly related to employee turnover intention.

H1a: Paternalistic leadership (benevolence) is significantly related to employee turnover intention.

H1b: Paternalistic leadership (morality) is significantly related to employee turnover intention.

H1c: Paternalistic leadership (authoritarianism) is significantly related to employee turnover intention.

2.12.2 Transformational Leadership and Employee Turnover Intention

Transformational leadership is one of the most popular leadership styles in Western context, and is argued to be the ideal leadership style by several scholars, in spite of different cultural contexts. The key characteristics of transformational leaders are those who provide motivation to their followers to go beyond their own interest, and leaders who possess ability to exert a strong influence on their followers via individualised consideration, idealised influence, inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation (Göncü Köse, Aycan & Johnson 2014).

There is vast and strong evidence showing that transformational leadership has a strong relationship with lower turnover rates and higher levels of productivity, employee satisfaction, creativity, goal attainment, follower well-being, and corporate entrepreneurship (Robbins & Coulter 2012).

According to the first study done by Bass (1985), transformational leaders have a positive impact on their employees' job satisfaction, particularly satisfaction with their leaders. The leader makes each employee feel special (through individualised consideration) and gives

them motivation to achieve their full potential (through idealised influence and inspirational motivation). As a result, employee turnover intention is reduced. Several other studies have also reported a significant positive relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction (Berson & Linton 2005; Bono & Judge 2003; Nemanich & Keller 2007; Podsakoff, Mackenzie & Bommer 1996). In view of the significant influence of leaders in determining an individual's overall job satisfaction, many studies have focused mainly on satisfaction with the leader; they have consistently found that transformational leaders have the strongest positive influence on followers' job satisfaction in comparison with other leadership styles (Bass 1990; Bycio, Hackett & Allen 1995; Dunham-Taylor 1995; Koh, Steers & Terborg 1995; Yammarino & Bass 1990). The positive impact of transformational leadership in generating higher satisfaction levels among employees has been consistently supported by over two decades of research. High satisfaction levels then lead to lower employee turnover intention (Walumbwa et al. 2005).

In addition, existing studies have investigated the direct impact of transformational leadership on employee turnover intention. Existing research shows strong evidence that transformational leaders reduce their followers' intention to quit. Transformational leaders equip employees with the ability to remain loyal to the organisation and pull through in difficult circumstances. This stems from encouragement given to employees to overcome obstacles and remain effective in their work. Alatawi (2017) found that transformational leadership had a negative relationship with employees' turnover intention.

Dupré and Day (2007) found that transformational leaders had a significant positive impact on employee job satisfaction, which led to lower turnover intention. Employees who felt supported by their leaders found purpose in their jobs, and were less inclined to leave the organisation. According to Bass (2006, p. 36), effective transformational leaders decrease followers' intentions to quit by demonstrating that "the goals and values of the group, follower, leader and organization" are in alignment with one another. Hence, the followers are less likely to quit as they regard the leader as a facilitator to achieve their personal goals, which are congruent with that of the organisation. Moreover, followers who receive individual consideration from the leader feel their needs are met and will likely remain in the organisation. Similarly, Krishnan (2005) found a significant negative relationship between transformational leadership and subordinate's intention to quit.

In particular, a transformational leader who exhibits idealised influence (i.e. charisma) creates a desire among followers be identified with the leader; this motivates followers to remain in the organisation so long as the leader is there (Shamir, House & Arthur 1993). Transformational leaders also "use inspirational motivation to build emotional commitment to a mission or goal" (Bass 2006, p. 36). This emotional commitment may cause followers to desire remaining in the organisation. On the same note, Hughes, Avey and Nixon (2010) reported that leaders who engaged in transformational leadership significantly reduced followers' intention to quit.

Based on the findings of extant literature, the following hypotheses are therefore proposed for this study:

H2: Transformational leadership is significantly related to employee turnover intention.

H2a: Transformational leadership (inspirational motivation) is significantly related to employee turnover intention.

H2b: Transformational leadership (idealised influence) is significantly related to employee turnover intention.

H2c: Transformational leadership (intellectual stimulation) is significantly related to employee turnover intention.

H2d: Transformational leadership (individualised consideration) is significantly related to employee turnover intention.

2.12.3 Leadership Style and Employee Turnover Intention with Job Satisfaction as a Mediator

Several theories posit that employees who dislike their jobs will shun them, either permanently by quitting or temporarily through absenteeism or arriving late. The key motivation for these withdrawal behaviours is job satisfaction. This suggests high level of job

satisfaction has a negative relationship with employee turnover intention (Spector 1997). Turnover may be caused by a combination of factors: negative job attitudes, low job satisfaction, along with ability to secure employment elsewhere, i.e. the employment market conditions. It is worth noting that turnover is part and parcel of an organisation's operations. While extremely high levels of turnover could be costly, a certain level of turnover is typical and benefits an organisation (Armstrong 2006).

Ivancevich, Gibson and Konopaske (2011) found a moderate correlation between job satisfaction and turnover intention. On a similar note, George (2012) reported a weak-to-moderate negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention; high job satisfaction results in low turnover intention. The reason for this range in the relationship strength is because satisfaction is not the ultimate determinant of turnover. It holds true that satisfied employees have lower likelihood of quitting than dissatisfied employees. However, some dissatisfied employees never leave, and even satisfied employees may switch to another organisation in the future. According to Bill Mobley's turnover process model, the entire turnover process is triggered by job satisfaction. Highly satisfied employees may never even consider quitting; on the other hand, dissatisfied employees immediately start considering quitting. In the case of job dissatisfaction, an individual assesses the costs of leaving versus the benefits of the new job. The costs may cover employee benefits tied to seniority such as pension plans, job security. Based on the evaluation, the employee develops an intention to quit or stay, which results in turnover behaviour. It is clear that other factors also play a role in determining actual turnover; unless the benefits of the new job outweigh the costs of leaving, dissatisfied employees will still remain in the organisation. Similar perspective is shared by Tae Heon et al. (2008) whose study states that job dissatisfaction is not the only cause of turnover. It is recognised that even satisfied employees may eventually leave due to other reasons (e.g. better job offers, family reasons) and that dissatisfied employees may never quit.

Nevertheless, the literature has also shown job satisfaction as one of the factors with significant impact on employee turnover intention. According to Lambert, Lynne Hogan and Barton (2001, p. 246), job satisfaction measures are "the most informative data a manager or researcher can have for predicting employee behaviour." Past research has shown consistent relationship between high levels of job dissatisfaction and employee withdrawal, specifically voluntary turnover. Lambert and colleagues' study found that job satisfaction had the largest

direct impact on turnover intention compared with availability of alternative employment opportunities, financial rewards, tenure and age. This point is further supported by a study by Van Dick et al. (2004b), which stated that job satisfaction may be the most widely researched predictor of turnover. Job satisfaction has a significant direct influence on the most crucial attitude towards the organisation, which is intention to stay or leave. This attitude was found to be a strong predictor of actual turnover behaviour. Furthermore, turnover intention is largely influenced by job satisfaction, and typically deemed a "push" factor (Tae Heon et al. 2008). Earlier studies by Cotton and Tuttle (1986) and Tett and Meyer (1993) validate job satisfaction as a significant predictor of turnover intention. Employees who are highly satisfied have lower levels of turnover intention. According to Smith and Shields (2013), job satisfaction is a major concern for organisations as low job satisfaction is one of the main reasons for employee turnover. Job satisfaction is a predictor of both turnover intent and actual turnover. A recent study by Noureen and Abbas (2017) found a strong negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention.

Based on the above-mentioned findings, it is evident that the relationship between leadership styles and employee turnover intention can be enhanced when employees possess high job satisfaction. Consequently, the following hypotheses are formulated:

H3: Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee turnover intention.

H3a: Job satisfaction (work itself) mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee turnover intention.

H3b: Job satisfaction (supervision) mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee turnover intention.

H3c: Job satisfaction (co-workers) mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee turnover intention.

H3d: Job satisfaction (pay) mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee turnover intention.

H3e: Job satisfaction (promotional opportunities) mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee turnover intention.

H4: Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee turnover intention.

H4a: Job satisfaction (work itself) mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee turnover intention.

H4b: Job satisfaction (supervision) mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee turnover intention.

H4c: Job satisfaction (co-workers) mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee turnover intention.

H4d: Job satisfaction (pay) mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee turnover intention.

H4e: Job satisfaction (promotional opportunities) mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee turnover intention.

2.13 Conclusion

This chapter has provided an overview of the existing literature on leadership, including its impact on job satisfaction and employee turnover intention. The importance of job satisfaction in affecting employee turnover intention has also been discussed, considering it is used as a mediator in this study. The underlying theories that support the motivation for studying the interplay between these variables are also discussed. Based on the literature, it is evident that leadership and job satisfaction have a significant impact on employee turnover intention. In addition, turnover intention has been found to be a valid predictor of actual employee turnover.

There have been inconsistent results among researchers concerning the influence of demographic factors, including age, gender, education level and tenure on employees' turnover intention. For example, some studies found that gender, age and education level have a significant impact on employee turnover intention (Akova, Cetin & Cifci 2015; Wöcke & Heymann 2012). Meanwhile, Sibiya et al. (2014) found that education level is not a significant predictor of employee turnover intention. In addition, a recent study by Dechawatanapaisal (2018) found that demographic variables, including gender, age and tenure were not significantly related to employee turnover intention. Based on the foregoing, due to inconclusive findings in the literature, demographic variables are not considered as significant variables affecting non-academic staff's turnover intention in this study.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter describes the methodology used in the present study on the relationship between leadership styles and non-academic staff's turnover intention in self-accrediting universities in Malaysia. This chapter develops the quantitative measurement of the influence of paternalistic and transformational leadership styles on non-academic staff's turnover intention, taking into consideration the potential effects of job satisfaction as the mediator. This chapter consists of five sections. First, the research design, population, and sample are presented. These are followed by descriptions of the research instruments and data collection procedures. Finally, the techniques employed for statistical analyses are discussed.

3.1 Research Design

The key purpose of this study is to test the relationships between leadership styles and employee turnover intention, using job satisfaction as a mediator, based on a series of theoretically justified research hypotheses. To achieve the research objectives, quantitative research approach was selected as all data required were suitable to be collected through an online survey. Data are generated in quantitative form, which are then tested with multiple quantitative analyses techniques. Quantitative research design have these characteristics: experimental, correlational and descriptive. Relationships between variables are quantified using statistics and form the basis for hypothesis testing (Sahu 2013).

Research design is generally guided by a research process of different activities to achieve the researcher's objective. The 11 steps are: (1) Identification and conceptualisation of problem; (2) Purpose of study; (3) Survey of literature; (4) Selection of the problem; (5) Objectives of the study; (6) Variables/parameters to be included in the study to fulfil the objectives; (7) Selection of hypothesis; (8) Selection of samples; (9) Operationalisation of concepts and optimisation/ standardisation of the research instruments; (10) Collection of information; (11) Processing, tabulation, and analysis of information (Sahu 2013). These steps are covered

throughout this study, and this chapter focuses on the research methods employed to collect the data required for achievement of the research objectives.

3.1.1 Population and Sample

According to Sahu (2013), a population is a collection of well-defined objects (entities). The observations or entities could include persons, plants, animals, and objects (nut bolts, books etc.). An individual member of the population is called element or unit of the population. The population in this study comprised 23,622 (based on respective universities' self-generated statistics in 2019) full-time non-academic staff across various position rankings, in 11 universities that have been granted the self-accreditation status by the MQA. The population consists of assistants, officers, executives, assistant managers, managers, senior managers, assistant directors, directors and other full-time non-academic positions that do not fall into the above-mentioned categories. Part-time non-academic staff were excluded from the study, who may not bear as much attachment to their jobs compared with full-time staff. This is attributed to part-time staff's limited involvement in their jobs while full-time staff have a more holistic view of their jobs and working environment. Part-time staff are also likely to rate their supervisors' leadership style less accurately than full-time staff due to less interaction with their supervisors (Levanoni & Sales 1990). The purpose is also to streamline the types of feedback received, as part-time and full-time staff's work goals may be incongruent with one another. Some studies revealed that part-time staff exhibited lower levels of job involvement compared with full-time staff (Levanoni & Sales 1990).

Self-accrediting universities, in this study, are defined as universities that have been awarded self-accreditation status by the MQA. It is a status granted by the MQA to universities that are confirmed to possess a strong internal quality assurance system. This recognition empowers the University's Senate to accredit their own programmes, subject to a 5-year institutional maintenance audit from the MQA. In April 2010, four foreign branch campus universities and four public universities were the first batch of universities to be granted the self-accreditation status. As at 2018, there are 19 universities that have been granted this status. However, only 11 universities agreed to participate in the study. The contact details of

the university non-academic staff who were to form the study population were obtained from the respective universities' official websites. Where the contact details were not publicly available, assistance was sought from the university to distribute the survey. The names of the 11 participating self-accrediting universities and their respective full-time non-academic staff population are listed in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Population of non-academic staff in self-accrediting universities in Malaysia

No.	University	No. of Full-Time Non-Academic Staff
1.	International Medical University (IMU)	382
2.	Multimedia University (MMU)	625
3.	Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak Campus	180
4.	University of Malaya	3608
5.	Universiti Putra Malaysia	3926
6.	Universiti Sains Malaysia	7948
7.	Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM)	3329
8.	Universiti Teknologi Petronas (UTP)	540
9.	Universiti Tenaga Nasional (UNITEN)	581
10.	Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman (UTAR)	761
11.	Universiti Utara Malaysia	1742
TOTAL		**23622**

Source: Data generated by the respective self-accrediting universities as at July 2019

3.1.1.1 Sample

The quantitative approach used in this study is in the form of inferential approach. In this approach, survey or observations are derived from a sample to ascertain the relationships and features that exist in this sample. The sample characteristics are then used to infer and make conclusions about the population behaviour, on the same relationships and features of the sample. This method is used as it is often not practical to study the whole population (Sahu 2013). In this study, conclusions were drawn based on a sample derived among the non-

academic staff population in self-accrediting universities in Malaysia. The population of 23,622 was too large to test every single member of the targeted population.

The sample of this study, comprising full-time non-academic staff in self-accrediting universities in Malaysia, was selected through probability sampling. This approach is discussed in the next section.

3.1.1.2 Sampling Method

Two main methods of drawing samples are probability sampling and non-probability sampling. Selection of the method depends on the population. Choosing the right sampling method is crucial as the nature of the samples has a crucial role in data analysis, particularly in ensuring it is representative of the population characteristics (Sahu 2013).

The population in this study consists of full-time non-academic staff across various position rankings, in 11 universities that have been granted the self-accreditation status by the MQA. According to the National Statistics Department, 14.6 million (45.4 percent) of Malaysians are aged between 15 and 39 (Hamid 2019).They account for the majority of the population, and those of working age (minimum 18 years) make up the largest group in the workforce (Times 2018). Hence, this study employs stratified random sampling, whereby members of the population were divided into five sampling strata by age group as shown in Table 4.1. The targeted percentage of respondents for the 31-40 age group was at least 60 percent, which is in proportion to the working population statistics, since they formed the majority of the workforce. Meanwhile, the other four age groups would make up the remaining 40 percent of the respondents.

Probability sampling is commonly employed by researchers to ensure that samples are truly representative of the population, since each member has an equal chance of being selected. Probability sampling therefore can help to minimise sampling error, which is linked with poorly representative samples (El-Masri 2017). Samples which are chosen using probability sampling method are therefore more representative of the target population (Elfil & Negida 2017).

3.1.2 Sampling Rationale

The present study uses self-accrediting universities in Malaysia as the research context to determine how different leadership styles practised by supervisors of non-academic staff, affect non-academic staff's turnover intention. The mediator in this relationship is job satisfaction. The key reason for choosing self-accrediting universities is to provide homogeneity in the sample, since all self-accrediting universities have undergone rigorous screening before being recognised by the MQA to have reached a certain level of performance, leading to award of the self-accreditation status. The similar qualities among self-accrediting universities are expected to control for other elements that may affect employee turnover intention. With this, the effects of leadership style and job satisfaction on employee turnover intention are expected to yield meaningful and valuable findings. In addition, to date, there has been few or no studies conducted exclusively among self-accrediting universities; hence, no benchmark data are currently available, which would be helpful to universities to make further improvements in the area of human resource management. Moreover, despite the increasingly important roles played by non-academic staff in higher educational institutions, little scholarly attention has been given to them. Non-academic staff have a closer relationship with their supervisors compared with academic staff, as many of their tasks are monitored by their supervisors. On the other hand, academic staff, who spend most of their time teaching students or doing their research, have minimal contact with their supervisors, and their teaching tasks are carried out with high autonomy.

3.1.3 Sample Size

The sample size of a sample is the number of elements or units that makes up the sample. It is determined by a number of factors: (1) purpose and study scope; (2) nature of population and sampling unit; (3) sampling method and estimation procedure employed; (4) variability structure in population; (5) time and cost component structure; and (6) population size (Sahu 2013). The sample size employed in multiple regression is of paramount importance as it is the most impactful element that the researcher can control in designing the analysis. Sample size will also affect generalisability of the result to the population. The ideal sample size is between 15 to 20 observations for each independent variable (Hair 2010).

This study uses the formula developed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970) for calculating the required minimum sample size based on the confidence level needed from the targeted population. This method is commonly employed in research. The calculation is as shown below.

$$s = \frac{X^2\ NP(1-P)}{d^2\ (N\text{-}1) + X^2\ P(1\text{-}P)} \qquad \text{where}$$

s = required sample size

X^2 = the table value of chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level (3.841)

N = the population size

P = the population proportion (assumed to be 0.50 since this would provide the maximum sample size)

d = the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion (0.05)

$$s = \frac{3.841\ (23{,}622)(0.50)(1\text{-}0.5)}{0.05^2\ (23{,}622\text{-}1) + 3.841(0.5)(1\text{-}0.5)}$$

$$= \quad 378$$

3.2 Research Instruments

The primary research instrument used in this study is a questionnaire that measures non-academic staff's perceptions of the leadership styles used by their supervisors; satisfaction with their jobs; and their turnover intention. This survey method is deemed the best fit for this study as it allows participants to remain anonymous. Participants may be uncomfortable with sharing their views if they are required to identify themselves, as they may not want their responses to be known to their supervisors. The questionnaire used in this study was developed after a detailed review of the relevant literature on leadership styles, job satisfaction and employee turnover intention. A pilot study was conducted among six non-academic staff from various position levels at the researcher's university. The questions were then revised based on their feedback to improve the clarity of the questions in the questionnaire. The final version of the questionnaire was then translated into the Malay

language and back-translated into English. It was necessary to have a Malay version of the questionnaire to cater to the respondents who are well versed with the Malay language.

The questionnaire consists of 89 items, and is divided into 4 sections measuring the theoretical constructs discussed in Chapter Two. The sections are (1) demographic characteristics; (2) leadership styles; (3) job satisfaction; and (4) turnover intention. The measurement scales were adapted from previously validated instruments (Avolio & Bass 2004; Beehr et al. 2006; Cammann et al. 1979; Cheng et al. 2004; Roodt 2004). The transformational leadership scale items were derived from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Avolio & Bass 2004). The MLQ is the most popular instrument to measure transformational leadership theory, and it is deemed as the best validated measure (Kirkbride 2006). Confirmatory factory analyses at the item level revealed that the MLQ adequately captures the full leadership factor constructs of transformational leadership theory (Muenjohn & Armstrong 2008). The paternalistic leadership scale items were derived from the three-dimensional Paternalistic Leadership scale by Cheng et al. (2004). The Paternalistic Leadership scale was found to have both excellent construct validity and internal consistency (Cheng et al. 2004). The job satisfaction scale items were derived from the Facet Satisfaction Scale (FSS) by Beehr et al. (2006). Bowling, Wagner and Beehr (2017) conducted four studies and found that all the FSS scale items had high levels of internal consistency, test-retest reliability and construct validity. The turnover intention scale items were derived from the Turnover Intention Scale (TIS) by Roodt (2004). Bothma and Roodt (2013b) conducted a study to test the reliability, along with its factorial, criterion-predictive and differential validity of the TIS. According to Bothma and Roodt (2013b), the TIS was found to be a reliable and valid tool to measure the turnover intention construct and to validly predict actual turnover behaviour. Hence, it is suitable to be used in academic research to validly and reliably measure turnover intention or predict actual turnover (Bothma & Roodt 2013b).

Although all the measurement scales have been well validated for use in this study, it was still necessary to modify several scale items for clarity and to suit the context of the present study. The number of items in each scale is as follows: leadership styles (48); job satisfaction (18); and turnover intention (14). Responses to leadership styles, job satisfaction and turnover intention scale items were recorded using a seven-point Likert scale with (1) being "Strongly disagree; (2) being "Disagree"; (3) being "Slightly disagree"; (4) being "Neither agree or disagree"; (5) being "Slightly agree; (6) being "Agree"; and (7) being "Strongly agree". There are 1 reverse-coded leadership style scale item and 6 reverse-coded job satisfaction scale items, with (1) being "Strongly agree"; (2) being "Agree"; (3) being "Slight agree"; (4) being "Neither agree or disagree"; (5) being "Slightly disagree"; (6) being "Disagree"; and (7) being "Strongly disagree".

Table 3.2 Theoretical constructs and the number of questionnaire items

Section	Constructs	Dimensions	Sources	No. of Items	Rating Scale
1	**Demographic Characteristics**			**9**	
2	**Leadership Styles**			**48**	
		Transformational Leadership	Avolio and Bass (2004)	20	1= Strongly disagree and 7=Strongly agree
		Paternalistic Leadership	Cheng et al. (2004)	28	Reverse-coded: 1=Strongly agree and 7=Strongly disagree
3	**Job Satisfaction**			**18**	
		Work Itself	Beehr et al. (2006)	3	1= Strongly disagree and 7=Strongly agree
		Supervision	Beehr et al. (2006)	3	
		Co-Workers	Beehr et al. (2006)	3	Reverse-coded: 1=Strongly agree and 7=Strongly disagree
		Salary	Beehr et al. (2006)	3	
		Promotional Opportunities	Beehr et al. (2006)	3	
		Overall job satisfaction	Cammann et al. (1979)	3	
4	**Turnover Intention**		Roodt (2004)	**14**	1= Strongly disagree and 7=Strongly agree

3.2.1 Demographic Characteristics

9 items were developed to collect respondent profile and demographic information. These items were related to (1) university name; (2) respondent's gender; (3) respondent's age; (4) respondent's employment status at the university; (5) supervisor's gender; (6) respondent's current position at the university; (7) respondent's duration of employment; (8) respondent's educational level; and (9) respondent's current salary at the university.

3.2.2 Leadership Styles

The survey instrument included 48 items to measure non-academic staff's perceptions of their immediate supervisor's leadership styles. 20 items measuring transformational leadership were adapted from the most recent version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 5X (Avolio & Bass 2004), which is most popularly used to measure transformational leadership. The scale items selected measure the dimensions of transformational leadership, namely (1) idealised influence (attribute); (2) idealised influence (behaviour); (3) inspirational motivation; (4) intellectual stimulation; and (5) individualised consideration. 28 items measuring paternalistic leadership were adapted from the most recent version of the paternalistic leadership survey tool by Cheng et al. (2004), as this is the most fine-tuned version, which has been revised and improved based on earlier versions. The paternalistic leadership scales consist of 3 dimensions, namely (1) benevolent leadership; (2) moral leadership; and (3) authoritarian leadership. Examples of items related to leadership styles are (1) My supervisor never takes revenge when someone has done something wrong to him/ her at the workplace; (2) My supervisor always puts priority on maintaining peace and harmony in the workplace; (3) My supervisor expresses confidence that goals will be achieved; (4) My supervisor talks about my most important values and beliefs; and (5) My supervisor seeks different perspectives when solving problems.

3.2.3 Job Satisfaction

The survey instrument included 18 items to measure non-academic staff's level of job satisfaction. 15 items were adapted from a job satisfaction scale developed by Beehr et al. (2006) to measure satisfaction with (1) work itself; (2) supervision; (3) co-workers; (4)

salary; and (5) promotional opportunities. Bowling, Wagner and Beehr (2017), who conducted a comprehensive study to establish the validity of this scale named it the Facet Satisfaction Scale (FSS) as it assesses an employee's attitude towards specific aspects of his or her job. Meanwhile, the 3 items in the Job Satisfaction Subscale of the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (MOAQ) by Cammann et al. (1979) is used to measure overall job satisfaction. Examples of items related to job satisfaction are (1) I am satisfied with the types of work I do in my job; (2) I would be more satisfied with my job if I had a different supervisor; (3) Overall, I am satisfied with my co-workers; (4) I am satisfied with my salary; and (5) I general, I like working here.

3.2.4 Turnover Intention

The survey instrument included 14 items to measure non-academic staff's turnover intention. The purpose of the measurements is to find out the extent to which respondents intend to stay with the university based on their feelings towards their jobs in the past 9 months. The items were adapted from the Turnover Intention Scale by Roodt (2004), which is used for assessing employees' intentions of either staying with or leaving an organisation. The survey instrument has been confirmed by various researchers to be a valid and reliable measure to assess turnover intention and to predict actual turnover behaviour (Bothma & Roodt 2013a). Examples of items related to turnover intention are (1) I have often considered leaving my job; (2) I find my job is satisfying in fulfilling my personal needs; (3) My personal values at work are often compromised; (4) I often dream about getting another job that will better suit my personal needs; and (5) I often dislike going to work.

3.3 Data Collection Procedures

Prior to commencement of data collection, approval was obtained from the Swinburne Human Research Ethics Committee (SUHREC). An online survey was then created using SurveyMonkey, which is well established and commonly used for research purposes. Approval was duly obtained from the relevant universities prior to emailing the survey link to the non-academic staff. Following the approval, electronic mail (email) was then used to distribute the survey link, to the non-academic staff in 11 self-accrediting universities. Completion of the questionnaire was considered as consent for inclusion in the study, as respondents were informed on the survey anonymity and confidentiality at the beginning of the survey. They could also opt out of the questionnaire at any point in time. Each respondent was given approximately 3 to 4 weeks to complete the questionnaire.

To maximise the response rate, the researcher sent a follow-up email to all targeted respondents a week before the survey deadline. Since the survey is anonymous, the researcher is unable to trace the identity of respondents who completed the survey. Hence, the follow-up email is sent to all targeted respondents, regardless whether they have completed the survey or not. At the end of the 12-week distribution period, a total of 428 questionnaires were duly completed out of all the questionnaires distributed via email.

3.4 Overview of Statistical Analysis Techniques

The research plan for this study included a process for analysing the collected data, which is described in the following sections. The first step was to screen the collected data sets for outliers by using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 24.0 software. There was no missing data as the forced-answer approach was used in the online survey. Respondents were prevented from going to the next questions if they did not answer a particular question. The next step was to conduct the normality assessment of the data distribution. The data were then analysed in the following order. First, the demographic characteristics of the respondents were analysed using descriptive statistics. Next, a number of tests were conducted in SPSS Version 24 to examine if the model used in this study met the seven assumptions of multiple linear regression and goodness-of-fit measure. Finally, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was applied to examine the hypothesised relationship between the variables.

3.4.1 Data Screening

The data sets were screened for univariate and multivariate outliers, which are extreme values, unusually high or low, which make the data sets evidently different from others (Hair 2010). According to Tabachnick (2007), a univariate outlier can be identified by computing the standardised values (i.e. Z scores) for all cases at once, followed by examining each variable in order to spot individual case(s) with extreme values. Each univariate outlier was treated by increasing its case value by one unit (Tabachnick 2007).

Multivariate outliers refer to cases with an unusual combination of values on more than two variables (Tabachnick 2007). These outliers were identified by computing the Mahalanobis distance with a p<0.01 criterion for all cases. Next, the critical Chi-square value at the alpha level 0.001 was obtained by using the number of independent variables as the degrees of freedom (Tabachnick 2007). Cases with Mahalanobis distance greater than the critical Chi-square value (Tabachnick 2007) were considered as multivariate outliers and deleted from the data set. Following the screening of the data for outliers, 13 cases were discarded, resulting in a final total of 415 usable data sets.

3.4.2 Normality Assessment

According to Hair (2010), kurtosis refers to the height of the distribution, in terms of "peakedness" or "flatness" of the distribution when compared with the normal distribution. Distributions that are taller or more peaked than the normal distribution are called *leptokurtic,* while a distribution that is flatter is called *platykurtic.* Meanwhile, skewness refers to the balance of the distribution; that is, is it unbalanced and shifted to one side (right or left) or is it centred and symmetrical with roughly the same shape on both sides? If a distribution is unbalanced, it is skewed. A positively skewed distribution has relatively few large values and tails off to the right, and a negatively skewed distribution has relatively few small values and tails off to the left. The skewness and kurtosis of a normal distribution are given values of zero (Hair 2010). As a rule of thumb, both skewness and kurtosis should not exceed an absolute value of 1. Distribution normality was further assessed through visual inspection of the normal probability plot, which compares the standardised residual with the normal distribution. Analysis of skewness and kurtosis values for each independent variable revealed

that all were below one. Visual inspection of the probability plots further indicated that the distribution of data for each independent variable was normal.

3.4.3 Descriptive Analysis

The background information of respondents was presented through descriptive statistics such as mean, standard deviations, frequencies and percentages. These statistics are employed to summarise, organise and simplify presentation of data, so it is more manageable (Gravetter 2013).

3.4.4 Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis

Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was applied in this study to examine the effects of the mediator, namely job satisfaction on the relationship between leadership styles and turnover intention. This procedure allows simultaneous testing of the effects of two or more independent variables on single, interval-scaled dependent variables. It is useful to determine the effect of each variable added as the regression models are built (Gelman, Gelman & Hill 2007).

Hierarchical multiple regression analysis is a sequential process involving the entry of predictor (independent) variables into the analysis in steps by the researcher based on theory and previous research. This method is suitable when the variance in a criterion (dependent) variable is explained by a correlated predictor variable (Lewis 2007). In this present study, there are clear relationships between the independent and dependent variables, which makes this method suitable.

Job satisfaction was examined, through a series of regression analysis steps, as a potential mediator between the paternalistic and transformational leadership styles and turnover intention. In the first step, leadership style variables were entered into the regression equation to determine their influence on the dependent variable, turnover intention. In the second step, the five dimensions of job satisfaction, namely work itself, supervision, co-workers, pay, and promotional opportunities, were entered into the regression equation. This enabled the researcher to examine the impact of the job satisfaction variables on the dependent variable,

controlling for the leadership style variables. In the third step, the interaction effects of job satisfaction variables and leadership style variables were entered.

The roles of job satisfaction as a mediator of the relationship between leadership styles and turnover intention were tested based on the mediated regression approach by Baron and Kenny (1986), which is the most well-known procedure for testing the mediation effect. They stated that a variable is a mediator to the extent that it accounts for the relationships between a predictor and a dependent variable. In this study, leadership style variables were the predictors while the turnover intention variable was the dependent variable.

The mediation effects of job satisfaction were tested by estimating three separate regression equations. In the first equation, the mediator variable was regressed onto the predictor variable. In the second equation, the dependent variable was regressed onto the predictor variable. Finally, in the third equation, the dependent variable was simultaneously regressed with the predictor and the mediator variable.

The purpose of these regression equations is to determine whether the predictor and mediator variables meet any of the four conditions proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986) for demonstrating the mediating effect of the mediator. The first condition states that the predictor should be significantly related to the mediator. Second, the predictor should be significantly related to the dependent variable. Third, the mediator should be significantly related to the dependent variable. Fourth, the effect of the predictor in the third equation is reduced or turned non-significant as compared to its effect on the dependent variable in the second equation.

If all four conditions are met, then it can be concluded that there is a mediation of the relationship between the predictor and dependent variables. Full mediation is achieved when the effect of the predictor is significant in equation two but not significant in equation three when the mediator is controlled for. Partial mediation is when the effect of the predictor in equation three is less than equation two, but is still significant (Baron & Kenny 1986).

It is noted that certain authors have cautioned against the use of Baron and Kenny's mediation theory. For example, Zhao, Lynch Jr and Chen (2010) questioned the technical aspects of the Baron-Kenny procedure in terms of the mediation analysis method. They also

stated that the misapplication of Baron-Kenny procedure caused researchers to drop promising projects due to data not conforming to one or more of the Baron-Kenny criteria. In spite of this, Zhao, Lynch Jr and Chen (2010) still acknowledged the popularity of the Baron-Kenny procedure, which means its validity is still upheld among researchers. Moreover, it was suitable to be used in this study to test the mediation effect.

3.4.5 Conclusion

In summary, this chapter has presented the methodology employed in this study and the process of data collection and data analysis. Information regarding the sample size, sampling method, instrument construction, data collection procedures and measurement methods were discussed. In addition, the procedures and data analysis techniques, as well as tests used to verify hypotheses were also discussed. The following chapter presents the data analysis results and attempts to test the research hypotheses.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.0 Introduction

The previous chapter has described the methodology used to test the hypotheses of the thesis. It also provided the basis for testing the hypotheses. This chapter discusses the findings of the main study.

The relationship of paternalistic and transformational leadership styles with non-academic staff's turnover intention is examined, with the presence of job satisfaction as the mediator. The structure of this chapter is as follows. The chapter begins with a description of the demographic characteristics of the respondents and the assumption testings done to ensure the model is suitable for this study. This is followed by the statistical tests and results used to examine the 17 hypotheses of this study, including testing the direct relationship of paternalistic and transformational leadership styles with turnover intention, and the indirect impact of the mediator on the relationships. Finally, the chapter provides a summary of the data analysis, which provides the basis for discussion in the following chapter.

4.1 General Characteristics of the Respondents

4.1.1 Sample Size

The invitation emails with the survey link were sent out via email to the non-academic staff members in 11 self-accrediting universities in Malaysia. The questionnaire, which was in the form of an online survey, allowed respondents to remain anonymous; consequently, no individual follow up was possible since respondents' completion of the survey was to remain confidential. 428 complete questionnaires were returned. There were no incomplete questionnaires as the forced-answer approach was used in the online survey. Respondents were prevented from going to the next questions if they did not answer a particular question. Following the screening of the data for outliers, 13 cases were discarded, resulting in a final total of 415 usable data sets.

The list of 11 self-accrediting universities in Malaysia that participated in the survey are as follows:

1. University of Malaya
2. Universiti Sains Malaysia
3. Universiti Putra Malaysia
4. Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM)
5. International Medical University (IMU)
6. Universiti Teknologi Petronas (UTP)
7. Universiti Utara Malaysia
8. Universiti Tenaga Nasional (UNITEN)
9. Multimedia University (MMU)
10. Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman (UTAR)
11. Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak Campus

4.1.2 Respondent Profile

Table 4.1 The demographic characteristics of study respondents (N=415)

Demographic Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	149	35.9
	Female	266	64.1
Age (in years)	18-30	95	22.9
	31-40	202	48.7
	41-50	84	20.2
	51-60	32	7.7
	More than 60	2	0.5
Employment status	Permanent/ Tenured	367	88.4
	Fixed term/ Full-time contract	48	11.6
Job position	Assistant	108	26
	Officer	125	30.1
	Executive	72	17.3
	Assistant Manager	58	14

Demographic Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage
	Manager	23	5.5
	Senior Manager	13	3.1
	Assistant Director	5	1.2
	Director	11	2.7
Length of employment (in years)	Less than 1	34	8.2
	1-5	107	25.8
	6-10	106	25.5
	11-15	100	24.1
	16-20	33	8
	More than 20	35	8.4
Highest education level	SPM	24	5.8
	STPM	9	2.2
	Diploma	81	19.5
	Bachelor's Degree	199	48.0
	Master's Degree	90	21.7
	PhD	7	1.7
	Others	5	1.2
Salary (RM)	Below 5,000	285	68.7
	5,000-10,000	107	25.8
	10,001-15,000	18	4.3
	15,001-20,000	5	1.2

Demographic characteristics of the respondents are reported in Table 4.3. It shows the number of female (64.1 percent) respondents is significantly more than male (35.9 percent) respondents. Most of the respondents were within the age groups of 31-40 years (48.7 percent), followed by 18-30 years (22.9 percent) and reflects a young non-academic staff population in self-accrediting universities in Malaysia. In particular, these two groups (71.6 percent) are known as Generation-Y or millennials, which are individuals born in the 1978 up to the 1990s (Haughn 2019). The majority of respondents have a permanent employment status (88.4 percent), while 11.6 percent are employed on a contractual (full-time) basis. Almost three-quarters of respondents hold non-management positions, comprising Assistant (26 percent), Officer (30.1 percent) and Executive (17.3 percent). The remaining respondents in management positions are Assistant Manager (14 percent), Manager (5.5 percent), Senior Manager (3.1 percent), Assistant Director (1.2 percent) and Director (2.7 percent). The top three categories for respondents' length of employment in their current university are 1-5 years (25.8 percent), 6-10 years (25.5 percent) and 11-15 years (24.1 percent). Nearly half of the respondents hold a Bachelor's Degree (48 percent), followed by Master's Degree (21.7 percent) and Diploma (19.5 percent). The majority of respondents receive a salary of below RM5,000 (68.7 percent), which corresponds to the composition of respondents, who are mostly holding non-management positions.

4.2 Assumption Testing

Multiple regression is a suitable analysis technique for a research problem involving one metric dependent variable presumed to have a relationship with at least two metric independent variables. Multiple regression analysis aims to predict the changes in the dependent variable in response to changes in the independent variables. This objective is typically attained through the statistical rule of least squares. The fundamental question that needs to be answered is: are the assumptions of regression analysis met in the course of calculating the regression coefficients and predicting the dependent variable? It is crucial to meet the assumptions of regression analysis to ensure that the results generated are accurate and are truly representative of the sample (Hair 2010). A number of tests as detailed below are therefore conducted in SPSS Version 24 to examine if the model used in this study meets the seven assumptions of multiple linear regression and goodness-of-fit measure.

4.2.1 Sample Size

According to Hair (2010), sample size has the ability to increase statistical power by reducing sampling error. Consequently, larger sample sizes reduce the detrimental effects of non-normality. In small samples of 50 or fewer observations, and especially if the sample size is less than 30 or so, significant non-normal data can have a large impact on the results. For sample sizes of 200 or more, however, these same effects are possibly negligible. Moreover, when group comparisons are made, such as in the analysis of variance test (ANOVA), the differing sample sizes between groups, if large enough, can even cancel out the detrimental effects. Thus, in most instances, as the sample sizes become large, the researcher can be less concerned about non-normal variables, except as they might be an indicator that other assumptions are violated, which will still have impact on the overall data reliability (Hair 2010).

Hair (2010) further states that the sample size should preferably be 100 or larger. As a general rule, the minimum is to have at least five times as many observations as the number of variables to be analysed, and the more acceptable sample size would have a 10:1 ratio. Some researchers even suggest a minimum of 20 cases for each variable. This study has a total of 4 variables (paternalistic leadership, transformational leadership, job satisfaction, turnover intention) and a sample size of 415. This is considered a good sample size, which has 103 observations for each variable.

4.2.2 Normality Assessment

According to Hair (2010), the use of normal probability plots is recommended in examining if the independent and dependent variables have a normal distribution. Normal probability plot is defined as a "graphical comparison of the shape of the sample distribution to the normal distribution. In the graph, the normal distribution is represented by a straight line angled at 45 degrees. The actual distribution is plotted against this line, so any differences are shown as deviations from the straight line, making identification of differences quite simple" (Hair 2010, p. 154). The normal distribution is represented by a straight diagonal line, and the plotted residuals are compared with the diagonal line. If a distribution is normal, the residual line closely follows the diagonal line (Hair 2010).
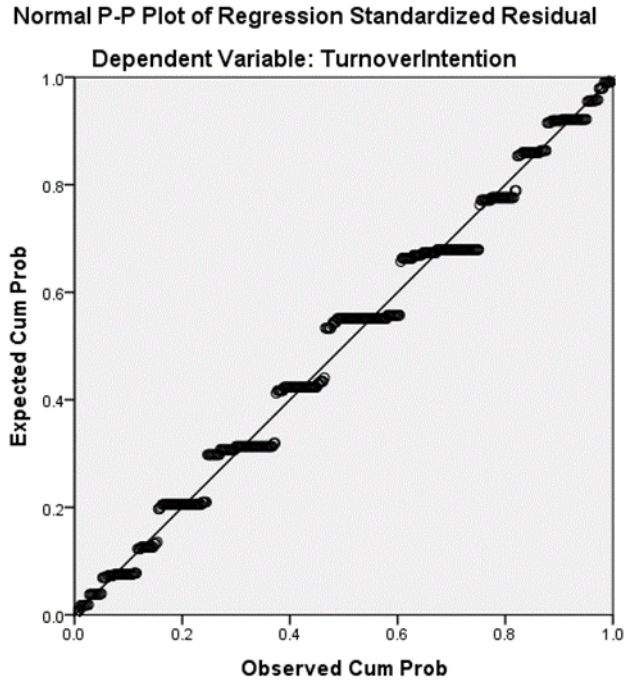
Figure 4.1 Normal probability plot

Based on the normal probability plot generated from SPSS as shown in Figure 4.1, it is observed that the existing points are generally close to the diagonal line. Hence, it can be concluded that the residual values are normally distributed and the normality assumption is fulfilled.

4.2.3 Linearity, Homoscedasticity and Normality of Residuals

Linearity is defined as the "term used to express the concept that the model possesses the properties of additivity and homogeneity. In a simple sense, linear models predict values that fall in a straight line by having a constant unit change (slope) of the dependent variable for a constant unit change of the independent variable" (Hair 2010, p. 154). In addition, "The linearity of the relationship between dependent and independent variables represents the degree to which the change in the dependent variable is associated with the independent variable. The regression coefficient is constant across the range of values for the independent variable. The concept of correlation is based on a linear relationship, thus making it a critical issue in regression analysis. Linearity of any bivariate relationship is easily examined through residual plots (Hair 2010, p. 179)."
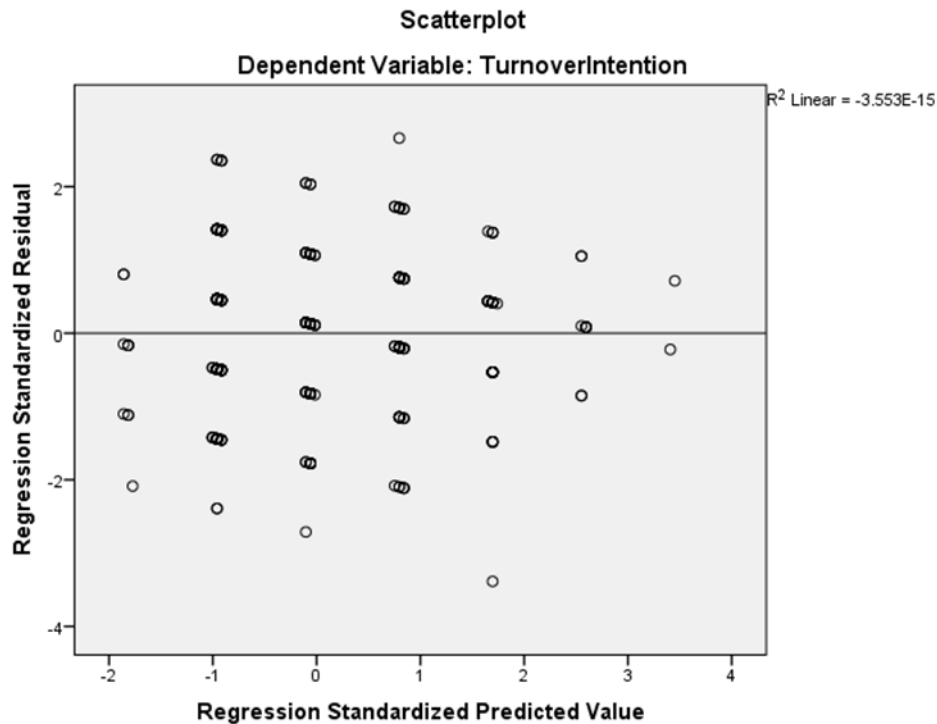
Figure 4.2 Scatterplot of dependent variable

The above scatterplot in Figure 4.2 shows an equal distribution of both positive and negative residual values. The points are scattered with no concentration of points at any specific value. This supports the linearity assumption.

The assumption of homoscedasticity is concerned with the equal distribution of the residuals across values of the independent variables. This assumption is examined by plotting the predicted values and residuals on a scatterplot (Hair 2010). Based on the above scatterplot, the equal distribution of the residual values indicate that the variances of the residual values are constant. Hence, the homoscedasticity and normality of residuals assumptions are met.

4.2.4 Multicollinearity

According to Hair (2010), collinearity is the relationship, measured as the correlation, between two independent variables. Multicollinearity refers to the correlation between three or more independent variables (evidenced when one is regressed against the others).

Although these two concepts are distinctly different in statistical terms, these two terms are commonly used interchangeably.

The presence of multicollinearity reduces any single independent variable's predictive power by the extent to which it is related to the other independent variables. An increase in collinearity results in a decrease in the unique variance explained by each independent variable. Consequently, the shared prediction percentage increases, and the overall prediction increases significantly slower when independent variables with high multicollinearity are added. This is because this shared prediction only counts once. Hence, the multicollinearity assumption is met when the independent variables have low multicollinearity with one another, while still having high correlations with the dependent variable (Hair 2010).

According to Hair (2010), the most straightforward way of detecting collinearity is to examine the correlation matrix for the independent variables. The presence of high correlations (generally 0.90 and higher) is the first indication of substantial collinearity. The Pearson correlation analysis results show that there are no collinearity issues as the collinearity value for the two independent variables, paternalistic and transformational leadership is 0.744 (<0.90). Moreover, the independent variables have a significant correlation with the dependent variable, turnover intention as well as the mediating variable, job satisfaction. All these characteristics are evidence that the multicollinearity assumption is met.

Table 4.2 Pearson correlation analysis for the study model

	Paternalistic	Transformational
Turnover intention	-0.257** (0.000)	-0.352** (0.000)
Job satisfaction	0.467** (0.000)	0.496** (0.000)
Paternalistic	1	0.744
Transformational	0.744	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

4.2.5 Multivariate outliers

Table 4.3 Cook's distance in this study model

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Cook's Distance	0.000	0.058	0.002	0.005	415

According to Hair (2010), outliers are observations with a unique combination of characteristics, making them distinctly different from the other observations. These differences can occur on a single variable (univariate outlier), a relationship between two variables (bivariate outlier), or across an entire set of variables (multivariate outlier). The Cook's Distance measure is used to identify influential outliers in a set of

observations. Higher Cook D's value indicates greater influence. The generally accepted rule of thumb is that Cook's D values above 1.0 indicate influential values (*Multiple Regression Residual Analysis and Outliers* 2019). In this study, the Cook D's values generated by SPSS are between 0.000 and 0.058. As these values are well below 1.0, this indicates the data set does not contain any outliers that need to be removed from the data. Hence, the data are deemed reliable and fit for purpose.

4.2.6 Goodness-of-fit measure

Hair (2010, p. 152) defines coefficient of determination as the "measure of the proportion of the variance of the dependent variable about its mean that is explained by the independent or predictor variables. The coefficient can vary between 0 (no relationship) and 1 (perfect relationship)." The value can also be either positive or negative, depending on whether it is a positive or negative relationship. In evaluating goodness-of-fit with the coefficient of determination (R^2), the adjusted R^2 value should be used, which makes up for lower degrees of freedom. Higher values denote a better fit and better prediction of the dependent variable (Hair 2010).

Table 4.4 Adjusted R square values in this study model

Model	Adjusted R Square
1	0.120
2	0.330

Model 1: Predictors (Constant), Transformational, Paternalistic; Dependent Variable-turnover intention

Model 2: Predictors (Constant), Transformational, Paternalistic, Satisfaction; Dependent Variable-turnover intention

The results show that 12 percent of variance in the dependent variable, turnover intention can be explained by transformational and paternalistic leadership styles. With the presence of job satisfaction, 33 percent of variance in the dependent variable, turnover intention can be explained by both the leadership styles and job satisfaction. This indicates the significance of job satisfaction as a mediator in strengthening the relationship between the independent variables and dependent variable. Another measure of goodness-of-fit is the F statistic in the ANOVA test. The null hypothesis states that the straight line is horizontal and the slope is zero. The larger the value of F, the further the departure from the null hypothesis, and the more likely the slope is significantly further away from zero ('Linear regression - goodness-of-fit' 2005). The results in this study show a statistically significant relationship ($p<0.01$), which indicate that the model meets the goodness-of-fit measure.

Table 4.5 F statistic values in this study model

	F	Significance
Model 1	29.134	0.000
Model 2	68.866	0.000

Model 1: Predictors (Constant), Transformational, Paternalistic; Dependent Variable-turnover intention

Model 2: Predictors (Constant), Transformational, Paternalistic, Satisfaction; Dependent Variable-turnover intention

4.3 Multiple Regression Analysis

Multiple Regression Analysis was employed to examine the relationship between the independent and dependent variables, with the presence of a mediator. The test involved examining the relationship between the three dimensions of paternalistic leadership (benevolence, morality and authoritarianism) and turnover intention, along with each of the five dimensions of the mediator, job satisfaction (work itself; supervision; co-workers; pay; and promotional opportunities). The same test was then conducted to examine the relationship between the four dimensions of transformational leadership (inspirational motivation; idealised influence; intellectual stimulation; and individualised consideration)

and turnover intention, along with each of the five dimensions of the mediator, job satisfaction (work itself; supervision; co-workers; pay; and promotional opportunities).

In this study, the statistical method employed to test the proposed hypotheses is null hypothesis significance testing (NHST), which is commonly used in several disciplines, including social sciences. The null hypothesis states there is no effect or relationship based on a given observation (Pernet 2015). The key objective of the multiple regression test is then to determine the results that differ from the null hypothesis, which states there is no effect. If there is a significant effect or relationship, the proposed hypothesis is accepted; and if there is no significant effect or relationship, the proposed hypothesis is rejected since the null hypothesis (H0) holds true.

4.3.1 Hypotheses for Relationship between Paternalistic Leadership and Turnover Intention with Job Satisfaction as a Mediator

The following hypotheses are tested to determine if a significant relationship exists between paternalistic and turnover intention with job satisfaction as a mediator.

H1: Paternalistic leadership is significantly related to employee turnover intention.

H1a: Paternalistic leadership (benevolence) is significantly related to employee turnover intention.

H1b: Paternalistic leadership (morality) is significantly related to employee turnover intention.

H1c: Paternalistic leadership (authoritarianism) is significantly related to employee turnover intention.

H3: Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee turnover intention.

H3a: Job satisfaction (work itself) mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee turnover intention.

H3b: Job satisfaction (supervision) mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee turnover intention.

H3c: Job satisfaction (co-workers) mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee turnover intention.

H3d: Job satisfaction (pay) mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee turnover intention.

H3e: Job satisfaction (promotional opportunities) mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee turnover intention.

4.3.2 Relationship between Paternalistic Leadership and Turnover Intention

Table 4.6 shows the multiple regression results for the relationship between paternalistic leadership as a whole and turnover intention, with the presence of job satisfaction as a whole. Paternalistic leadership as a whole was found to be a predictor of turnover intention. However, further examination into each of the three dimensions individually is warranted to identify the contribution of each dimension as a predictor of turnover intention. Meanwhile, the mediator, job satisfaction as a whole is a strong predictor of turnover intention. Similarly, further examination into each of the five dimensions is warranted to identify the contribution of each dimension as a predictor of turnover intention in relation to paternalistic leadership. The negative figures imply an inverse relationship with turnover intention, i.e. the presence of paternalistic leadership and job satisfaction is expected to decrease turnover intention.

Table 4.6 Relationship between paternalistic leadership and turnover intention, with the presence of job satisfaction

Independent Variable	Std Beta Step 1	Std Beta Step 2
Model Variable		
Paternalistic	-0.257**	
Mediating Variable		
Job satisfaction		-0.571**
R^2	0.066	0.321
Adjusted R^2	0.064	0.317
R^2 Change	0.066	0.255
F Value	29.125**	97.251**
Durbin Watson	1.986	

**p<0.05

Table 4.7 shows the multiple regression results for the relationship between paternalistic leadership (benevolence, morality, authoritarianism) and turnover intention, with the presence of job satisfaction (work itself).

Table 4.7 Relationship between paternalistic leadership (benevolence, morality, authoritarianism) and turnover intention, with the presence of job satisfaction (work itself).

Independent Variable	Std Beta Step 1	Std Beta Step 2
Model Variables		
Benevolence	-0.281**	
Morality	-0.104*	
Authoritarianism	0.043	
Mediating Variable		
Job satisfaction-Work Itself		-0.319**
R^2	0.134	0.226
Adjusted R^2	0.128	0.218
R^2 Change	0.134	0.092
F Value	21.198**	29.901**
Durbin Watson	1.831	

**p<0.05, *p<0.1

Paternalistic leadership (benevolence and morality) were found to be predictors of turnover intention. The negative values imply that benevolence and morality have an inverse relationship with turnover intention (i.e. reduces turnover intention). Meanwhile, paternalistic leadership (authoritarianism) was not found to be a predictor of turnover intention. The mediating variable, job satisfaction (work itself) was found to be a predictor of turnover intention ($\beta = -0.319$, $p < 0.000$). The negative value implies that satisfaction with work itself has an inverse relationship with turnover intention (i.e. reduces turnover intention).

Table 4.8 shows the multiple regression results for the relationship between paternalistic leadership (benevolence, morality, authoritarianism) and turnover intention, with the presence of job satisfaction (supervision).

Table 4.8 Relationship between paternalistic leadership (benevolence, morality, authoritarianism) and turnover intention, with the presence of job satisfaction (supervision)

Independent Variable	Std Beta Step 1	Std Beta Step 2
Model Variables		
Benevolence	-0.281**	
Morality	-0.104*	
Authoritarianism	0.043	
Mediating Variable		
Job satisfaction-Supervision		-0.328**
R^2	0.134	0.184
Adjusted R^2	0.128	0.176
R^2 Change	0.134	0.050
F Value	21.198**	23.042**
Durbin Watson	1.777	

**p<0.05, *p<0.1

The mediating variable, job satisfaction (supervision) was found to be a predictor of turnover intention ($\beta = -0.328$, $p < 0.000$). The negative value implies that satisfaction with supervision has an inverse relationship with turnover intention (i.e. reduces turnover intention).

Table 4.9 shows the multiple regression results for the relationship between paternalistic leadership (benevolence, morality, authoritarianism) and turnover intention, with the presence of job satisfaction (co-workers).

Table 4.9 Relationship between paternalistic leadership (benevolence, morality, authoritarianism) and turnover intention, with the presence of job satisfaction (co-workers)

Independent Variable	Std Beta Step 1	Std Beta Step 2
Model Variables		
Benevolence	-0.281**	
Morality	-0.104*	
Authoritarianism	0.043	
Mediating Variable		
Job satisfaction-Co-workers		-0.179**
R^2	0.134	0.165
Adjusted R^2	0.128	0.157
R^2 Change	0.134	0.031
F Value	21.198**	20.219**
Durbin Watson	1.796	

**p<0.05, *p<0.1

The mediating variable, job satisfaction (co-workers) was found to be a predictor of turnover intention (β = -0.179, p < 0.000). The negative value implies that satisfaction with co-workers has an inverse relationship with turnover intention (i.e. reduces turnover intention).

Table 4.10 shows the multiple regression results for the relationship between paternalistic leadership (benevolence, morality, authoritarianism) and turnover intention, with the presence of job satisfaction (pay).

Table 4.10 Relationship between paternalistic leadership (benevolence, morality, authoritarianism) and turnover intention, with the presence of job satisfaction (pay)

Independent Variable	Std Beta Step 1	Std Beta Step 2
Model Variables		
Benevolence	-0.281**	
Morality	-0.104*	

	0.043	
Authoritarianism	0.043	
Mediating Variable		
Job satisfaction-Pay		-0.184**
R^2	0.134	0.167
Adjusted R^2	0.128	0.158
R^2 Change	0.134	0.033
F Value	21.198**	20.487**
Durbin Watson	1.828	

**p<0.05, *p<0.1

The mediating variable, job satisfaction (pay) was found to be a predictor of turnover intention (β = -0.184, p < 0.000). The negative value implies that satisfaction with pay has an inverse relationship with turnover intention (i.e. reduces turnover intention).

Table 4.11 shows the multiple regression results for the relationship between paternalistic leadership (benevolence, morality, authoritarianism) and turnover intention, with the presence of job satisfaction (promotional opportunities).

Table 4.11 Relationship between paternalistic leadership (benevolence, morality, authoritarianism) and turnover intention, with the presence of job satisfaction (promotional opportunities)

Independent Variable	Std Beta Step 1	Std Beta Step 2
Model Variables		
Benevolence	-0.281**	
Morality	-0.104*	
Authoritarianism	0.043	
Mediating Variable		
Job satisfaction-Promotional Opportunities		-0.185**
R^2	0.134	0.166
Adjusted R^2	0.128	0.158
R^2 Change	0.134	0.032
F Value	21.198**	20.393**
Durbin Watson		

**p<0.05, *p<0.1

The mediating variable, job satisfaction (promotional opportunities) was found to be a predictor of turnover intention (β = -0.185, p < 0.000). The negative value implies that satisfaction with promotional opportunities has an inverse relationship with turnover intention (i.e. reduces turnover intention).

4.3.3 Relationship between Paternalistic Leadership, Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention

A mediating variable is an example of a third variable, in addition to the independent and dependent variables. The mediating variable explains the relationship sequence whereby the mediator transmits the effect of the independent variable to the dependent variable (Mackinnon 2011). In this study, the independent variable, paternalistic leadership style causes the mediator, job satisfaction; and job satisfaction causes turnover intention.

The Pearson correlation analysis result shows that the independent variable, paternalistic leadership has a significant correlation with the mediator, job satisfaction (p<0.000). The above-mentioned results from multiple regression analysis also show that job satisfaction has a significant correlation with the dependent variable, turnover intention. Finally, the amount of variance in the dependent variable, turnover intention that is explained by the model increases when job satisfaction is added to the model. These results evidence that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and turnover intention.

Complete mediation occurs when the total effect is completely explained by the mediator, that is, the independent variable has no direct effect on the dependent variable. Partial mediation occurs when the relation between the independent and the dependent variable is not completely explained by the mediating variable (Mackinnon 2011). In this study, job satisfaction partially mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and turnover intention. The results show that paternalistic leadership has a direct effect on turnover intention, whereby 6.4 percent of variance in turnover intention can be explained by paternalistic leadership. Nevertheless, the presence of job satisfaction strengthens the relationship, whereby 31.7 percent of variance in turnover intention can be explained by both paternalistic leadership and job satisfaction.

Model	Adjusted R Square	Table 4.12 Adjusted R square values for paternalistic leadership
1	0.064	
2	0.317	

Model 1: Predictor (Constant), Paternalistic; Dependent Variable-turnover intention

Model 2: Predictors (Constant), Paternalistic, Satisfaction; Dependent Variable-turnover intention

4.3.4 Hypotheses for Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Turnover Intention with Job Satisfaction as a Mediator

The following hypotheses are tested to determine if a significant relationship exists between paternalistic and turnover intention with job satisfaction as a mediator.

H2: Transformational leadership is significantly related to employee turnover intention.

H2a: Transformational leadership (inspirational motivation) is significantly related to employee turnover intention.

H2b: Transformational leadership (idealised influence) is significantly related to employee turnover intention.

H2c: Transformational leadership (intellectual stimulation) is significantly related to employee turnover intention.

H2d: Transformational leadership (individualised consideration) is significantly related to employee turnover intention.

H4: Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee turnover intention.

H4a: Job satisfaction (work itself) mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee turnover intention.

H4b: Job satisfaction (supervision) mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee turnover intention.

H4c: Job satisfaction (co-workers) mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee turnover intention.

H4d: Job satisfaction (pay) mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee turnover intention.

H4e: Job satisfaction (promotional opportunities) mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee turnover intention.

4.3.5 Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Turnover Intention

Table 4.13 shows the multiple regression results for the relationship between transformational leadership as a whole and turnover intention, with the presence of job satisfaction as a whole. Transformational leadership as a whole was found to be a predictor of turnover intention. However, further examination into each of the four dimensions individually is warranted to identify the contribution of each dimension as a predictor of turnover intention in relation to transformational leadership. Meanwhile, the mediator, job satisfaction as a whole is a strong predictor of turnover intention. Similarly, further examination into each of the five dimensions is warranted to identify the contribution of each dimension as a predictor of turnover intention. The negative figures imply an inverse relationship with turnover intention, i.e. the presence of transformational leadership and job satisfaction is expected to decrease turnover intention.

Table 4.13 Relationship between transformational leadership and turnover intention, with the presence of job satisfaction

Independent Variable	Std Beta Step 1	Std Beta Step 2
Model Variable		
Transformational	-0.352**	
Mediating Variable		
Job satisfaction		-0.520**
R^2	0.124	0.327
Adjusted R^2	0.122	0.324
R^2 Change	0.124	0.203
F Value	58.377**	100.222**
Durbin Watson	1.985	

**p<0.05

Table 4.14 shows the multiple regression results for the relationship between transformational leadership (inspirational motivation; idealised influence-behaviours and attributes; intellectual stimulation; and individualised consideration) and turnover intention, with the presence of job satisfaction (work itself).

Table 4.14 Relationship between transformational leadership (inspirational motivation; idealised influence-behaviours and attributes; intellectual stimulation; and individualised consideration) and turnover intention, with the presence of job satisfaction (work itself)

Independent Variable	Std Beta Step 1	Std Beta Step 2
Model Variables		
Inspirational Motivation	-0.128*	
Idealised Influence-Behaviours and Attributes	-0.083	
Intellectual Stimulation	-0.062	
Individualised Consideration	-0.090	
Mediating Variable		
Job satisfaction-Work Itself		-0.312**
R^2	0.100	0.188
Adjusted R^2	0.092	0.178
R^2 Change	0.100	0.087
F Value	11.446**	18.907**
Durbin Watson	1.782	

**p<0.05, *p<0.1

Only transformational leadership (inspirational motivation) was found to be a predictor of turnover intention. The negative value implies that inspirational motivation has an inverse relationship with turnover intention (i.e. reduces turnover intention). Meanwhile, transformational leadership (idealised influence-behaviours and attributes; intellectual stimulation; and individualised consideration) were not found to be predictors of turnover intention. The mediating variable, job satisfaction (work itself) was found to be a predictor of turnover intention (β = -0.312, p < 0.000). The negative value implies that satisfaction with work itself has an inverse relationship with turnover intention (i.e. reduces turnover intention).

Table 4.15 shows the multiple regression results for the relationship between transformational leadership (inspirational motivation; idealised influence-behaviours and attributes; intellectual stimulation; and individualised consideration) and turnover intention, with the presence of job satisfaction (supervision).

Table 4.15 Relationship between transformational leadership (inspirational motivation; idealised influence-behaviours and attributes; intellectual stimulation; and individualised consideration) and turnover intention, with the presence of job satisfaction (supervision)

Independent Variable	Std Beta Step 1	Std Beta Step 2
Model Variables		
Inspirational Motivation	-0.128*	
Idealised Influence-Behaviours and Attributes	-0.083	
Intellectual Stimulation	-0.062	
Individualised Consideration	-0.090	
Mediating Variable		
Job satisfaction-Supervision		-0.375**
R^2	0.100	0.182
Adjusted R^2	0.092	0.172
R^2 Change	0.100	0.081
F Value	11.446**	18.159**
Durbin Watson	1.772	

**p<0.05, *p<0.1

The mediating variable, job satisfaction (supervision) was found to be a predictor of turnover intention (β = -0.375, p < 0.000). The negative value implies that satisfaction with supervision has an inverse relationship with turnover intention (i.e. reduces turnover intention).

Table 4.16 shows the multiple regression results for the relationship between transformational leadership (inspirational motivation; idealised influence-behaviours and attributes; intellectual stimulation; and individualised consideration) and turnover intention, with the presence of job satisfaction (supervision).

Table 4.16 Relationship between transformational leadership (inspirational motivation; idealised influence-behaviours and attributes; intellectual stimulation; and individualised consideration) and turnover intention, with the presence of job satisfaction (co-workers)

Independent Variable	Std Beta Step 1	Std Beta Step 2
Model Variables		
Inspirational Motivation	-0.128*	
Idealised Influence-Behaviours and Attributes	-0.083	
Intellectual Stimulation	-0.062	
Individualised Consideration	-0.090	
Mediating Variable		
Job satisfaction-Co-workers		-0.192**
R^2	0.100	0.136
Adjusted R^2	0.092	0.125
R^2 Change	0.100	0.035
F Value	11.446**	12.853**
Durbin Watson	1.778	

**p<0.05, *p<0.1

The mediating variable, job satisfaction (co-workers) was found to be a predictor of turnover intention (β = -0.192, p < 0.000). The negative value implies that satisfaction with co-workers has an inverse relationship with turnover intention (i.e. reduces turnover intention).

Table 4.17 shows the multiple regression results for the relationship between paternalistic leadership (benevolence, morality, authoritarianism) and turnover intention, with the presence of job satisfaction (pay).

Table 4.17 Relationship between transformational leadership (inspirational motivation; idealised influence-behaviours and attributes; intellectual stimulation; and individualised consideration) and turnover intention, with the presence of job satisfaction (pay)

Independent Variable	Std Beta Step 1	Std Beta Step 2
Model Variables		
Inspirational Motivation	-0.128*	
Idealised Influence-Behaviours and Attributes	-0.083	
Intellectual Stimulation	-0.062	
Individualised Consideration	-0.090	
Mediating Variable		
Job satisfaction-Pay		-0.195**
R^2	0.100	0.138
Adjusted R^2	0.092	0.127
R^2 Change	0.100	0.037
F Value	11.446**	13.085**
Durbin Watson	1.797	

**p<0.05, *p<0.1

The mediating variable, job satisfaction (pay) was found to be a predictor of turnover intention (β = -0.195, $p < 0.000$). The negative value implies that satisfaction with pay has an inverse relationship with turnover intention (i.e. reduces turnover intention).

Table 4.18 shows the multiple regression results for the relationship between transformational leadership (inspirational motivation; idealised influence-behaviours and attributes; intellectual stimulation; and individualised consideration) and turnover intention, with the presence of job satisfaction (promotional opportunities).

Table 4.18 Relationship between transformational leadership (inspirational motivation; idealised influence-behaviours and attributes; intellectual stimulation; and individualised consideration) and turnover intention, with the presence of job satisfaction (promotional opportunities)

Independent Variable	Std Beta Step 1	Std Beta Step 2
Model Variables		
Inspirational Motivation	-0.128*	
Idealised Influence	-0.083	
Intellectual Stimulation	-0.062	
Individualised Consideration	-0.090	
Mediating Variable		
Job satisfaction-Promotional Opportunities		-0.198**
R^2	0.100	0.137
Adjusted R^2	0.092	0.127
R^2 Change	0.100	0.037
F Value	11.446**	13.029**
Durbin Watson	1.826	

**p<0.05, *p<0.1

The mediating variable, job satisfaction (promotional opportunities) was found to be a predictor of turnover intention (β = -0.198, p < 0.000). The negative value implies that satisfaction with promotional opportunities has an inverse relationship with turnover intention (i.e. reduces turnover intention).

4.3.6 Relationship between Transformational Leadership, Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention

In this study, the independent variable, transformational leadership style causes the mediator, job satisfaction; and job satisfaction causes turnover intention.

The Pearson correlation analysis result shows that the independent variable, transformational leadership has a significant correlation with the mediator, job satisfaction (p<0.000). The above-mentioned results from multiple regression analysis also show that job satisfaction has a significant correlation with the dependent variable, turnover intention. Finally, the amount

of variance in the dependent variable, turnover intention that is explained by the model increases when job satisfaction is added to the model. These results evidence that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and turnover intention.

Complete mediation occurs when the total effect is completely explained by the mediator, that is, the independent variable has no direct effect on the dependent variable. Partial mediation occurs when the relation between the independent and the dependent variable is not completely explained by the mediating variable (Mackinnon 2011). In this study, job satisfaction partially mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and turnover intention. The results show that transformational leadership has a direct effect on turnover intention, whereby 12.2 percent of variance in turnover intention can be explained by transformational leadership. Nevertheless, the presence of job satisfaction strengthens the relationship, whereby 32.4 percent of variance in turnover intention can be explained by both transformational leadership and job satisfaction.

Table 4.19 Adjusted R square values for transformational leadership

Model	Adjusted R Square
1	0.122
2	0.324

Model 1: Predictor (Constant), Transformational; Dependent Variable-turnover intention
Model 2: Predictors (Constant), Transformational, Satisfaction; Dependent Variable-turnover intention

4.4 Bootstrapping

Bootstrapping, a nonparametric resampling procedure, has been recognised as one of the more rigorous and powerful methods for testing mediating effect (Hayes 2009). Bootstrapping was conducted in this study in addition to the mediated regression approach by Baron and Kenny (1986). All the five dimensions of job satisfaction were found to be a mediator in the relationship for both paternalistic and transformational leadership with turnover intention. These results are consistent with the mediation results using the mediate regression approach.

4.4.1 Mediating Effect of Job Satisfaction for the Relationship between Paternalistic Leadership and Turnover Intention

Table 4.20 Mediating effect of job satisfaction (work itself)

Input Variable	Outcome Variable	Output
Paternalistic Leadership	Work itself	**0.3675
Paternalistic Leadership (with work itself)	Turnover intention	**-0.2089
Paternalistic Leadership (without work itself)	Turnover intention	**-0.3828
Work itself	Turnover intention	**-0.4731

**p<0.05, *p<0.1

Indirect effect= -0.1739

BootLLCI= -0.2404
Boot ULCI= -0.1146

The bootstrapping analysis showed that the indirect effect = -0.1739 was significant (p≤ 0.05) at 95% confidence level. Also, the 95% Bootstrap Confidence Interval (CI) does not straddle a 0 in between (LL= -0.2404, UL= -0.1146) indicates that there is a mediation. Thus, the results provide support for the indirect effect of paternalistic leadership on turnover intention via work itself. In juxtaposition with the significant direct relationship between paternalistic leadership and turnover intention, we can conclude that it is a partial mediation.

Table 4.21 Mediating effect of job satisfaction (supervision)

Input Variable	Outcome Variable	Output
Paternalistic Leadership	Supervision	**1.1613
Paternalistic Leadership (with supervision)	Turnover intention	0.0739
Paternalistic Leadership (without supervision)	Turnover intention	**-0.3828
Supervision	Turnover intention	**-0.3933

**p<0.05, *p<0.1

Indirect effect= -0.4567

BootLLCI= -0.5855
BootULCI= -0.3374

The bootstrapping analysis showed that the indirect effect = -0.4567 was significant (p≤ 0.05) at 95% confidence level. Also, the 95% Bootstrap Confidence Interval (CI) does not straddle a 0 in between (LL= -0.5855, UL= -0.3374) indicates that there is a mediation. Thus, the results provide support for the indirect effect of paternalistic leadership on turnover intention

via supervision. In juxtaposition with the significant direct relationship between paternalistic leadership and turnover intention, we can conclude that it is a partial mediation.

Table 4.22 Mediating effect of job satisfaction (co-workers)

Input Variable	Outcome Variable	Output
Paternalistic Leadership	Co-workers	**0.3147
Paternalistic Leadership (with co-workers)	Turnover intention	**-0.3018
Paternalistic Leadership (without co-workers)	Turnover intention	**-0.3828
Co-workers	Turnover intention	**-0.2572

**$p<0.05$, *$p<0.1$

Indirect effect= -0.0809

BootLLCI= -0.1413
BootULCI= -0.0341

The bootstrapping analysis showed that the indirect effect = -0.0809 was significant ($p \leq 0.05$) at 95% confidence level. Also, the 95% Bootstrap Confidence Interval (CI) does not straddle a 0 in between (LL= -0.1413, UL= -0.0341) indicates that there is a mediation. Thus, the results provide support for the indirect effect of paternalistic leadership on turnover intention via co-workers. In juxtaposition with the significant direct relationship between paternalistic leadership and turnover intention, we can conclude that it is a partial mediation.

Table 4.23 Mediating effect of job satisfaction (pay)

Input Variable	Outcome Variable	Output
Paternalistic Leadership	Pay	**0.3634
Paternalistic Leadership (with pay)	Turnover intention	**-0.3000
Paternalistic Leadership (without pay)	Turnover intention	**-0.3828
Pay	Turnover intention	**-0.2279

**$p<0.05$, *$p<0.1$

Indirect effect= -0.0828

BootLLCI= -0.1343
BootULCI= -0.0394

The bootstrapping analysis showed that the indirect effect= -0.0828 was significant ($p \leq 0.05$) at 95% confidence level. Also, the 95% Bootstrap Confidence Interval (CI) does not straddle a 0 in between (LL= -0.1343, UL= -0.0394) indicates that there is a mediation. Thus, the

results provide support for the indirect effect of paternalistic leadership on turnover intention via pay. In juxtaposition with the significant direct relationship between paternalistic leadership and turnover intention, we can conclude that it is a partial mediation.

Table 4.24 Mediating effect of job satisfaction (promotional opportunities)

Input Variable	Outcome Variable	Output
Paternalistic Leadership	Promotional opportunities	**0.6631
Paternalistic Leadership (with promotional opportunities	Turnover intention	**-0.2042
Paternalistic Leadership (without promotional opportunities)	Turnover intention	**-0.3828
Promotional opportunities	Turnover intention	**-0.2693

**$p<0.05$, *$p<0.1$

Indirect effect= -0.1786

BootLLCI= -0.2516
BootULCI= -0.1152

The bootstrapping analysis showed that the indirect effect= -0.1786 was significant ($p \leq 0.05$) at 95% confidence level. Also, the 95% Bootstrap Confidence Interval (CI) does not straddle a 0 in between (LL= -0.2516, UL= -0.1152) indicates that there is a mediation. Thus, the results provide support for the indirect effect of paternalistic leadership on turnover intention via promotional opportunities. In juxtaposition with the significant direct relationship between paternalistic leadership and turnover intention, we can conclude that it is a partial mediation.

4.4.2 Mediating Effect of Job Satisfaction for the Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Turnover Intention

Table 4.25 Mediating effect of job satisfaction (work itself)

Input Variable	Outcome Variable	Output
Transformational Leadership	Work itself	**0.2901
Transformational Leadership (with work itself)	Turnover intention	**-0.2206
Transformational Leadership (without work itself)	Turnover intention	**-0.3461
Work itself	Turnover intention	**-0.4326

**$p<0.05$, *$p<0.1$

Indirect effect= -0.1255

BootLLCI= -0.1713
Boot ULCI= -0.0843

The bootstrapping analysis showed that the indirect effect= -0.1255 was significant (p≤ 0.05) at 95% confidence level. Also, the 95% Bootstrap Confidence Interval (CI) does not straddle a 0 in between (LL= -0.1713, UL= -0.0843) indicates that there is a mediation. Thus, the results provide support for the indirect effect of transformational leadership on turnover intention via work itself. In juxtaposition with the significant direct relationship between transformational leadership and turnover intention, we can conclude that it is a partial mediation.

Table 4.26 Mediating effect of job satisfaction (supervision)

Input Variable	Outcome Variable	Output
Transformational Leadership	Supervision	**0.8900
Transformational Leadership (with supervision)	Turnover intention	-0.0385
Transformational Leadership (without supervision)	Turnover intention	**-0.3461
Supervision	Turnover intention	**-0.3456

**p<0.05, *p<0.1

Indirect effect= -0.3076

BootLLCI= -0.4102
BootULCI= -0.2100

The bootstrapping analysis showed that the indirect effect= -0.3076 was significant (p≤ 0.05) at 95% confidence level. Also, the 95% Bootstrap Confidence Interval (CI) does not straddle a 0 in between (LL= -0.4102, UL= -0.2100) indicates that there is a mediation. Thus, the results provide support for the indirect effect of transformational leadership on turnover intention via supervision. In juxtaposition with the significant direct relationship between transformational leadership and turnover intention, we can conclude that it is a partial mediation.

Table 4.27 Mediating effect of job satisfaction (co-workers)

Input Variable	Outcome Variable	Output
Transformational Leadership	Co-workers	**0.2142
Transformational Leadership (with co-workers)	Turnover intention	**-0.2950
Transformational Leadership (without co-workers)	Turnover intention	**-0.3461
Co-workers	Turnover intention	**-0.2386

**$p<0.05$, *$p<0.1$

Indirect effect= -0.0511

BootLLCI= -0.0918
BootULCI= -0.0189

The bootstrapping analysis showed that the indirect effect= -0.0511 was significant ($p \leq 0.05$) at 95% confidence level. Also, the 95% Bootstrap Confidence Interval (CI) does not straddle a 0 in between (LL= -0.0918, UL= -0.0189) indicates that there is a mediation. Thus, the results provide support for the indirect effect of transformational leadership on turnover intention via co-workers. In juxtaposition with the significant direct relationship between transformational leadership and turnover intention, we can conclude that it is a partial mediation.

Table 4.28 Mediating effect of job satisfaction (pay)

Input Variable	Outcome Variable	Output
Transformational Leadership	Pay	**0.2051
Transformational Leadership (with pay)	Turnover intention	**-0.3017
Transformational Leadership (without pay)	Turnover intention	**-0.3461
Pay	Turnover intention	**-0.2167

**$p<0.05$, *$p<0.1$

Indirect effect= -0.0445

BootLLCI= -0.0767
BootULCI= -0.0186

The bootstrapping analysis showed that the indirect effect= -0.0445 was significant ($p \leq 0.05$) at 95% confidence level. Also, the 95% Bootstrap Confidence Interval (CI) does not straddle a 0 in between (LL= -0.0767, UL= -0.0186) indicates that there is a mediation. Thus, the results provide support for the indirect effect of transformational leadership on turnover intention via pay. In juxtaposition with the significant direct relationship between

transformational leadership and turnover intention, we can conclude that it is a partial mediation.

Table 4.29 Mediating effect of job satisfaction (promotional opportunities)

Input Variable	Outcome Variable	Output
Transformational Leadership	Promotional opportunities	**0.4640
Transformational Leadership (with promotional opportunities	Turnover intention	**-0.2377
Transformational Leadership (without promotional opportunities)	Turnover intention	**-0.3461
Promotional opportunities	Turnover intention	**-0.2338

**$p<0.05$, *$p<0.1$

Indirect effect= -0.1085

BootLLCI= -0.1570
BootULCI= -0.0684

The bootstrapping analysis showed that the indirect effect= -0.1085 was significant ($p \leq 0.05$) at 95% confidence level. Also, the 95% Bootstrap Confidence Interval (CI) does not straddle a 0 in between (LL= -0.1570, UL= -0.0684) indicates that there is a mediation. Thus, the results provide support for the indirect effect of transformational leadership on turnover intention via promotional opportunities. In juxtaposition with the significant direct relationship between transformational leadership and turnover intention, we can conclude that it is a partial mediation.

4.5 Findings of Hypotheses Testing

This chapter has so far presented the results of the multiple hierarchical regressions and bootstrapping conducted to test the direct relationships between leadership styles and turnover intention, along with the effects of job satisfaction as a mediator. The summarised results of the hypotheses testing are presented in Table 4.20 and discussed below.

H1: Paternalistic leadership is significantly related to employee turnover intention.

Hypothesis one investigated the relationship between the paternalistic leadership dimensions (benevolence, morality, authoritarianism) and turnover intention. The results of the multiple regression analysis for this hypothesis indicated that only benevolence and morality are significant and negatively related to turnover intention. Authoritarianism did not show any significant relationship with turnover intention. Therefore, hypothesis one is partially supported. Hypothesis 1a and 1b are fully supported while 1c is not supported.

H2: Transformational leadership is significantly related to employee turnover intention.

Hypothesis two investigated the relationship between transformational leadership dimensions (inspirational motivation, idealised influence, intellectual stimulation, individualised consideration) and turnover intention. The results of the multiple regression analysis for this hypothesis indicated that only inspirational motivation is significant and negatively related to turnover intention. Idealised influence, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration did not show any significant relationship with turnover intention. Therefore, hypothesis two is partially supported. Hypothesis 2a is fully supported while 2b, 2c and 2d are not supported.

H3: Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee turnover intention.

Hypothesis three examines how job satisfaction mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and turnover intention. The results revealed that all the job satisfaction dimensions (work itself, supervision, co-workers, pay, promotional opportunities) mediate the relationship between paternalistic leadership and turnover intention. Therefore, this hypothesis is fully supported.

H4: Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee turnover intention.

Hypothesis four examines how job satisfaction mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and turnover intention. The results revealed that all the job satisfaction dimensions (work itself, supervision, co-workers, pay, promotional opportunities)

mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and turnover intention. Therefore, this hypothesis is fully supported.

Table 4.30 Summary of the hypotheses and test results

	Hypothesis	Results
H1	Paternalistic leadership is significantly related to employee turnover intention.	Partially supported
H1a	Paternalistic leadership (benevolence) is significantly related to employee turnover intention.	Fully supported
H1b	Paternalistic leadership (morality) is significantly related to employee turnover intention.	Fully supported
H1c	Paternalistic leadership (authoritarianism) is significantly related to employee turnover intention.	Not supported
H2	Transformational leadership is significantly related to employee turnover intention.	Partially supported
H2a	Transformational leadership (inspirational motivation) is significantly related to employee turnover intention.	Fully supported
H2b	Transformational leadership (idealised influence) is significantly related to employee turnover intention.	Not supported
H2c	Transformational leadership (intellectual stimulation) is significantly related to employee turnover intention.	Not supported
H2d	Transformational leadership (individualised consideration) is significantly related to employee turnover intention.	Not supported
H3	Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee turnover intention.	Fully supported
H3a	Job satisfaction (work itself) mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee turnover intention.	Fully supported
H3b	Job satisfaction (supervision) mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee turnover intention.	Fully supported

H3c	Job satisfaction (co-workers) mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee turnover intention.	Fully supported
H3d	Job satisfaction (pay) mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee turnover intention.	Fully supported
H3e	Job satisfaction (promotional opportunities) mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee turnover intention.	Fully supported
H4	Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee turnover intention.	Fully supported
H4a	Job satisfaction (work itself) mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee turnover intention.	Fully supported
H4b	Job satisfaction (supervision) mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee turnover intention.	Fully supported
H4c	Job satisfaction (co-workers) mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee turnover intention.	Fully supported
H4d	Job satisfaction (pay) mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee turnover intention.	Fully supported
H4e	Job satisfaction (promotional opportunities) mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee turnover intention.	Fully supported

4.5 Conclusion

This chapter has presented the results of the various statistical analyses carried out to test the hypotheses. Multiple hierarchical regressions were rigorously conducted according to published procedures and the results presented in table format. The major findings with regard to the hypotheses have been highlighted in this chapter. Generally, the proposed hypotheses received moderate support from the collected and analysed data. The next chapter focuses on the discussions regarding the tested hypotheses.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.0 Introduction

The previous chapter detailed findings of the study by hypotheses tested. This chapter discusses the findings in greater depth. It relates the discussion back to existing research conducted in similar areas, as discussed in the literature review.

This chapter provides an overview of the research aims and questions, followed by a discussion on the significance of the research findings, together with its justification.

5.1 Background

The present study has four main aims. The first two aims concern the diagnosis of the direct relationship between the perceived leadership styles of leaders and non-academic staff's turnover intention. The third and fourth aims examine whether job satisfaction has a direct effect on turnover intention, and its role in mediating the relationship between leadership styles and turnover intention. The four aims are described as follows:

1. Determine the impact of paternalistic leadership style on non-academic staff's turnover intention in self-accrediting universities in Malaysia.

2. Determine the impact of transformational leadership style on non-academic staff's turnover intention in self-accrediting universities in Malaysia.

3. Determine the impact of job satisfaction on non-academic staff's turnover intention in self-accrediting universities in Malaysia.

4. Determine whether job satisfaction mediates the relationship between the leadership styles (transformational and paternalistic) and non-academic staff's turnover intention in self-accrediting universities in Malaysia.

Leadership styles have been operationalised as the ability and characteristics of a leader that can influence individuals towards achieving a common goal. The influence of leaders on followers is rooted in the social exchange and role theories; a relationship exists between both parties with certain expected behaviours, in which the different expectations may impact followers' job satisfaction and turnover intention. In this study, two types of leadership styles were investigated, namely paternalistic and transformational. Paternalistic leadership is defined as a style integrating strong discipline and authority with fatherly benevolence and moral integrity in a personalised environment (Farh et al. 2006). It consists of three dimensions, namely authoritarianism, benevolence and morality/ integrity. On the other hand, Bass and Avolio (1994) state that transformational leadership is present when leaders promote a new outlook of work among co-workers and followers; create awareness of organisational and team mission or vision; harness potential of co-workers and followers; and encourage co-workers and followers to put the group's interest above their own. The original transformational leadership model by Bass and Avolio (1995) contain five dimensions: idealised influence (attributes); idealised influence (behaviour); inspirational motivation; intellectual stimulation; and individualised consideration. However, some researchers have classified transformational leadership into four dimensions as opposed to the original five dimensions (Avolio, Waldman & Yammarino 1991; Kirkbride 2006; Nemanich & Keller 2007). It has also been called the four I's of transformational leadership (Avolio, Waldman & Yammarino 1991). The reduction from five to four dimensions is a result of idealised influence (both attributes and behaviour) being considered as only one dimension. This study adopts the four dimensions of transformational leadership.

The dependent variable, turnover intention was operationalised as a situation in which employees have a conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organisation. The mediator, job satisfaction was operationalised as a combination of attitudes, feelings and beliefs that people have about their current jobs. People's levels or degrees of job satisfaction can range from extreme satisfaction to extreme dissatisfaction (George 2012). It consists of five dimensions, namely (1) work itself; (2) supervision; (3) co-workers; (4) salary; and (5) promotional opportunities, which were adopted from the job satisfaction scale developed by Beehr et al. (2006).

A series of statistical analyses were conducted on the research data to test the hypotheses of the study. The results are discussed in the following sections.

5.2 Discussion of Findings

This sections discusses the findings of the study in relation to the research aims and hypotheses.

5.2.1 Relationship between Paternalistic Leadership and Non-Academic Staff's Turnover Intention in Self-Accrediting Universities in Malaysia

5.2.1.1 Paternalistic Leadership is Significantly Related to Turnover Intention

Paternalistic leadership as a whole has a significant negative relationship with non-academic staff's turnover intention. This is attributed to the fact that the study was conducted in Malaysia, whereby paternalism is generally accepted in Asian culture. This negative relationship implies that leaders who practise paternalistic leadership have significant impact in reducing non-academic staff's turnover intention. According to Göncü Köse, Aycan and Johnson (2014), paternalistic leadership covers hierarchical relationships whereby the leader's roles include providing care, protection, and guidance in both work and personal areas of employee's lives. In return, subordinates are expected to be loyal and respectful towards the leader. Paternalistic leaders are parental figures who protect followers, maximise the group's benefit through a family atmosphere in the workplace, building individualised relationships with subordinates and getting involved in employees' lives beyond work (Göncü Köse, Aycan & Johnson 2014). In this study, the acceptance of paternalistic leadership implies that the university leaders are expected to show concern for their subordinates' welfare beyond the workplace. A leader who is only concerned with their subordinates meeting the company's goals and objectives are likely to be deemed inconsiderate and uncaring.

The above finding from this study is supported by the fact that paternalistic leadership is common, widely accepted and potentially effective in collectivistic Eastern cultures (e.g. Confucian Asia, Central Asia, Middle East, Africa and Latin America) as opposed to individualistic Western cultures, which shun this type of leadership (Hiller et al. 2019). However, paternalistic leadership has generally been largely ignored in leadership studies. This may be attributed to the negative connotations associated with paternalism, especially in the West. Hence studies in Asian countries have followed suit, although this leadership style

is actually prevalent in these countries whereby Asian culture is rooted in paternalism (Göncü Köse, Aycan & Johnson 2014; Jackson 2016). Paternalistic leadership may be deemed the "Asian transformational leadership" as it is effective in this cultural context (Göncü Köse, Aycan & Johnson 2014).

Evidence suggests leader gender has no impact on exhibiting characteristics of paternalistic leadership. According to Hiller et al. (2019), the term 'paternalistic' appears to be a male-dominated leadership style, which may be one of the reasons why this leadership style is largely ignored by researchers. It is suggested that the more accurate term should be 'parental', based on the direct translation of the term in Chinese.

In addition, paternalism is very welcomed in high power distance societies (Hakimian et al. 2014). In an organisational context, power distance is the degree to which subordinates accept the unequal power distribution in the organisation. The score for Malaysia is very high, which means people accept the hierarchical structure and leadership is not questioned (Insights 2018). Paternalistic leadership has been criticised in Western studies for obstructing employee independence, empowerment and advancement. In spite of this, research in cultural contexts that have high collectivism and high power distance reveal that paternalistic leadership is effective in producing positive outcomes for both the organisation and employees. Effectiveness of leadership styles is also dependent on the cultural context in which they operate (Göncü Köse, Aycan & Johnson 2014). Hence, it is no surprise that paternalistic leadership as a whole has a significant impact in reducing turnover intention among non-academic staff employed in self-accrediting universities in Malaysia.

When the dimensions are considered individually, benevolence and morality each have a significant negative relationship with turnover intention. Meanwhile, authoritarianism has no significant relationship with turnover intention. This finding implies that leaders who exhibit paternalistic leadership, especially benevolence and morality behaviours, play a significant role in reducing non-academic staff's intentions to resign from their respective jobs or universities. On the other hand, leaders who exhibit authoritarianism behaviour do not have any significant impact in influencing non-academic staff's decisions to leave their jobs. Research utilising this triad model has been conducted mainly in China and Taiwan (Pellegrini & Scandura 2008). The model has been used in the majority of studies more recently, as it has been found that the 3 dimensions do not generally co-occur, and should

therefore be examined separately (Hiller et al. 2019). This is consistent with the finding from this present study, whereby authoritarianism does not co-occur with benevolence and morality. Moreover, a study by Didik, Rofiaty and Mintarti (2018) revealed that leaders using the benevolent-moral approach instead of moral-authoritarian approach were effective in reducing employee turnover intention. In line with this, only benevolence and morality were found to be significantly related to non-academic staff's turnover intention.

Therefore, H1 paternalistic leadership is significantly related to employee turnover intention is partially supported.

The relationship between each dimension of paternalistic leadership with turnover intention is further discussed below.

Benevolence is Negatively Related to Turnover Intention

In this present study, benevolence is negatively related to turnover intention. This implies that leaders who exhibit benevolence behaviours have a significant impact in reducing non-academic staff's turnover intention. Benevolent leadership refers to leader behaviours that show personalised, holistic concern for subordinates' personal and family welfare (Cheng et al. 2004). This relationship spans across both work and non-work areas, resulting in a family-like environment at the workplace. The leader's kindness and care are expected to result in subordinates' respect, gratefulness and liking towards the leader (Hiller et al. 2019).

With Eastern cultures, not all forms of paternalism are welcome as two forms of paternalism exist: benevolent and exploitative paternalism. Benevolent leaders provide subordinates with genuine care and help, who are loyal to and respect the leaders in return. In contrast, exploitative leaders do not actually care for subordinates, but focus on achieving organisational goals through rewards and punishment as the means of getting subordinates to obey them. Malaysia was found to be a country that endorsed high levels of benevolence and integrity (which are characteristic of benevolent paternalism) in order for it to be effective among subordinates. Exploitative paternalism was only endorsed in countries with extremely high power distance, where subordinates would never challenge the authority of the leaders (Mansur, Sobral & Goldszmidt 2017). The finding from this study, whereby benevolence is

negatively related to turnover intention, are therefore consistent with the study of Mansur, Sobral and Goldszmidt (2017).

Moreover, Farh et al. (2006) found that benevolence demonstrated a strong, positive relationship to gratitude to supervisor; benevolence had positive effects on identification, compliance, satisfaction and commitment, which leads to lower employee turnover intention. However, supervisor positional power must also be taken into account when assessing the impact. A powerful leader's benevolent act may be perceived as a sign of genuine care for subordinates; however, a weak leader's benevolent acts may be perceived as a sign of weakness, and it is not appreciated at all by subordinates. In this present study, it is found that leader's benevolence behaviours are appreciated by the non-academic staff, which therefore motivates them to remain in their jobs, leading to lower turnover intention. This is further supported by the fact that the relationship in paternalistic leadership tends to be emotional or relational in nature. There is likely to be strong emotional bonding between the leaders and followers, as followers view leaders with much respect and loyalty (Göncü Köse, Aycan & Johnson 2014). Benevolence behaviours reflect leaders' willingness to treat employees as co-workers rather than subordinates, which make employees feel comfortable and satisfied with their leaders, leading to lower turnover intention (Didik, Rofiaty & Mintarti 2018). The negative relationship between benevolence and non-academic staff turnover intention is further supported by the fact that the majority of respondents in this study were Gen-Y employees, also known as the millennials. Gen-Y employees are in favour of their manager being more of a coach rather than a boss (Williamson 2008). This involves benevolence behaviour as mentioned by Didik, Rofiaty and Mintarti (2018) whereby leaders treat employees as co-workers rather than directing them to take instructions. Moreover, Gen-Y employees expect or desire their leaders to show concern for their well-being (Dowling 2019), which is a characteristic of benevolence behaviour.

The significant negative relationship between benevolence and non-academic staff turnover intention in self-accrediting universities may be attributed to the close working relationship between supervisors and their subordinates. This close working relationship is vital to fulfil the MQA COPIA standards that require the university to ensure the support services and administrative processes are adequate and appropriate to meet the university's goals. To that end, non-academic staff and their supervisors spend considerable amount of time working together on different tasks as compared to academic staff who spend most of the time on their

own conducting classes and doing research. As more time is spent together, supervisors and non-academic staff foster closer working and personal relationships, resulting in subordinate's appreciation when their supervisors care about their personal welfare as well. When benevolent leaders provide subordinates with genuine care and help, they reciprocate with loyalty and respect for the leaders. This in return, motivates them to continue working in their jobs.

Therefore, H1a paternalistic leadership (benevolence) is significantly related to employee turnover intention is fully supported.

Morality is Negatively Related to Turnover Intention

In this present study, morality is negatively related to turnover intention. This implies that leaders who exhibit morality and integrity behaviours have a significant impact in reducing non-academic staff's turnover intention. Moral leadership refers to leader behaviours that show superior personal virtues or characteristics that enable leaders to gain respect from subordinates (Cheng et al. 2004). The leader displays selflessness, moral character, high ethical standards and integrity (Hiller et al. 2019). The finding from this present study shows that leaders who display morality and integrity play a role in reducing non-academic staff turnover intention. It is consistent with the study of Mansur, Sobral and Goldszmidt (2017), who found Malaysia was a country that endorsed high levels of benevolence and integrity in order for it to be effective among subordinates. Exploitative paternalism was only endorsed in countries with extremely high power distance, where subordinates would never challenge the authority of the leaders (Mansur, Sobral & Goldszmidt 2017).

Similarly, Demirtas and Akdogan (2015) in their study found that leaders' values are crucial in influencing the working environment. The role of leaders and their ethical behaviour, demonstrated through their relationships and actions, are fundamental factors in setting the moral framework for their subordinates and the organisation. When subordinates perceive existence of an ethical climate, this increases organisational commitment, leading to less turnover intention. Moreover, a culture that supports and promotes ethical behaviours are crucial in enabling organisations to achieve sustainable growth, competitive advantage and a good corporate image. In establishing ethical working conditions, leaders must be role models by demonstrating ethical behaviours and appropriate conduct by making fair and transparent decisions, as well as acting in honest and trustworthy ways (Demirtas & Akdogan

2015). Moreover, when employees experience ethical treatment from their leaders, they feel a sense of security, support and fair treatment. Given that employee job satisfaction is closely associated with their leaders' behaviours, leaders who demonstrate ethical behaviours improve employees' job satisfaction, leading to increase in employees' engagement in positive work behaviours, and reduction in likelihood of quitting their job (Shafique, Kalyar & Bashir 2018). In line with these findings, this present study confirmed that morality behaviours exhibited by leaders have a significant impact on reducing non-academic staff's turnover intention.

According to Farh et al. (2006), among the three paternalistic leadership dimensions, their study found morality had the most significant effect on identification, satisfaction with supervision and organisational commitment, which lead to lower employee turnover intention. Unlike benevolent leaders who cultivate personal relationships with subordinates through reciprocity, moral leaders influence subordinates through integrity. Hence, a moral leader can still exert strong influence despite lack of position power. However, this present study found that benevolence has a larger influence on non-academic staff's turnover intention compared with morality. This confirms the fact that non-academic staff view a benevolent leader's behaviours as genuine care for subordinates, rather than being a sign of weakness. Moreover, Malaysia is a collectivist society, where it is expected that each member of society, including leaders and subordinates, look out for one another. Employer/ employee relationships are perceived in moral terms (like a family relationship) (Insights 2018).

The negative relationship between morality and non-academic staff turnover intention is further supported by the fact that the majority of respondents in this study were Gen-Y employees, also known as the millennials. Gen-Y employees typically possess high moral standards and a strong sense of civic duty (Williamson 2008). Gen-Y employees also have strong work ethics, whereby hard work is deemed virtuous or worthy of reward (Dowling 2019). This implies that employees expect leaders to display strong morality standards in terms of rewards and promotions, and a strong morality culture will reduce the employees' turnover intention.

In the context of self-accrediting universities, which are considered the premium universities in terms of quality assurance, leader's morality is of key importance as self-accrediting

universities are expected to display high levels of ethics and integrity. For instance, the MQA COPIA requires the university to have fair and transparent student admission processes, which are handled by non-academic staff. In this instance, leaders must ensure all applications are treated fairly and in accordance with the appropriate entry requirements. The Malaysian Qualifications Agency (MQA) can revoke the self-accreditation status should there be any unethical practices found or reported by any stakeholders.

Therefore, H1b paternalistic leadership (morality) is significantly related to employee turnover intention is fully supported.

Authoritarianism is Not Significantly Related to Turnover Intention

In this present study, authoritarianism is found to have no significant relationship with turnover intention. This means leaders who exhibit authoritarian behaviours have no significant impact on the non-academic staff's turnover intention. Authoritarian leadership refers to leader behaviours that impose absolute authority and control over subordinates and demand full submission from them. There is no room for discussion or negotiation (Cheng et al. 2004).

There are mixed findings on the impact of authoritarianism on employee turnover intention. According to a study by Koo and Park (2018), authoritarianism is not only accepted, but expected in Asian context. Due to high power distance, employees expect clear directions from their leaders for them to follow, which is a key characteristic of paternalistic leadership. As opposed to general presumptions, employees feel sceptical of leaders' capabilities when leaders engage with them for feedback, and this approach is not welcomed by employees. It gives employees the impression that the leader is not able to make a decision. Followers expect leaders to play both an authoritarian and benevolent role, to provide guidance to followers, who will follow their leaders' decisions.

On the other hand, Farh et al. (2006) and Hiller et al. (2019) reported that authoritarianism resulted in several negative outcomes: lower organisational commitment, lower satisfaction with supervision, higher turnover intentions and other unwanted workplace behaviours. In addition, their study revealed that fear was positively related to compliance but negatively related to organisational commitment and satisfaction with supervision. This suggests

authoritarian leaders may gain compliance from subordinates using fear, but at the expense of relationships, i.e. lower satisfaction with supervision and lower organisational commitment, leading to higher employee turnover intention.

According to Hofstede's cultural dimensions theory established in 1980, Malaysia has a very high power distance, which means people accept a hierarchical order, subordinates expect to be told what to do and challenges to the leadership are frowned upon. At the same time, Malaysia has a low uncertainty avoidance culture (Insights 2018). In low uncertainty avoidance cultures people are fairly relaxed and comfortable with uncertainty and ambiguity. People with such characteristics also do not have emotional needs for rules to govern their environment. They are likely to resist a highly rule-regulated work environment (Hackman & Kleiner 1990). It is important to note that Hofstede's findings were based on data from over 30 years ago, and significant changes in the cultural values may have occurred. Based on this present study, it is evident that authoritarianism is not a motivational factor for employees to remain in their jobs; hence it does not affect their decisions to leave or stay in their jobs. Moreover, a study by Didik, Rofiaty and Mintarti (2018) revealed that leaders using the benevolent-moral approach instead of moral-authoritarian approach were effective in reducing employee turnover intention. In line with this, only benevolence and morality were found to be significantly related to non-academic staff's turnover intention while authoritarianism had no significant relationship with non-academic staff's turnover intention.

In the context of self-accrediting universities, the majority of the respondents were in the younger age groups (Generation Y or millennials), namely 48.7 percent in the 31-40 age group and 22.9 percent in the 18-30 age group. This makes up a total of 71.6 percent out of the total number of respondents. Consistent with a recent study by Didik, Rofiaty and Mintarti (2018) among Gen-Y employees, authoritarianism had no significant relationship with turnover intention. This shows that Gen-Y employees are not motivated by authoritarian leadership behaviour. Gen-Y employees value innovation and self-direction, which are in complete opposition to authoritarianism (Anonymous 2013). Gen-Y employees are less receptive to the traditional 'command and control' management style, which is a characteristic of authoritarianism (Williamson 2008). Moreover, the MQA COPIA requires self-accrediting universities to embrace continual quality improvement to ensure policies and practices are revised accordingly to maintain high quality education and environment conducive to working. Such quality culture tends to require a collaborative working

relationship between supervisors and subordinates, as new ideas are needed from everyone to keep improving. To that end, employees would actually expect their supervisors to allow for creativity and innovation, rather than telling them what to do. Such working style is not a characteristic of authoritarian leadership.

Based on this present study's finding on authoritarianism, coupled with the literature, it can be deduced that the Malaysian society is moving away from being a very high power distance society and authoritarianism is no longer welcomed. It is also evident that Gen-Y, who will continue to make up the majority of the workforce, are not in favour of authoritarianism.

Therefore, H1c paternalistic leadership (authoritarianism) is significantly related to employee turnover intention is not supported.

5.2.2 Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Non-Academic Staff's Turnover Intention in Self-Accrediting Universities in Malaysia

5.2.2.1 Transformational Leadership is Significantly Related to Turnover Intention

Transformational leadership as a whole has a significant negative relationship with to non-academic staff's turnover intention. This implies that leaders who practise transformational leadership have significant impact in reducing non-academic staff's turnover intention. According to Bass and Avolio (1994), transformational leadership is evident when leaders promote a new outlook of work among co-workers and followers; create awareness of organisational and team mission or vision; harness potential of co-workers and followers; and encourage co-workers and followers to put the group's interest above their own. These characteristics are the hallmark of superior leadership performance, which is transformational leadership (Bass 1990).

Several scholars posit that transformational leadership, which is the most widely studied leadership style in Western countries, is the ideal leadership style regardless of cultural or situational contexts. However, other scholars believe effectiveness of leadership styles are dependent on the cultural context in which they operate (Göncü Köse, Aycan & Johnson 2014). In the literature, transformational leadership has been found to generally lead to positive organisational and employee outcomes. There is vast and strong evidence showing

that transformational leadership has a strong relationship with lower turnover rates and higher levels of productivity, employee satisfaction, creativity, goal attainment, follower well-being, and corporate entrepreneurship (Robbins & Coulter 2012).

According to the first study done by Bass (1985), transformational leaders have a positive influence on their employees' job satisfaction, particularly satisfaction with their leaders. The leader makes each employee feel special (through individualised consideration) and gives them motivation to achieve their full potential (through idealised influence and inspirational motivation). This leads to lower employee turnover intention. Several other studies have also reported a significant positive relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction (Berson & Linton 2005; Bono & Judge 2003; Nemanich & Keller 2007; Podsakoff, Mackenzie & Bommer 1996). In view of the significant influence of leaders in determining an individual's overall job satisfaction, many studies have focused mainly on satisfaction with the leader; they have consistently found that transformational leaders have the strongest positive impact on followers' job satisfaction in comparison with other leadership styles (Bass 1990; Bycio, Hackett & Allen 1995; Dunham-Taylor 1995; Koh, Steers & Terborg 1995; Yammarino & Bass 1990). The positive impact of transformational leadership in generating higher satisfaction levels among employees has been consistently supported by over two decades of research. High satisfaction levels then lead to lower employee turnover intention (Walumbwa et al. 2005).

In addition, existing studies have investigated the direct impact of transformational leadership on employee turnover intention. Existing research shows strong evidence that transformational leaders reduce their followers' intention to quit. Transformational leaders equip employees with the ability to remain loyal to the organisation and pull through in difficult circumstances. This stems from encouragement given to employees to overcome obstacles and remain effective in their work. Alatawi (2017) found that transformational leadership had a negative relationship with employees' turnover intention.

Based on the literature, it is clear that transformational leadership is effective and applicable universally, including Malaysia, whereby transformational leadership as a whole has been found to reduce turnover intention among non-academic staff.

The four dimensions of transformational leadership were also examined individually to determine their relationship with turnover intention. Interestingly, only inspirational motivation was found to have a significant relationship with turnover intention. The other three dimensions: idealised influence, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration were not found to have any significant relationship with turnover intention. These findings imply that leaders who exhibit inspirational motivation behaviours have a significant impact in reducing non-academic staff's turnover intention. Meanwhile, leaders' idealised influence, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration behaviours do not play a significant role in influencing non-academic staff's turnover intention. According to Barnett, McCormick and Conners (2001), inspirational motivation is closely linked with idealised influence. The presence of individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation, which evidence a leader's ability to make followers feel valuable and confident in the leader's leadership ability, strengthens a leader's inspirational motivation (Avolio, Waldman & Yammarino 1991). This may be the reason why only inspirational motivation is found to have a significant relationship with turnover intention, as it is the most tangible outcome of a leader practising transformational leadership; the other three dimensions combined play a supporting role to inspirational motivation, rather than being significant on their own. Another possible reason discovered in the study of Carless (1998) was that subordinates do not distinguish between idealised influence (charisma), individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation. In this study, the finding is similar to that Carless (1998) whereby the three dimensions did not have a significant relationship with non-academic staff turnover at the individual dimension level. This implies the non-academic staff did not differentiate between the three dimensions, resulting in such leader behaviours to be effective at a combined level.

Moreover, although several studies have found the negative relationship between transformational leadership and turnover intention, there is still insufficient information on this relationship. Findings from past studies have contradicting conclusions (Alatawi 2017). Certain studies noted an insignificant relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction. This may be attributed to the fact that supervision is just one aspect of employees' jobs. The basic aspects of employee's jobs, such as type of work and working conditions, may be beyond the control of transformational leaders (Judge & Bono 2000). In this present study, transformational leadership as a whole has a significant relationship with non-academic staff's turnover intention. However, as mentioned above, certain leadership

behaviours are individually not significantly related to non-academic staff turnover intention in view of other factors that outweigh the benefits received by staff through these leader's behaviours.

Therefore, H2 transformational leadership is significantly related to employee turnover intention is partially supported.

The findings for each dimension are further discussed below.

Inspirational Motivation is Negatively Related to Turnover Intention

In this present study, inspirational motivation is found to be negatively related to turnover intention. This finding implies that leaders who exhibit inspirational motivation have a significant impact in reducing non-academic staff's turnover intention.

Inspirational motivation involves inspirational leaders who exude behaviours that provide purpose and motivation to followers. These leaders also communicate their expectations clearly, set a positive outlook for the organisation's future and show strong commitment to work with followers towards achieving shared vision and goals (Bass 1998; Bass & Avolio 1994). Inspirational leaders focus on longer term goals, and encourage followers to concentrate efforts on reaching them (Howell & Avolio 1993). Such leaders possess the ability to get their followers to buy in their vision and goals. Moreover, these leaders are able to build strong team spirit and empower followers to reach their goals (Bass 2006). As a result, followers are motivated and driven to achieve more than they expect of themselves. This is because transformational leaders have a fresh vision that differs from status quo; they serve as the change agent in inspiring their followers to participate in achieving that new vision (Nemanich & Keller 2007). Transformational leaders also "use inspirational motivation to build emotional commitment to a mission or goal" (Bass 2006, p. 36). This emotional commitment may cause followers to desire remaining in the organisation.

It is also worth noting that Malaysia has a low uncertainty avoidance culture (Insights 2018). In low uncertainty avoidance cultures people are fairly relaxed and comfortable with uncertainty and ambiguity. A society with low uncertainty avoidance believe that rules that do not work should be abolished, practice is more important than principles, and deviance

from the norm is more easily acceptable (Insights 2018). Such characteristics of the Malaysian society supports the finding that inspirational motivation is significantly related to non-academic staff's turnover intention. Non-academic staff are motivated when leaders bring a new vision and direction, and they are willing to follow although it often differs from the present situation. Moreover, the concept of planning for future growth is likely to be well received in low uncertainty avoidance societies (Hackman & Kleiner 1990). In Hofstede's findings on Malaysia in a study done over 30 years ago, Malaysian society was identified to have a normative culture, which meant people were bound by tradition and rules, and were only focused on achieving quick results. In contrast, this present study has shown that the current society is now the opposite, whereby persistence, perseverance and preparing for the future is emphasised. This further supports the reason why leaders exhibiting inspirational motivation behaviour is so crucial in motivating and supporting innovation among the non-academic staff in this present study, resulting in lower turnover intention. It is worth noting that the majority of the respondents (71.6 percent) consists of Gen-Y employees. These employees are motivated by inspiring leadership, prefer their manager to be more of a coach rather than a boss, working in an environment that supports new ideas (Williamson 2008). Moreover, Gen-Y employees tend to be creative and innovative, which fit well in the context of self-accrediting universities, whereby innovation is a must and not an option. Leaders have to continuously motivate employees to improve and find better ways of doing things, and Gen-Y employees are already self-motivated in doing this. Nevertheless, in line with inspirational motivation, Gen-Y are most successful when they possess clear goals and understand their contributions to the big picture (Williamson 2008), which is the responsibility of the leader. This is in line with the self-accreditation status that requires universities to adopt continuous quality improvements in all aspects of the university's operations. This is crucial to retain the university's self-accreditation status, which undergoes a comprehensive audit by the MQA at least once in every five years. Moreover, the MQA COPIA requires the university to disseminate its vision and mission to stakeholders, including staff members. The objective is to ensure all processes and activities align with the university's goals. Moreover, staff members the university's vision, mission and goals to be periodically reviewed in consultation with stakeholders, including all staff members. All these steps require leaders to possess inspirational motivation. Staff members who have a clear direction from their leaders tend to be less inclined to think of leaving their jobs.

Therefore, H2a transformational leadership (inspirational motivation) is significantly related to employee turnover intention is fully supported.

Idealised influence (Charisma) is Not Significantly Related to Turnover Intention

In this present study, idealised influence is found to have no significant relationship with turnover intention. This finding implies that leaders who exhibit idealised influence (charisma) have no significant impact in reducing non-academic staff's turnover intention. Leaders who possess idealised influence are exemplary or role models to other individuals. Followers feel a sense of pride in being associated with their leaders, and they desire to be like them (Bass 1998; Kirkbride 2006). Earning this credit is attributed to certain personal characteristics, charisma, or demonstration of certain moral behaviours (Kirkbride 2006). In particular, a transformational leader who exhibits idealised influence (i.e. charisma) creates a desire among followers be identified with the leader; this motivates followers to remain in the organisation so long as the leader is there (Shamir, House & Arthur 1993). However, based on the finding in this present study, idealised influence on its own does not have a significant impact in influencing non-academic staff's turnover intention. This may be due to the fact that desire to be associated with the leader is not a major factor per se when non-academic staff are making a decision on whether to remain in or leave their jobs. This factor on its own is not strong enough to influence non-academic staff's turnover intention if they are dissatisfied with other factors. Instead a leader's charisma plays a supporting role in motivating non-academic staff to continue to perform well in their jobs. This is especially relevant as transformational leaders employ idealised influence to empower followers, which increase their adaptability and ability to cope with changing conditions (Nemanich & Keller 2007). Similarly, in the context of self-accrediting universities where high performance is expected and needed, a leader who only has charisma, is inadequate to be a motivating factor for non-academic's staff's turnover intention. For instance, the MQA COPIA focuses on high quality university processes that produce excellent outcomes and impact to society. Achievement of such results require much more than charisma.

Therefore, H2b transformational leadership (idealised influence) is significantly related to employee turnover intention is not supported.

Intellectual Stimulation is Not Significantly Related to Turnover Intention

In this present study, intellectual stimulation is found to have no significant relationship with turnover intention. This finding implies that leaders who exhibit intellectual stimulation have no significant impact in reducing non-academic staff's turnover intention.

Leaders who exhibit intellectual stimulation promote creativity among followers by encouraging them to question assumptions, and approach old problems in new ways, which lead to development of new ideas (Barnett, McCormick & Conners 2001; Bass & Avolio 1994; Bass 2006; Nemanich & Keller 2007). To encourage intellectual stimulation, such leaders usually allow experimentation, emphasise creative thinking and stimulate followers' higher-order needs. These leaders are prepared to challenge the status quo (Bass 1985). Such leaders never correct or criticise others publicly, which provides a safe environment for followers to develop creativity (Bass 1998). This is in contrast with the "telling" approach where followers are expected to take instructions, leaving no room for questions. Instead, the leader stimulates followers to ponder on issues and develop their own thinking abilities, resulting in discovery of new methods of completing tasks. Intellectually stimulating leaders are also open to a bottoms-up type of influence, where followers are allowed to question even the leaders' assumptions and values. This is particularly useful when the leader does not have much experience or information to solve the problem. Such approach encourages creativity rather than conformity (Avolio, Waldman & Yammarino 1991).

Due to high power distance, certain dimensions of transformational leadership that usually lead to positive outcomes, especially in Western culture has an opposite effect in Asian context. For example, in Asia, employees expect clear directions from their leaders for them to follow. On the other hand, transformational leaders who engage with employees for their feedback result in followers feeling sceptical of leaders' capabilities, and this approach is not very welcome (Koo & Park 2018). Going against existing regulations is frowned upon as followers expect leaders to act according to the norm and risk taking tends to diminish followers' trust in leadership (Tang, Yin & Min 2011). Malaysia is a country with high power distance, and hence subordinates expect to be told what to do, instead of being asked for their opinions (Insights 2018). Although this is slowly diminishing as evidenced by the insignificant relationship between authoritarianism and non-academic staff turnover intention, Malaysia has generally yet to reach the point where intellectual stimulation is actually a motivator to reduce employee turnover intention. Moreover, Malaysia is a collectivistic society, and offence leads to shame and loss of face. In the leader-subordinate

relationship, subordinates may be reluctant to challenge their leaders openly, as they fear offending their leader and being rejected by their peers. Similarly, in the context of self-accrediting universities, intellectual stimulation is yet to be a motivator for non-academic staff to remain in their jobs. Non-academic staff also tend to work closely with their supervisors and co-workers, instead of independently like academic staff. Hence, they may be wary of presenting different views to their leaders to avoid being perceived as defiant.

Therefore, H2c transformational leadership (intellectual stimulation) is significantly related to employee turnover intention is not supported.

Individualised Consideration is Not Significantly Related to Turnover Intention

In this present study, individualised consideration is found to have no significant relationship with turnover intention. This finding implies that leaders who exhibit individualised consideration have no significant impact in reducing non-academic staff's turnover intention.

According to Bass (1985, p. 82), individualised consideration consists of two aspects. The first is treating followers as unique individuals having different needs, including investing time to nurture those who appear neglected. The second is identifying followers' weaknesses and strengths and supporting their development and growth. Through individualised consideration, leaders have an individual two-way relationship with followers, which takes into account followers' views and encourages higher achievement of goals and upskilling (Barnett, McCormick & Conners 2001; Kirkbride 2006).

The finding of this present study is in contrast with Dupré and Day (2007) who found that employees who felt supported by their leaders found purpose in their jobs, were less inclined to leave the organisation. According to Bass (2006, p. 36), effective transformational leaders decrease followers' intentions to quit by demonstrating that "the goals and values of the group, follower, leader and organization" are in alignment with one another. Hence, the followers are less likely to quit as they regard the leader as a facilitator to achieve their personal goals, which are congruent with that of the organisation. Moreover, followers who receive individual consideration from the leader feel their needs are met and will likely remain in the organisation.

One reason for the insignificant relationship between individualised consideration and turnover intention is that the relationship between leaders and followers in transformational leadership is business-oriented instead of one that is emotional. This is attributed to the fact that transformational leaders emphasise on building an environment that motivates followers rather than building it on a personal bonding between the leader and follower (Göncü Köse, Aycan & Johnson 2014). Even though individualised consideration relates to a leader giving individual attention to subordinates, the ultimate goal of all the leader's actions is to ensure work-related goals are achieved. In contrast, leader benevolence in paternalistic leadership goes beyond work-related matters, where leaders show concern and care for subordinates' personal and family affairs, resulting in increased satisfaction with the leader (Farh et al. 2006). Hence, individualised consideration on its own does not influence non-academic staff in their intention to stay or leave their jobs, since they do not feel any personal obligation to their leaders.

Similarly, in self-accrediting universities, non-academic staff expect their leaders to show concern for work-related matters, since it will affect performance of the university, and retention of the self-accreditation status. Hence, it is not a motivating factor to reduce turnover intention, since it is considered to be part of the leader's scope of work. Moreover, the MQA COPIA requires administrative units to be staffed by individuals who possess suitable experience to carry out the job. The university must ensure sufficient resources are in place to promote continuous improvement in non-academic staff's technical skills. Leaders would therefore be more concerned with taking care of staff welfare within areas that affect work performance, e.g. training and coaching.

Therefore, H2d transformational leadership (individualised consideration) is significantly related to employee turnover intention is not supported.

5.2.3 Mediating Role of Job Satisfaction for the Relationship between Leadership Styles (Paternalistic and Transformational) and Non-Academic Staff's Turnover Intention in Self-Accrediting Universities in Malaysia

Job satisfaction is a combination of attitudes, feelings and beliefs that people have about their current jobs. The differences in job satisfaction levels are due to differences in employee

attitudes, which then shape their feelings and beliefs. The key causes of employee attitudes can be traced to differences in their personality, cultural and work situation influences. In terms of personality, characteristics such as confidence and conscientiousness can influence job satisfaction. As for cultural influence, Hofstede's dimensions as discussed earlier affects employees' views and expectations of their supervisors, which influences their job satisfaction. With regard to work situation, satisfaction with their work and work environment influences employee overall job satisfaction (Saari & Judge 2004).

Several theories posit that employees who dislike their jobs will shun them, either permanently by quitting or temporarily through absenteeism or arriving late. The key motivation for these withdrawal behaviours is job satisfaction. This suggests high level of job satisfaction has a negative relationship with employee turnover intention (Spector 1997). Turnover may be caused by a combination of factors: negative job attitudes, low job satisfaction, along with ability to secure employment elsewhere, i.e. the employment market conditions. It is worth noting that turnover is part and parcel of an organisation's operations. While extremely high levels of turnover could be costly, a certain level of turnover is typical and benefits an organisation (Armstrong 2006).

Ivancevich, Gibson and Konopaske (2011) found a moderate correlation between job satisfaction and turnover intention. On a similar note, George (2012) reported a weak-to-moderate negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention; high job satisfaction results in low turnover intention. The reason for this range in the relationship strength is because satisfaction is not the ultimate determinant of turnover. It holds true that satisfied employees have lower likelihood of quitting than dissatisfied employees. However, some dissatisfied employees never leave, and even satisfied employees may switch to another organisation in the future. According to Bill Mobley's turnover process model, the entire turnover process is triggered by job satisfaction. Highly satisfied employees may never even consider quitting; on the other hand, dissatisfied employees immediately start considering quitting. In the case of job dissatisfaction, an individual assesses the costs of leaving versus the benefits of the new job. The costs may cover employee benefits tied to seniority such as pension plans, job security. Based on the evaluation, the employee develops an intention to quit or stay, which results in turnover behaviour. It is clear that other factors also play a role in determining actual turnover; unless the benefits of the new job outweigh the costs of leaving, dissatisfied employees will still remain in the organisation. Similar perspective is

shared by Tae Heon et al. (2008) whose study states that job dissatisfaction is not the only cause of turnover. It is recognised that even satisfied employees may eventually leave due to other reasons (e.g. better job offers, family reasons) and that dissatisfied employees may never quit.

Nevertheless, the literature has also shown job satisfaction as one of the factors with significant impact on employee turnover intention. According to Lambert, Lynne Hogan and Barton (2001, p. 246), job satisfaction measures are "the most informative data a manager or researcher can have for predicting employee behaviour." Past research has shown consistent relationship between high levels of job dissatisfaction and employee withdrawal, specifically voluntary turnover. Lambert and colleagues' study found that job satisfaction had the largest direct impact on turnover intention compared with availability of alternative employment opportunities, financial rewards, tenure and age. This point is further supported by a study by Van Dick et al. (2004b), which stated that job satisfaction may be the most widely researched predictor of turnover. Job satisfaction has a significant direct influence on the most crucial attitude towards the organisation, which is intention to stay or leave. This attitude was found to be a strong predictor of actual turnover behaviour. Furthermore, turnover intention is largely influenced by job satisfaction, and typically deemed a "push" factor (Tae Heon et al. 2008). Earlier studies by Cotton and Tuttle (1986) and Tett and Meyer (1993) validate job satisfaction as a significant predictor of turnover intention. Employees who are highly satisfied have lower levels of turnover intention. According to Smith and Shields (2013), job satisfaction is a major concern for organisations as low job satisfaction is one of the main reasons for employee turnover. Job satisfaction is a predictor of both turnover intent and actual turnover. A recent study by Noureen and Abbas (2017) found a strong negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention.

Based on the above-mentioned findings, it is evident that the relationship between leadership styles and employee turnover intention can be enhanced when employees possess high job satisfaction. The findings of this present study are therefore consistent with the literature, whereby job satisfaction has been found to strengthen the impact of paternalistic and transformational leadership styles in reducing non-academic staff's turnover intention.

Herzberg's two-factory theory (Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman 1959), also called motivation-hygiene theory, is the underlying theory that explains what brings satisfaction or

dissatisfaction to employees. The presence of job satisfaction affects employee satisfaction, which is expected to reduce employee turnover intention. Several studies have revealed that job satisfaction plays a significant role in reducing turnover intention (e.g. (Cotton & Tuttle 1986; Lambert, Lynne Hogan & Barton 2001; Meyer, Allen & Smith 1993; Noureen & Abbas 2017; Spector 1997; Van Dick et al. 2004b)). Hence, Herzberg's theory forms the foundation for establishing and understanding the relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover intention.

Herzberg's theory was established by Frederick Herzberg in 1959 and is widely accepted and recognised (Malik & Naeem 2013). In 1959, Herzberg's study began with researching on employee attitudes related to job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. He then built further on his research to develop the motivation-hygiene theory, which provides a list of factors affecting employee attitudes towards their jobs. According to Herzberg, the factors for job satisfaction (and motivation) and job dissatisfaction move on two separate and independent continuums. According to this theory, some job factors cause satisfaction while other job factors prevent dissatisfaction. The opposite of "Satisfaction" is "No Satisfaction"; and the opposite of "Dissatisfaction" is "No Dissatisfaction"(Herzberg 1968).

Herzberg (1968) divided the factors into two categories: Motivator (intrinsic) and hygiene (extrinsic) factors. According to Herzberg's theory, motivators were the main cause of satisfaction, while hygiene factors were the main cause of dissatisfaction with the job. Herzberg's theory states that individuals are more motivated by intrinsic factors compared with extrinsic factors. The growth or motivator factors intrinsic to the job are: achievement; recognition for achievement; the work itself; responsibility; and growth or advancement. These job satisfying factors are the only intrinsic motivators that provide true meaning and fulfilment to employees, which lead to satisfaction and genuine motivation that is sustainable (Herzberg 1968; M. Jarkas, Radosavljevic & Wuyi 2014). The dissatisfaction-avoidance or hygiene factors that are extrinsic to the job are: company policy and administration procedures; supervision; interpersonal relationships; working conditions; salary; status; and security. These extrinsic "maintenance" factors or hygiene needs may serve as demotivators and lead to dissatisfaction if they are not present. However, these factors per se do not provide any motivation; once such needs are satisfied, their effects are only short-term and do not instil any motivation in employees (Larkin, Brantley-Dias & Lokey-Vega 2016; M. Jarkas, Radosavljevic & Wuyi 2014).

In this present study, there are five dimensions of job satisfaction, which are based on the Facet Satisfaction Scale (FSS), which assesses an employee's attitude towards specific aspects of his or her job (Bowling, Wagner & Beehr 2017). Each dimension is examined in relation to Herzberg's theory.

Job satisfaction as a whole was found to mediate the relationship of both paternalistic and transformational leadership styles with non-academic staff's turnover intention. All the five dimensions were each found to mediate the relationship as well. Based on Herzberg's theory, two dimensions of job satisfaction intrinsic factors: work itself and promotional opportunities. The three extrinsic factors are supervision, co-workers and pay. With the presence of paternalistic leadership, satisfaction with supervision had the most significant relationship with turnover intention, followed by satisfaction with work itself, promotional opportunities, pay and co-workers. With the presence of transformational leadership, satisfaction with supervision had the most significant relationship with turnover intention, followed by satisfaction with work itself, promotional opportunities, pay and co-workers. The relationship pattern is the same for both leadership styles.

The findings of this present study show that supervision, which is an extrinsic factor is still the most important factor in influencing non-academic staff's turnover intention. Consistent with Herzberg's theory, the two intrinsic factors, work itself and promotional opportunities were the next most significant factors in influencing non-academic staff's turnover intention.

Therefore, the following hypotheses are fully supported:
H3 Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee turnover intention is fully supported.
H4 Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee turnover intention.

Work Itself Negatively Mediates the Relationship between Leadership Styles (Paternalistic and Transformational) and Turnover Intention

Work itself, which is an intrinsic factor, was found to have a negative mediating effect on the relationship between leadership styles (paternalistic and transformational) and turnover intention. This implies that satisfaction with work itself can further reduce non-academic staff's turnover intention.

According to Herzberg, occupational role is able to fulfil an individual's need for self-actualisation, which influences job satisfaction (Smith & Shields 2013). This can be found in satisfaction with work itself. Consistent with Herzberg's theory that intrinsic factors are the ones that truly provide motivation and satisfaction to employees, this present study found that satisfaction with work itself was the second strongest influence on employee turnover intention, just after satisfaction with supervision. The finding of this present study is in line with the study by Singh, Loncar and Déom (2010) among nurses, who found that intrinsic job satisfaction, versus pay, may be of equal, of if not greater importance. Nurses valued the work itself and liked the idea of helping people, and pay was of secondary importance. This is consistent with Herzberg's theory, and also in the case of non-academic staff in this present study, who valued work itself above extrinsic factors alone. Contrary to popular practitioner beliefs, work itself has been generally found to be the most important aspect that influences job satisfaction in several studies conducted among employees in examining the importance of different job attributes. This does not imply attractive compensation schemes or ineffective supervision are unimportant. Instead, the implication is that there is much influence in ensuring employees have interesting and challenging work. It also clears up the misconception of many employers who think employees are only attracted to the pay in exclusion of other job attributes such as interesting work (Saari & Judge 2004).

It is worth noting that satisfaction with work itself can stem from person-job fit (P-J fit), which is defined as "the relationship of person's characteristics and those of the job or tasks that are performed at work" (Ali Memon, Salleh & Rosli Baharom 2014). P-J fit has also consistently been found to be a significant predictor of positive work-related behaviours, particularly reduction in employee turnover intention. The relationship between PJ-fit and turnover intention can be explained by the fact that there is a good job fit between employees and their job roles. In other words, their skills and capabilities match their job requirements, leading to satisfaction with the work they are doing while generating other positive emotions

and attitudes. This will then lead to lower turnover intention (Ali Memon, Salleh & Rosli Baharom 2014).

The strong negative relationship between satisfaction with work itself and the non-academic staff's turnover intention is further supported by the respondent composition, which mainly comprised Gen-Y employees, also known as millennials (71.6 percent). Gen-Y employees prioritise work-life balance and flexible work schedules (Dowling 2019), which makes satisfaction with work itself a key contributor in determining overall job satisfaction. Moreover, Gen-Y employees typically exhibit creativity and innovation, and actively seek out continuous learning to excel in their work (Williamson 2008), which implies satisfaction with work itself is important in retaining these employees.

Similarly, in the context of self-accrediting universities, non-academic staff need to be happy with their work to motivate them to continue working in the university. This is crucial since the high quality education service required of self-accrediting universities hinges on the performance of all staff, including non-academic staff. In accordance with the MQA COPIA, the university must conduct regular performance review of its non-academic staff. These reviews provide a platform for non-academic staff and their supervisors to discuss opportunities for staff to take up different roles and area of work, which provide learning opportunities as well as keep staff motivated. Moreover, unlike academic staff who often see tangible results through interactions with their students, non-academic staff may not see such results all the time as their work may be more involved in the back-end processes. Hence, it is important that they enjoy the work they are doing.

Therefore, the following hypotheses are fully supported:
H3a Job satisfaction (work itself) mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee turnover intention is fully supported.
H4a Job satisfaction (work itself) mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee turnover intention.

Supervision Negatively Mediates the Relationship Between Leadership Styles (Paternalistic and Transformational) and Turnover Intention

Supervision, which is an extrinsic factor, was found to have a negative mediating effect on the relationship between leadership styles (paternalistic and transformational) and turnover intention. This implies that satisfaction with supervision can further reduce non-academic staff's turnover intention. Furthermore, it is worth noting that satisfaction with supervision had the strongest relationship with non-academic staff turnover intention although it is an extrinsic factors. This confirms that the leadership styles practised by leaders have a significant influence in determining non-academic staff's job satisfaction and turnover intention.

The strong negative relationship between satisfaction with supervision and the non-academic staff's turnover intention is further supported by the respondent composition, which mainly comprised Gen-Y employees, also known as millennials (71.6 percent). Gen-Y employees are used to having a supportive environment that provided opportunities for them to succeed. They also desired regular feedback and praise for their work efforts (Dowling 2019). This shows employees value the relationship with their supervisors, and hence satisfaction with supervision plays a crucial role in determining employees' turnover intention.

A study by Smerek and Peterson (2007) among higher education institutions found that effective supervisors and senior management are crucial in affecting non-academic staff's job satisfaction levels. In line with Herzberg's theory, Jo (2008) found that dissatisfaction with supervisor due to certain management styles, disrespect shown by supervisor was the most significant factor affecting non-academic staff's turnover decisions. This is consistent with the present study's findings where satisfaction with supervision is the most influential factor in non-academic staff's turnover intention.

It is worth noting that university leaders play an important role in fulfilling the intrinsic needs of their subordinates and encouraging them to be creative and self-directive (Jung & Shin 2015). Leaders who communicate with staff and set clear expectations, give staff recognition for their work, provide a reasonable level of work autonomy and self-development opportunities have a positive impact on job satisfaction (Johnsrud 2002; Jung & Shin 2015). This explains why supervision still has the strongest influence on non-academic staff's turnover intention, as leaders, though extrinsic, play the most important role in determining the presence of all other intrinsic factors. Furthermore, leadership style or supervisory relationship has a consistent relationship with job satisfaction and intent to leave throughout

all research, as it sets the scene for either a positive or negative work environment (Coomber & Louise Barriball 2007).

This study's findings are further supported by the social exchange and role theories. The followers are expected to perform according to the tasks assigned to them by their managers. Role ambiguity has negative effects on job performance and satisfaction (Kessler 2013). Hence, the role theory is the cornerstone to understanding the influence of leaders on followers, and why the respective groups behave in a certain manner in an organisational setting. In addition, it explains why leaders' behaviours will have an impact on followers' job satisfaction, and ultimately deciding whether to stay or leave an organisation, above all other factors.

In the context of self-accrediting universities, non-academic staff tend to spend more time with their leaders as they often work on tasks together. Such working relationship is crucial to enable the university to deliver excellent outcomes as leaders and subordinates need to work hand in hand to meet project deadlines. This is in comparison with academic staff who have more autonomy and spend less time with their leaders as they are on their own teaching classes and doing research. Hence, for non-academic staff, supervision plays a huge role in determining their turnover intention.

Therefore, the following hypotheses are fully supported:
H3b Job satisfaction (supervision) mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee turnover intention is fully supported.
H4b Job satisfaction (supervision) mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee turnover intention.

Co-Workers Negatively Mediates the Relationship Between Leadership Styles (Paternalistic and Transformational) and Turnover Intention

In this present study, satisfaction with co-workers refer to non-academic staff's colleagues within their department or in other departments. It excludes their supervisors, since the dimension for satisfaction with supervision is covered separately. Co-workers, which is an extrinsic factor, was found to have a negative mediating effect on the relationship between

leadership styles (paternalistic and transformational) and turnover intention. This implies that satisfaction with co-workers can further reduce non-academic staff's turnover intention. Nevertheless, it was found to be the least important dimension among the five dimensions of job satisfaction. This finding is in line with Herzberg's theory that extrinsic "maintenance" factors or hygiene needs may serve as demotivators and lead to dissatisfaction if they are not present. However, these factors per se do not provide any motivation; once such needs are satisfied, their effects are only short-term and do not instil any motivation in employees (Larkin, Brantley-Dias & Lokey-Vega 2016; M. Jarkas, Radosavljevic & Wuyi 2014).

Nevertheless, some studies have found that relationship with co-workers, especially a sense of belonging from employees' peer group was the most important reason for employees to stay employed, and that negative co-worker relationships were a strong motivator for them to leave their jobs (Tourangeau et al. 2010).

In the case of co-workers, the present study finds that it contributes the least to overall job satisfaction and impact on turnover intention. A study by Ramalho Luz, Luiz de Paula and de Oliveira (2018) found that satisfaction with colleagues are not related to an employee's intention to leave the organisation. This can be attributed to the fact that co-workers exert little influence over an employee, and satisfaction or dissatisfaction with this group of people is of least concern or priority in employees' intention to leave their job. Furthermore, employees' intention to quit is influenced more by their leaders rather than by co-workers (Masum et al. 2016). This finding is consistent with studies on the Theory of Planned Behaviour, which found that subjective norm correlates the least with the behaviour. Subjective norm refers to a person's belief about whether peers or people of importance to the person approve or disapprove of the behaviour (Côté et al. 2012). In this study, co-workers are an employee's peers, and exert no supervision authority over the employee; hence, their opinions do not matter much in an employee's intention to leave the job or organisation. Non-academic staff roles' are also usually clearly defined and different from one another, with tasks being carried out individually, resulting in satisfaction with co-workers being a less important factor in turnover decisions. In sum, although quality relationships with co-workers are important in decreasing turnover intention, it is less important when considered in relation to satisfaction with other aspects like supervision, promotional opportunities, work itself and pay.

The relatively less important role of satisfaction of co-workers in determining employee turnover intention is further supported by the respondent composition, which mainly comprised Gen-Y employees, also known as millennials (71.6 percent). Gen-Y employees are generally career-focused as well as risk-takers who possess little loyalty to the organisation. They will leave the organisation if there are better promotions and career advancement opportunities offered to them (Dowling 2019). Moreover, Gen-Y employees also actively build their social network independent of their workplace (Dowling 2019), making satisfaction with co-workers less important when it comes to a decision to leave the organisation.

In the context of self-accrediting universities, non-academic staff work with both co-workers and their leaders. However, their satisfaction with their leader is deemed more important, as their leader ultimately is the one who will be assigning them tasks and rating their performance. Moreover, with self-accrediting universities needing to retain high quality of education, in which support services by non-academic staff play a crucial role, non-academic staff will not really be concerned with being satisfied with their co-workers as long as it does not hinder them in performing their official duties. Hence, satisfaction with co-workers is of secondary importance in determining turnover intention.

Therefore, the following hypotheses are fully supported:
H3c Job satisfaction (co-workers) mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee turnover intention is fully supported.
H4c Job satisfaction (co-workers) mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee turnover intention.

Pay Negatively Mediates the Relationship Between Paternalistic Leadership Style and Turnover Intention

Pay, which is an extrinsic factor, was found to have a negative mediating effect on the relationship between leadership styles (paternalistic and transformational) and turnover intention. This implies that satisfaction with pay can further reduce non-academic staff's turnover intention.

According to Singh, Loncar and Déom (2010), pay satisfaction is a primary concern to both employers and employees. For employees, pay is obviously important to satisfy their economic needs. Satisfaction with their overall pay is important as it could affect their attitudes towards their jobs, and research has shown that pay dissatisfaction can have undesirable impacts on several employee outcomes.

For example, employees who feel under-rewarded will attempt to restore fairness by reducing inputs, including increased absenteeism, arriving late at work, taking longer breaks, decreasing productivity or ultimately leaving the organisation, which all are undesirable for an employer's bottom line (Singh, Loncar & Déom 2010).

Although economic exchange plays a role in motivating positive work behaviour, it is largely due to an affective attachment between leaders and followers (social exchange). Research has shown that high-quality LMX leads to increased job satisfaction and organisational commitment, along with reduced turnover intention (Erdogan & Bauer 2015). Similarly, the finding of this present study reveals that pay is not the most important factor in reducing non-academic staff's turnover intention. Consistent with Herzberg's theory that extrinsic factors are only short-term motivators compared with intrinsic factors, pay has less influence on turnover intention compared with the two intrinsic factors in this study: work itself and promotional opportunities. According to Coomber and Louise Barriball (2007), pay was not a primary issue in employee retention when satisfaction with other aspects of the job was high. Furthermore, a study by Singh, Loncar and Déom (2010) among nurses found that intrinsic job satisfaction, versus pay, may be of equal, of if not greater importance. Nurses valued the work itself and liked the idea of helping people, and pay was of secondary importance. This is consistent with Herzberg's theory, and also in the case of non-academic staff in this present study, who valued intrinsic factors above extrinsic factors alone.

The finding that pay was not the most important factor in job satisfaction is attributed to the characteristics of Gen-Y or millennials, who formed the majority of respondents (71.6%). Gen-Y employees have a strong desire for greater work-life balance and flexibility in their careers (Dowling 2019). These factors are very important to Gen-Y employees in determining job satisfaction, in addition to a good salary.

In the context of self-accrediting universities, which are considered premium universities to be of high quality as granted by the MQA, non-academic staff want to be associated with the university, and it extends beyond only the pay. Moreover, as part of continuous quality improvement and retention of a university's self-accreditation status, universities evolve to ensure conducive working environment and self-development opportunities for all employees, including non-academic staff. This is in line with the MQA COPIA requirements that require self-accrediting universities to have effective mechanisms for training and career advancement for non-academic staff. The universities are also required to ensure sufficient non-academic staffing to provide support services for the university; such requirement helps in making sure staff are able to focus on their respective areas of work. Hence, pay is not the most important factor in non-academic staff's turnover intention.

Therefore, the following hypotheses are fully supported:

H3d Job satisfaction (pay) mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee turnover intention is fully supported.

H4d Job satisfaction (pay) mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee turnover intention.

Promotional Opportunities Negatively Mediates the Relationship Between Leadership Styles (Paternalistic and Transformational) and Turnover Intention

Promotional opportunities, which is an intrinsic factor, was found to have a negative mediating effect on the relationship between leadership styles (paternalistic and transformational) and turnover intention. This implies that satisfaction with promotional opportunities can further reduce non-academic staff's turnover intention. Consistent with Herzberg's theory that intrinsic factors provide true meaning and fulfilment to employees compared with extrinsic factors, satisfaction with promotional opportunities has a stronger influence on non-academic staff's turnover intention when compared with satisfaction with the two extrinsic factors: pay and co-workers.

This finding is consistent with the study of Ekabu, Nyagah and Kalai (2018) that promotional prospects within an organisation is a crucial factor in influencing employee's intention to stay or leave the organisation. This is because employees feel more motivated to work in

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organisations that provide them with promotional opportunities, and a clear career path to rise to a higher position, instead or remaining stagnant for a prolonged period, which leave employees feeling unfulfilled. When employees see their career plateau with little prospects within the organisation, it will lead to rise in turnover intention as employees want to advance their career in another organisation that can offer them such opportunities. Furthermore, employee promotion leads to increased pay, higher status and elevated self-esteem, resulting in overall increased job satisfaction. Moreover, promotion opportunities promotes self-development among employees, leading to increased satisfaction with work itself (Ekabu, Nyagah & Kalai 2018). In addition, the majority of respondents (71.6 percent) in this study comprised Gen-Y employees, also known as millennials. Gen-Y employees typically possess little loyalty to their organisations, and actively seek promotions and opportunities for advancement based on merit instead of through longevity in an organisation. These employees are risk-takers in terms of their career and are willing to move on to other employers quicker than the older generation of the workforce (Dowling 2019).

This explains why promotional opportunity in this present study is a strong influencer of non-academic staff's turnover intention; it is a stepping stone to other extrinsic factors like pay. It also supports Herzberg's theory that intrinsic factors are the main cause of satisfaction, and individuals are more motivated by intrinsic compared with extrinsic factors. In the context of self-accrediting universities, non-academic staff generally desire to build their career and remain with the university. Moreover, the MQA COPIA requires self-accrediting universities to have effective mechanisms for training and career advancement for non-academic staff. Hence, promotional opportunity is of much value to non-academic staff for their career progression, which motivates them to remain with the university.

Therefore, the following hypotheses are fully supported:
H3e Job satisfaction (promotional opportunities) mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee turnover intention is fully supported.
H4e Job satisfaction (promotional opportunities) mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee turnover intention.

5.3 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the findings based on the research aims. The key observation from the research findings is that leadership style is an important construct that influences non-academic staff's turnover intention. In particular, leaders who exhibit benevolence, moral and integrity behaviours as well as possessing capability to motivate employees have significant impact in influencing non-academic staff's decisions to quit or stay in their jobs.

The effect of leadership style is further influenced by different aspects of job satisfaction, which together impact non-academic staff's turnover intention. In particular, satisfaction with supervision was the strongest predictor of non-academic staff's turnover intention. This underscores the importance of leaders in non-academic staff's decisions to quite or stay in their jobs. The next chapter focuses on the theoretical and managerial implications, the limitations of the study that affect its generalisability, and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSION

6.0 Introduction

Although a plethora of literature currently exists on leadership, job satisfaction and turnover intention, few studies have examined in detail the leadership and job satisfaction factors that really impact on an employee's decision to quit or stay in the organisation. The majority of studies have only considered the leadership styles and job satisfaction in unidimensional form when assessing their impact on turnover intention. In the context of self-accrediting universities in Malaysia, this present study attempts to address this gap by examining leadership style and non-academic staff's turnover intention with job satisfaction as a mediator.

The findings from this present study have been discussed in detail in the previous chapter. This chapter concludes the discussion, and highlights the main theoretical and managerial implications of the study. It further outlines the major limitations of the study and indicates direction for future research in the domains of turnover intention and leadership.

6.1 Implications

This present study has a number of theoretical and managerial implications for both scholars and practitioners, particularly in the field of organisational behaviour.

6.1.1 Theoretical Implications

The relationship between the domains of leadership style, job satisfaction and turnover intention has been the focus of this present study. Although leadership style is widely recognised as an important element for influencing employee job satisfaction and turnover intention, very few studies have examined the relationship between leadership styles (paternalistic and transformational) and turnover intention in the context of non-academic staff employed in self-accrediting universities in Malaysia.

The impact of paternalistic leadership on employee work attitudes (e.g. job satisfaction) and job performance has yet to be studied (Cheng et al. 2004). In addition, Pellegrini and Scandura (2008) state there is a need to examine the impact of paternalistic leadership on performance and turnover. In a recent study by Jackson (2016), it was highlighted that there is a huge gap in the literature on paternalism, which has been ignored despite its prevalence in non-Western countries. Much research is needed to understand the nature of paternalism and positive outcomes from this type of leadership.

To date, to the best of our knowledge, there have been very few studies conducted in Malaysia that cover both paternalistic and transformational leadership in a single study. According to Cheng et al. (2004), there are similarities between the dimensions of paternalistic leadership and transformational leadership, which was developed in the Western cultural context. Although similarities exist, the effects of transformational and paternalistic leadership will still have significant differences in different cultural contexts, especially when each dimension is examined in detail. Moreover, both leadership styles may have cultural-specific ideologies that are not applicable to other cultural contexts (Cheng et al. 2004). It is worth noting that the line between transformational and paternalistic leadership is blurring, as Western culture permeates the Asian region. The new generation is moving towards individualism and autonomy, leading to traditional and modern values coexisting in the region (Koo & Park 2018). Hence, this study fill the research gap by examining the impact of each dimension of transformational and paternalistic leadership styles on non-academic staff's turnover intention.

Previous research on the effect of leadership style on employee turnover intention is therefore limited in its ability to provide definite guidelines and advice on the best way to apply suitable leadership styles that will ultimately influence turnover intention. It is believed that this present study has added value to the existing literature, providing an enhanced understanding and new perspective of the relationship between the two constructs.

The research and findings of this present study contribute to the underlying theories, which represent the theoretical perspectives that form the rationale for the relationship between

leadership styles and employee turnover intention. For instance, in the domain of role theory, the findings confirmed that leaders play an important role in leading, coaching and mentoring their subordinates to ensure job expectations and roles are clearly defined and communicated. The influence of leaders on their subordinates is significant, which explains why leaders' behaviours have a significant impact on subordinates' job satisfaction, and ultimately deciding whether to stay or leave their jobs or organisation. As for social exchange theory, this study adds to the understanding the importance of quality exchanges between leaders and subordinates in influencing subordinates' turnover intention. Although economic exchange play a role in motivating subordinates, the findings from this present study confirmed that high leader-member exchange relationships built between leaders and subordinates were key to reducing turnover intention. Furthermore, this study has advanced the present knowledge with regard to the important link between leadership styles and job satisfaction on non-academic staff's turnover intention, with job satisfaction acting as a mediator between leadership style and turnover intention.

Job satisfaction was found to mediate non-academic staff's turnover intention and established that certain dimensions of paternalistic and transformational leadership styles are effective in increasing job satisfaction, and consequently reducing non-academic staff's turnover intention.

Although paternalistic leadership as a whole was a significant predictor in reducing non-academic staff's turnover intention, only benevolence and morality behaviours were found to be significantly related to turnover intention. Authoritarianism did not have any significant relationship with turnover intention. This is contrary to expectations whereby employees in Malaysia, which has a high power distance, usually expect clear directions from their leaders for them to follow. Employees feel sceptical of leaders' capabilities when leaders engage with them for feedback, as it gives employees the impression that the leader is incapable of making a decision. Based on this finding, it shows that the newer generation, particularly millennials who formed the majority of respondents in this study, expect to be actively engaged instead of only receiving instructions with no room for discussion. Consequently, the benevolence-morality paternalistic leadership model is here to stay, while the authoritarianism-dominated model is diminishing.

As a whole, transformational leadership was a significant predictor in reducing non-academic staff's turnover intention. Surprisingly, only inspirational motivation was found to

be significantly related to turnover intention. The other there dimensions, namely idealised influence, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration were individually not significantly related to turnover intention. According to Barnett, McCormick and Conners (2001), inspirational motivation is closely linked with idealised influence. The presence of individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation, which evidence a leader's ability to make followers feel valuable and confident in the leader's leadership ability, strengthens a leader's inspirational motivation (Avolio, Waldman & Yammarino 1991). This may be the reason why only inspirational motivation is found to have a significant relationship with turnover intention, as it is the most tangible outcome of a leader practising transformational leadership; the other three dimensions combined play a supporting role to inspirational motivation, rather than being significant on their own. This finding shows that it is most important for leaders to start off on the right note, by being able to provide purpose and motivation to followers, as well as communicate their expectations clearly to get followers on board towards achieving the organisation's vision and goals. Subordinates do not distinguish between idealised influence (charisma), individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation. Hence, leaders should continue to practise these three behaviours, but not treat them as mutually exclusive to one another.

The dimensions of job satisfaction were also categorised into intrinsic and extrinsic factors, and were examined in relation to Herzberg's two-factor theory. This is the underlying theory that explains what brings satisfaction or dissatisfaction to employees. For both paternalistic and transformational leadership styles, satisfaction with supervision was the strongest predictor of non-academic staff's job satisfaction. This finding is also consistent with the role and social exchange theory, where the leader-subordinate relationship is the most important factor in an employee's career. In line with Herzberg's theory, the two intrinsic factors, satisfaction with work itself and promotional opportunities were also stronger predictors of job satisfaction compared with the extrinsic factors, satisfaction with pay and co-workers. In particular, this finding confirms the fact that pay is not the only factor that motivates employees, which is contrary to the popular expectation that employees' first priority is the pay check amount, regardless of all other factors.

By examining each dimension in detail, the study's findings has improved the understanding of the actual elements in leadership behaviour and job satisfaction that influence employee turnover intention. Moreover, the characteristics of Gen-Y employees, who formed the

majority of the respondents in this study, have been linked to reasons for the relationships examined above.

Finally, this study sought to introduce, and has achieved, several methodological improvements. Unlike previous studies that were conducted in only one or two universities or organisations, this present study involves eleven self-accrediting universities in Malaysia. The homogeneity of this sample is expected to result in meaningful findings, since all the self-accrediting universities have already been recognised by the MQA to have reached a certain level of performance. The similar qualities among self-accrediting universities are expected to control for other elements that may affect employee turnover intention. In view of the fact that past researchers based their findings on a limited sample size, which attracted criticism on its validity, this present study provided evidence of validity with large number of samples in a real life work scenario that are similar across the self-accrediting universities.

6.1.2 Managerial Implications

There are several managerial implications that are drawn from the findings of this study. Firstly, this study highlights the fact that retention of non-academic staff talents are equally important as academic staff in the higher education sector. For self-accrediting universities that need to meet the standards in the MQA Code of Practice for Institutional Audit (COPIA), much emphasis is given to high quality support services to ensure academic programmes can be delivered effectively as well as providing good student experience throughout their studies at the university. Hence, the COPIA also requires self-accrediting universities to have mechanisms in place to ensure appropriate staff are recruited to perform the roles as well as sufficient training and promotional opportunities for non-academic staff. A key characteristic of a world-class university is "not only availability of abundant resources, but concentration of talent, including administrative staff and their expertise" (Jung & Shin 2015, p.897). Employees of higher education institutions can be classified into two categories: academic staff, who are responsible for the academic affairs such as research and teaching; and administrative staff, who are responsible for supporting research and teaching activities (Küskü 2003). In the global and Malaysian context, the majority of studies on human resource management, including job satisfaction and turnover intention in university setting was conducted only for academic staff (Abouserie 1996; Ibrahim, Kassa & Tasisa 2017; Küskü 2003; Owence, Pinagase & Mercy 2014; Rosser 2004; Santhapparaj & Alam 2005;

Wan Ahmad & Abdurahman 2015; Watanabe & Falci 2016). Studies on non-academic staff are sparse (Smerek & Peterson 2007). To date, in Malaysian context, the few studies available include both academic and non-academic staff (Sirat et al. 2009). Despite the increasingly important roles played by non-academic staff in higher educational institutions, little scholarly attention has been given to them; there has been no study solely dedicated to non-academic staff. In line with the study of Küskü (2003), the job nature and expectations for both academic and administrative staff are extremely different, and it does not seem to be rational to evaluate the job satisfaction levels of both groups on the same basis. Moreover, for self-accrediting universities, the MQA COPIA places emphasis on both academic and support services. Both must work hand in hand in order to produce excellent quality of education. This shows that a study focusing on non-academic staff particularly in self-accrediting universities is necessary, and this present study fills this research gap.

The findings also indicate that while paternalistic and transformational leadership styles are effective in reducing non-academic staff's turnover intention, certain behaviours that used to be accepted by previous generations are no longer applicable to the current generation of employees.

In paternalistic leadership, authoritarianism, which refers to leader behaviours that impose absolute authority and control over subordinates and demand full submission from them is no longer welcome in the workplace. Employees expect their voice to be heard and want to be involved in decision-making rather than being told what to do with no room for discussion or negotiation. Managing employees using fear tactics is no longer effective, and is resisted by employees. It is therefore important for leaders to be open to constructive feedback, actively engage with their subordinates and involve them in the decision-making process where appropriate. On the other hand, benevolence and morality behaviours were found to be important to reduce non-academic staff's turnover intention. Benevolence refers to leader behaviours that show personalised, holistic concern for subordinates' personal and family welfare. When benevolent leaders provide subordinates with genuine care and help, they reciprocate with loyalty and respect for the leaders. This in return, motivates them to continue working in their jobs. Morality refers to leader behaviours that show superior personal virtues or characteristics that enable leaders to gain respect from subordinates. The leader shows selflessness, moral character, high ethical standards and integrity. In today's workplace, leaders' behaviours are watched closely by subordinates, since leaders are expected to lead by example. Leaders who abuse power or do not walk the talk are seen as hypocrites and a

disgrace to the organisation. On the other hand, leaders with high integrity motivate subordinates to practise similar principles, and motivate them to continue working in their jobs. Given the importance of leaders' ethical behaviours in influencing the work environment, ethics should be made a compulsory component of all leaders' training and development programmes. From a strategic viewpoint, the findings of this present study further imply that universities should employ ethics as a significant measure in recruitment and promotional plans of employees to foster an ethical work climate. In the recruitment process, possible ways to incorporate ethics is through conducting ethical due diligence. Meanwhile, the university should highlight ethical values expected of existing employees if they are seeking promotion. This is of key importance especially to self-accrediting universities where ethical practices are vital to retention of the status. Any unethical behaviour risks breaching the regulations, resulting in revocation of the self-accreditation status. This strategy is also applicable to any other industry which is governed by the relevant regulations.

In transformational leadership, it is most important for leaders to exhibit inspirational motivation in order to reduce non-academic staff's turnover intention. An inspirational leader must first creates awareness of the team and organisation's mission or vision. Inspirational leaders exude behaviours that provide purpose and motivation to followers. These leaders also communicate their expectations clearly, set a positive outlook for the organisation's future and show strong commitment to work with followers towards achieving shared vision and goals. When employees have a clear purpose and direction, this keeps them motivated to continue working in their jobs. Although this present study found that idealised influence, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration do not individually have an impact on non-academic staff's turnover intention, it is important to note that these behaviours are crucial in strengthening a leader's inspirational motivation. For instance, individualised consideration involves leaders identifying their subordinates' weaknesses and strengths and supporting their development and growth. It is of no use if a leader provides purpose and motivation to followers, but does not invest time into mentoring and supporting followers to help them achieve growth. On the flip side, leaders can provide much care and support to subordinates, but if there is no clear purpose and direction, employees find no reason to stay in their jobs. In sum, inspirational motivation is the cornerstone in keeping employees motivated to remain in their jobs, and needs to be supported by idealised influence, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration behaviours.

Job satisfaction, which mediates the relationship between leadership style and employee turnover intention shows that this factor plays a crucial role in affecting employees' decision on whether to quit or stay in their jobs. As discussed earlier, high employee turnover, which stems from turnover intention has significant negative financial impact on organisations, including universities. This warrants attention to managing employees' job satisfaction efforts to reduce employee turnover. With regard to job satisfaction, contrary to expectations, pay is not the first and foremost factor in determining non-academic staff's job satisfaction and decision to quit or stay in their jobs. The most important factor was supervision, in spite of it being extrinsic, which is linked to the leadership behaviours exhibited by leaders. The influence of leaders' behaviours on subordinates can never be overemphasised, and hence is crucial for universities to invest in leadership training to equip leaders to lead their teams effectively. The importance of leadership is further underpinned by Malaysia being a collectivist culture, where leader-subordinate relationship is like a family relationship and group goals are prioritised over individual interests. In particular, leaders must be trained to be able to lead with a clear vision, be open to constructive feedback and engage actively with subordinates in decision-making. Leadership is not a one-man show, as all employees contribute to the success of the university. Non-academic staff should also be trained to engage actively with their leaders and be innovative, instead of only relying on their leaders to tell them what to do. In other words, there must be mutual understanding between leaders and subordinates to voice their opinions with respect and accept differences from one another.

In addition, satisfaction with work itself and promotional opportunities were found to be strong predictors of non-academic staff's turnover intention. This implies the importance of recruitment policies and practices to ensure appropriate person-job fit so that employees feel satisfied and fulfilled with the work they are doing. Focus should also be given to non-academic staff in terms of promotional opportunities so that employees have a clear direction in terms of advancement in their career. In order to achieve this, universities also need to invest in upskilling non-academic staff to enable them to improve their skills and take on more complex portfolios.

6.2 Limitations of the Research

This present study has a number of limitations. The respondents in this study were non-academic staff employed in self-accrediting universities in Malaysia. Hence, the findings from this study may not be generalised to organisations in different industries or countries, especially those that do not share similar cultural values. This research is limited to a specific country with known cultural characteristics, which raises the risk of generalisation (Didik, Rofiaty & Mintarti 2018). In order to develop a more extensive understanding of non-academic staff's perception of leadership style and turnover intention, studies on non-academic staff in different categories of universities, and comparison with other countries, for instance public universities in two different countries could be done for future studies.

The second limitation is that the results of this study depended on the extent to which respondents understood the questions, and responded according to their genuine perceptions. Data for all variables were non-academic staff's perceptions, so results of this present study reflect only their perceptions. Some non-academic staff may have responded to the questionnaire items for the sake of completing the questionnaire, or might have rated their level of job satisfaction higher than actual since they may not have been actively making comparisons with other organisations and are lack of this information. All these unfavourable behavioural attributes might distort the reliability and validity of the research instrument. In addition, respondents were informed that the survey was conducted for research purpose, which reduces the benefits they may receive compared with data collected for administrative purpose.

This might have limited their effort in answering the questions since the outcome was not immediate and may not be implemented by their respective universities.

Thirdly, this present study is not a longitudinal study, and like any other cross-sectional study, it can only provide a static perspective on fit. As the data were collected from non-academic staff at a fixed period of time, the direction of causality cannot be determined. Clearly, a longitudinal approach would have placed the researcher in a better position to draw causal conclusions. Therefore, only conclusions or discussions of the general relationships between the variables of interest could be drawn.

Fourthly, the job satisfaction dimensions that have been used in this present study were solely based on the findings in the past literature. While these have been applied and validated in various institutional contexts, previous studies have not tested the scales measuring the dimensions in the context of higher education. Despite this limitation, by supporting the findings of previous researchers, these findings contribute to, and extend, the literature on understanding the significant impact that leadership styles and job satisfaction could have on employee turnover intention.

Lastly, different cultural and national contexts may limit the generalisability of the results. The findings of this study might or might not have the same implications for leaders and non-academic staff in different cultural environment as the dominant values of the respondents in this present study may not be consistent with individuals in other countries. Comparative studies across various sectors besides higher education sector and cultures are needed in order to fully understand many of the constructs discussed in this present study.

6.3 Directions for Future Research

While this present study has explored the relationship between leadership styles and turnover intention, future endeavours should be dedicated to comparing these findings with similar predictors and criterion in other contexts. Overall, this present study suggest that leaders in self-accrediting universities in Malaysia should consider the important role their leadership style plays in influencing non-academic staff's turnover intention. In addition leaders also contribute to specific aspects of job satisfaction, which is crucial in determining non-academic's staff decisions to stay or leave their jobs.

Should a similar study be carried out for other categories of higher education institutions, for instance public universities, private universities and colleges, it might determine whether any differences exist compared with self-accrediting universities. Clearly, this is an area that calls for further investigation. In addition, this study could also be replicated within other service industries, including healthcare, manufacturing, banking services, and insurance services, to examine the hypothesised relationships between leadership style and turnover intention in different industries.

Alternatively, introducing a new variable such as inclusive leadership into the framework, or replacing the transformational leadership style can also provide a base for future research. For instance, authentic leadership, which is gaining much attention among researchers (Jeong, Lee & Kim 2017), is a possible leadership candidate.

Another option for future study is to expand the reach of the study to leaders themselves. This present study was design to measure the level of perception of non-academic staff towards their immediate supervisor's leadership style, and its influence on their turnover intention in the university context. By expanding this type of study to include the leaders, it may result in a comparative research study of leaders' and non-academic staff's perceptions. Such a study would provide insights into leaders' perceptions of their own leadership style as compared with perceptions to their non-academic staff. With this, a fuller understanding can be obtained by gaining perspectives from both groups of respondents. However, the inclusion of leaders would require the application of alternative forms of research methodology that minimise self-bias.

Moreover, the quantitative method used in this study may limit the amount of that which can be gathered from non-academic staff on the constructs under study. Hence, it is recommended the future studies adopt more comprehensive qualitative methods that include interviews in order to allow respondents to express their view in accordance to the interview questions. As non-academic staff may feel uneasy about expressing opinions about their leaders, it is important to put in place necessary measures to ensure the interviews are conducted discreetly and that all responses are not identifiable to any individual. This information will enhance the richness of information on the factors that affect non-academic staff's turnover intention.

An alternative expansion in future studies could focus on academic staff in self-accrediting universities using similar variables used in this present study. The leadership styles for academic staff may differ from non-academic staff as the job nature and expectations for both groups of staff are extremely different. Non-academic staff tend to have a closer relationship with their supervisors compared with academic staff, as many of their tasks are monitored by their supervisors. On the other hand, academic staff, who spend most of their time teaching students or doing their research, have minimal contact with their supervisors, and their teaching tasks are carried out with high autonomy (Küskü 2003). With this information, a

comparison study can be done between the leadership styles for both academic and non-academic staff. This will enrich the body of knowledge on leadership and provide fuller understanding on managing different groups of staff in the university.

Finally, this survey was conducted in universities without considering whether non-academic's turnover intention led actual turnover, which means they resigned from their jobs at the university. This is because the survey was anonymous, as it was not possible to identify the respondents for follow up. Hence, it is recommended that future research should differentiate between respondents who actually resigned from their jobs and those who did not resign from their jobs. With this, studies can compare factors that ultimately lead to non-academic staff leaving their jobs at the university.

6.4 Conclusion

This present study has emphasised the importance of the links between leadership style, job satisfaction and non-academic staff's turnover intention at self-accrediting universities in Malaysia. From the results of the study, it can be concluded that leadership style is an important construct that influences the turnover intention among non-academic staff. This study has also provided empirical evidence of the impact of job satisfaction on non-academic staff's turnover intention.

This study contributes to the existing knowledge on leadership styles (i.e. paternalistic and transformational), non-academic staff's turnover intention and job satisfaction. It achieves this by firstly providing a better understanding of the relationship between non-academic staff's perceptions of their leaders' leadership style and their turnover intention. Second, the findings of this study indicate that certain dimensions of paternalistic and transformational leadership styles are individually significant in influencing non-academic staff's turnover intention. The results reveal that benevolence and morality in paternalistic leadership, and inspirational motivation in transformational leadership are likely to be strong influencers of non-academic staff's turnover intention. Non-academic staff value the care provided by their leaders, and look up to their leaders to set a good model or example. At the same time, non-academic staff expect leaders to provide them with a clear purpose and direction, which gives them motivation to continue in their jobs.

The third significant contribution is that specific dimensions of job satisfaction were identified to be significant influencers of non-academic staff's turnover intention. The strongest predictor was satisfaction with supervision, which confirms the importance of leadership as a primary factor in determining non-academic staff's satisfaction with their jobs. In particular, the intrinsic factors, satisfaction with work itself and promotional opportunities were found to be more important than extrinsic factors, satisfaction with pay and co-workers. This is contrary to the popular belief that money is the most important factor that motivates employees to stay with the organisation.

The fourth significant contribution is that this study's findings provide information on the current national cultural values in relation to Hofstede's cultural dimensions theory, whose study was done over 30 years ago. There have been significant changes in Malaysia's national cultural values: the society which used to have a very high power distance is moving towards lower power distance, which implies employees want to be engaged in decision-making and not just being told what to do. In addition, the society which used to be bound by rules and traditions are now moving towards modernisation where persistence, perseverance and preparing for the future is emphasised and valued.

Overall, the results of this study serve to increase the understanding of the effect of leadership styles on employees' turnover intention, as well as the role of job satisfaction as a mediator. In sum, leaders' behaviours are most important in influencing employee turnover intention, rather than adopting a specific leadership style. As evidenced by the finding of this present study, leaders' behaviours that influence turnover intention are drawn from both paternalistic and transformational leadership styles. The new generation is moving towards individualism and autonomy, leading to traditional and modern values coexisting in the region.

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Appendix 1: Ethics Approval

SHR Project 2018/199 - Ethics Clearance

Sally Fried <sfried@swin.edu.au> on behalf of RES Ethics <resethics@swin.edu.au>

Tue 3/7/2018 8:02 AM

To: MungLing Voon <mvoon@swinburne.edu.my>;

Cc: RES Ethics <resethics@swin.edu.au>; Tuan Luu <ttluu@swin.edu.au>; Evelyn Gan <evgan@swinburne.edu.my>; Ethics Swinburne Sarawak <ethics@swinburne.edu.my>;

To: Dr Voon Mung Ling, Sarawak

SHR Project 2018/199 - Leadership Style and Job Satisfaction: Their impact on non-academic staff's turnover intention in self-accrediting universities in Malaysia
Dr Voon Mung Ling, Evelyn Gan (Student) – Sarawak/ Dr Tuan Luu - FBL
Approved duration: 03-07-2018 to 08-01-2021 [Adjusted]

I refer to the ethical review of the above project by a Subcommittee (SHESC3) of Swinburne's Human Research Ethics Committee (SUHREC). Your response to the review as e-mailed on 1 July 2018 was put to the Subcommittee delegates for consideration.

I am pleased to advise that, as submitted to date, ethics clearance has been given for the above project to proceed in line with standard on-going ethics clearance conditions outlined below.

- The approved duration is **3 July 2018** to **8 January 2021** unless an extension is subsequently approved.

- All human research activity undertaken under Swinburne auspices must conform to Swinburne and external regulatory standards, including the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research* and with respect to secure data use, retention and disposal.

- The named Swinburne Chief Investigator/Supervisor remains responsible for any personnel appointed to or associated with the project being made aware of ethics clearance conditions, including research and consent procedures or instruments approved. Any change in chief investigator/supervisor, and addition or removal of other personnel/students from the project, requires timely notification and SUHREC endorsement.

- The above project has been approved as submitted for ethical review by or on behalf of SUHREC. Amendments to approved procedures or instruments ordinarily require prior ethical appraisal/clearance. SUHREC must be notified immediately or as soon as possible thereafter of (a) any serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants and any redress measures; (b) proposed changes in protocols; and (c) unforeseen events which might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project.

- At a minimum, an annual report on the progress of the project is required as well as at the conclusion (or abandonment) of the project. Information on project monitoring and variations/additions, self-audits and progress reports can be found on the Research Intranet pages.

- A duly authorised external or internal audit of the project may be undertaken at any time.

The delegates would like to thank you for making it exceptionally easy to follow and understand the changes that had been made.

Please contact the Research Ethics Office if you have any queries about on-going ethics clearance, citing the Swinburne project number. A copy of this e-mail should be retained as part of project record-keeping.

Best wishes for the project.

Yours sincerely,

Sally Fried

Secretary, SHESC3

All conditions pertaining to the ethics clearance were properly met throughout this study. The necessary reports have been submitted accordingly.

Appendix 2: Study Questionnaire

Online Survey Preamble

Dear Participant,

You are invited to take part in a research study about employee satisfaction, particularly among non-academic staff in self-accrediting universities in Malaysia. Your cooperation in responding to this survey is highly appreciated. Your views will be invaluable in identifying strategies to enhance the working environment for non-academic staff.

Project Title: Leadership Style and Job Satisfaction: Their impact on non-academic staff's turnover intention in self-accrediting universities in Malaysia

Introduction
The purpose of this study is to examine the impact of leadership style and job satisfaction on the potential of full-time non-academic staff leaving an organisation, particularly self-accrediting universities in Malaysia.

This study aims to achieve the following:
To develop a better understanding of how leadership styles and job satisfaction affect employee turnover intention.

Procedures
This study is voluntary. The survey will take about 15 minutes to complete. If you agree to be in this study, please complete the survey and click the "Submit" button upon completion.

Withdrawal from Participation in this Study
If you decide not to be in the study, you may stop at any time.

Risks and Benefits of Being in the Study
Participating in this study would not pose risk to your safety or well-being. The study's potential benefits include understanding why employees want to leave an organisation and what factors cause an employee to be satisfied or dissatisfied.

Provision of Services to Participants Adversely Affected by the Research
If you experience distress during your participation, you do not have to continue. Please contact the Counselling Department in your university if you require help.

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Privacy

Since participants are non-identifiable, reports coming out of this study will not share the identities of individual participants.

Who to Contact

If you require further information about this study, please do not hesitate to contact:

> **Miss Evelyn Gan**
> **Policy, Planning and Quality Unit**
> **Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak Campus**
> **Jalan Simpang Tiga**
> **93350 Kuching Sarawak**
> **Tel: 082-260727**
> **Email: evgan@swinburne.edu.my**

> **Dr Voon Mung Ling**
> **Faculty of Business, Design and Arts**
> **Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak Campus**
> **Jalan Simpang Tiga**
> **93350 Kuching Sarawak**
> **Tel: 082-260707**
> **Email: mvoon@swinburne.edu.my**

Concerns or complaints about the project:

> This project has been approved by or on behalf of Swinburne's Human Research Ethics Committee (SUHREC) in line with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research. If you have any concerns or complaints about the conduct of this project, you can contact:
>
> Ethics & Integrity Officer, School of Research,
> Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak Campus,
> Jalan Simpang Tiga, 93350 Kuching Sarawak
> Tel +6082-260822 or ethics@swinburne.edu.my

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Background Information

1. University Name:

( ) International Medical University (IMU)   ( ) Universiti Teknologi Petronas (UTP)

( ) Multimedia University (MMU)   ( ) Universiti Tenaga Nasional (UNITEN)

( ) Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak Campus   ( ) Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman (UTAR)

( ) Universiti Putra Malaysia   ( ) Universiti Utara Malaysia

( ) Universiti Sains Malaysia   ( ) University of Malaya

( ) Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM)

2. Gender:

( ) Male

( ) Female

3. Age:

( ) 18-30 years   ( ) 51-60 years

( ) 31-40 years   ( ) More than 60 years

( ) 41-50 years

4. Employment status at this university:

( ) Permanent/ Tenured

( ) Fixed term/ Full-time contract (please specify number of years)

[   ]

5. Your supervisor's gender:

( ) Male

( ) Female

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6. Your current position at this university:

○ Assistant   ○ Manager

○ Officer   ○ Senior Manager

○ Executive   ○ Assistant Director

○ Assistant Manager   ○ Director

○ Others, please specify

[   ]

7. How long have you been working at this university?

○ Less than 1 year   ○ 11-15 years

○ 1-5 years   ○ 16-20 years

○ 6-10 years   ○ More than 20 years

8. Your highest educational level:

○ SPM   ○ Bachelor's Degree

○ STPM   ○ Master's Degree

○ Diploma   ○ PhD

○ Others, please specify

[   ]

9. Your current salary at this university:

○ Below RM5,000   ○ RM15,001-RM20,000

○ RM5,000-RM10,000   ○ More than RM20,000

○ RM10,001-RM15,000

Leadership Styles

The purpose of this section is to understand the leadership styles of your supervisor. Please read each statement carefully and choose the answer that most accurately describes how you feel about your supervisor's leadership style.

10. My supervisor never takes revenge when someone has done something wrong to him/her at the workplace.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

11. My supervisor always puts priority on maintaining peace and harmony in the workplace.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

12. My supervisor employs people whose values are similar to his/ hers.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

13. My supervisor does not envy others' abilities and virtues.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

14. My supervisor ordinarily shows a kind concern for my work and personal well-being.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

15. My supervisor uses his/her authority to seek special privileges for himself/herself.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

16. My supervisor takes very thoughtful care of subordinates.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

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17. My supervisor doesn't take the credit for my achievements and contributions for himself/herself.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

18. My supervisor encourages me when I encounter work and personal problems.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

19. My supervisor tries to understand what the cause is when I don't perform well.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

20. My supervisor does not take advantage of me for personal gain.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

21. My supervisor is like a family member when he/she gets along with us.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

22. My supervisor expresses concern about my daily life beyond work relations.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

23. My supervisor does not use personal relationships or back-door practices to obtain illicit personal gains.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

24. My supervisor will help me when I'm in an emergency.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

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25. My supervisor asks me to obey his/her instructions completely.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

26. My supervisor meets my needs according to my personal requests.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

27. My supervisor determines all decisions in the department regardless of whether they are important or not.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

28. My supervisor shows concern for my family members.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

29. My supervisor always has the last say in meetings.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

30. My supervisor helps me resolve difficult problems in my daily life.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

31. My supervisor always behaves in a commanding fashion in front of employees.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

32. My supervisor talks optimistically about the future.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

33. My supervisor makes me feel pressured when working with him/her.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

34. My supervisor expresses confidence that goals will be achieved.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

35. My supervisor exercises strict discipline over subordinates.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

36. My supervisor talks about my most important values and beliefs.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

37. My supervisor scolds us when we can't accomplish our tasks.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

38. My supervisor talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

39. My supervisor emphasises that our department must have the best performance among all the departments in the university.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

40. My supervisor considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

41. My supervisor makes us follow his/her rules to get things done.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

42. My supervisor only penalises the subordinates if they do not follow the rules or instructions.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

43. My supervisor gives a convincing vision of the future.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

44. My supervisor specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

45. My supervisor suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

46. My supervisor emphasises the importance of having a collective sense of mission.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

47. My supervisor seeks different perspectives when solving problems.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

48. My supervisor gets me to look at problems from many different angles.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

49. My supervisor considers me as having different needs, abilities and aspirations from others.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

50. My supervisor is prepared to challenge the status quo when the situation is suitable.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

51. My supervisor spends time teaching and coaching me to improve my performance.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

52. My supervisor goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

53. My supervisor treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

54. My supervisor acts in ways that build my respect.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

55. My supervisor helps me in developing my strengths.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

56. My supervisor instils pride in me for being associated with him/her.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

57. My supervisor displays a sense of power and confidence.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Job Satisfaction

The purpose of this section is to understand how you feel about your present job, what things you are satisfied with and what things you are not satisfied with. Please read each statement carefully and choose the answer that best represents how you feel about these aspects of your job.

58. I am satisfied with the types of work I do in my job.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

59. I would be more satisfied with my job if I were doing tasks that are different from the ones I do now.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

60. Overall, I am very satisfied with the type of work I do in my job.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

61. I am satisfied with the way my supervisor supervises me.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

62. I would be more satisfied with my job if I had a different supervisor.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

63. Overall, I am very satisfied with this person as my supervisor.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

64. I am satisfied with my current co-workers.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

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65. I would be more satisfied with my job if some of my co-workers did not work here.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

66. Overall, I am very satisfied with my co-workers.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

67. I am satisfied with my salary.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

68. I would be more satisfied with my job if my salary were higher.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

69. Overall, I am very satisfied with my salary.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

70. I am satisfied with my opportunities for promotion.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

71. I would be more satisfied with my job if I had more opportunities for promotion.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

72. Overall, I am very satisfied with my opportunities for promotion.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

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73. All in all I am satisfied with my job.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

74. In general, I don't like my job.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

75. In general, I like working here.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Turnover Intention

The following section aims to ascertain the extent to which you intend to stay at the organisation. Please read each statement carefully and choose the answer that best represents your feelings <u>during the past 9 months.</u>

76. I have often considered leaving my job.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

77. I am actively on the search of alternative job opportunities.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

78. I find my job is satisfying in fulfilling my personal needs.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

79. I am often frustrated as I cannot achieve my personal work-related goals.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

80. My personal values at work are often compromised.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

81. I often dream about getting another job that will better suit my personal needs.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

82. I am likely to accept another job at the same compensation level should it be offered to me.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

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