Universidad de Oviedo

Programa de Doctorado en Economía y Empresa

Investigación de los factores que afectan a la intención de rotación de los empleados en el sector educativo de las universidades privadas en Egipto

Investigating the Factors Affecting Employee turnover intention in the higher education sector of private universities in Egypt

Tesis Doctoral

Autor: Nadeen Aboudahab
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Autor: Nadeen Aboudahab

Director:
Jesús Ángel del Brío González

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RESUMEN DEL CONTENIDO DE TESIS DOCTORAL

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2.- Autor	
Nombre: Nadeen	
Programa de Doctorado: Economía y Empresa	
Órgano responsable: CIP y Comisión académica del programa de doctorado en Economía y Empresa	

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RESUMEN (en español)

Antecedentes: La intención de rotación ha surgido como una noción fundamental en la gestión de los logros profesionales de los empleados y la estabilidad de la empresa en todos los niveles en el siglo veintiuno. El fenómeno de la alta rotación en los entornos de educación superior tiene efectos adversos en las instituciones académicas, ya que desde el punto de vista de la administración de la educación superior, la rotación recurrente de empleados requiere una inversión significativa de recursos humanos y financieros para abordar los diversos desafíos que se derivan, como la contratación de nuevo personal, la identificación y selección de candidatos calificados, y la provisión de capacitación continua.

Planteamiento del problema: El propósito de la Tesis es construir un marco conceptual para identificar los factores que influyen en la intención de rotación de los empleados de las universidades privadas de Egipto. Después de realizar una exhaustiva revisión teórica, se han agrupado los motivos de rotación en tres: organizativos, de recompensas e individuales. Respecto a los motivos organizativos, se han propuesto tres hipótesis de factores organizativos que pueden influir en la intención de rotación: la gestión del talento, la carga de trabajo y la relación de los líderes con el profesorado. En cuanto a los motivos relacionados con las recompensas se han propuesto dos hipótesis que pueden influir en la intención de rotación: las recompensas extrínsecas y las recompensas intrínsecas. Finalmente, respecto a los factores individuales se han propuesto tres factores de influencia en la intención de rotación: la inteligencia emocional, el compromiso organizativo y el balance de vida personal-trabajo. Adicionalmente, para cada uno de los factores se han analizado los efectos directos sobre la intención de rotación y el efecto mediador que puede ejercer la variable de satisfacción laboral.

Metodología: Este estudio sigue un diseño exploratorio secuencial con una metodología mixta cualitativa-cuantitativa. El primer paso del proceso fue analizar datos cualitativos de 15 personas de universidades privadas a partir de preguntas estructuradas. El análisis de las respuestas permitió validar el modelo conceptual propuesto. Seguidamente, se realizó un estudio cuantitativo a partir de una muestra de 396 personas para contrastar las 16 hipótesis propuestas. La muestra incluyó encuestados tanto hombres como mujeres. Los datos fueron recogidos a través de un cuestionario con estructuradas a partir de las escalas propuestas. Para la validación de las hipótesis se utilizó un modelo de ecuaciones estructurales SEM analizado estadísticamente mediante SPSS y AMOS.

Resultados: El estudio concluyó que dos factores organizativos (gestión del talento, sobrecarga de trabajo), los sistemas de recompensa (extrínsecos e intrínsecos) y los tres factores individuales (compromiso organizativo, balance vida personal y trabajo y la inteligencia emocional) influyen directamente en las intenciones de rotación y también a través del papel mediador de la satisfacción laboral. No obstante, la relación líder-profesor no tiene ningún impacto.

Conclusiones: Desde un punto de vista académico, se ha desarrollado y validado un modelo conjunto con tres tipos de enfoques: organizativo, de recompensa e individual y una variable mediadora, la satisfacción laboral sobre la intención de rotación en las universidades privadas, utilizando un enfoque de método mixto. Al incorporar múltiples factores, el estudio proporciona una comprensión holística del fenómeno, contribuyendo al cuerpo de conocimientos existente sobre la intención de rotación. Por este motivo, ofrece una perspectiva teórica significativa sobre los motivos por los que los académicos se plantean abandonar sus puestos, arrojando así luz sobre la importancia de este tema. En consecuencia, la importancia fundamental de este estudio radica en que amplía los conocimientos actuales sobre la intención de rotación al sector de la enseñanza privada en Oriente Medio, donde actualmente existe un vacío. Desde un punto de vista de gestión el estudio ofrece diferentes posibilidades a las universidades privadas para utilizar políticas que reduzcan la intención de rotación de su profesorado

Palabras clave: Intención de rotación, educación superior, capital humano, factores organizacionales, factores de recompensa, factores individuales.

RESUMEN (en Inglés)

Background: Turnover intent has emerged as a fundamental notion in managing employee career achievement and company stability at all levels in the twenty-first century. The phenomenon of high turnover in higher education environments has adverse effects on academic institutions, since from the point of view of higher education administration, recurring employee turnover requires a significant investment of human and financial resources to address the various challenges that arise, such as the recruitment of new staff, the identification and selection of qualified candidates, and the provision of continuous training (Ajayi & Olatunji, 2019; Harris & Ellis, 2018).

Statement of the problem: The purpose of the thesis is to build a conceptual framework to identify the factors that influence the intention of turnover of employees in private universities in Egypt. After carrying out an exhaustive theoretical review, the reasons for turnover have been grouped into three: organizational, reward, and individual. Regarding organizational reasons, three hypotheses of organizational factors that may influence turnover intention have been proposed: talent management, workload, and the relationship between leaders and teachers. Regarding the motives related to the rewards, two hypotheses have been proposed that may influence the intention to turn over: extrinsic rewards and intrinsic rewards. Finally, three factors have been proposed concerning individual factors that influence turnover intent: emotional intelligence, organizational commitment, and personal-work-life balance. Additionally, for each of the factors, the direct effects on turnover intention and the mediating effect that the job satisfaction variable can exert have been analyzed.

Methodology: This study follows a sequential exploratory design with a mixed qualitative-quantitative methodology. The first step in the process was to analyze qualitative data from 15 people from private universities based on structured questions. The analysis of the responses made it possible to validate the proposed conceptual model. Next, a quantitative study was carried out from a sample of 396 people to contrast the 16 proposed hypotheses. The sample included both male and female respondents. The data was collected through a structured questionnaire based on the proposed scales. To validate the hypotheses, a SEM structural equations model was used, statistically analyzed using SPSS and AMOS.

Results: The study concluded that two organizational factors (talent management, work overload), reward systems (extrinsic and intrinsic), and three individual factors (organizational commitment, work-life balance, and emotional intelligence) directly influence turnover intentions and also through the mediating role of job satisfaction. However, the leader-teacher relationship has no impact.

Conclusions: From an academic point of view, a joint model has been developed and validated with three types of approaches: organizational, reward and individual, and a mediating variable, job satisfaction on the intention of turnover in private universities, using an approach mixed method. By incorporating multiple factors, the study provides a holistic understanding of the phenomenon, contributing to the existing body of knowledge on turnover intention. For this reason, it offers a significant theoretical perspective on why academics consider leaving their posts, thus shedding light on the importance of this topic. Consequently, the critical importance of this study is that it extends current knowledge of turnover intentions to the private education sector in the Middle East, where a gap currently exists. From a management point of view, the study offers different possibilities for private universities to use policies that reduce the intention to rotate their teaching staff.

Keywords: Turnover intention, higher education, human capital, organizational factors, reward factors, individual factors.

SR. PRESIDENTE DE LA COMISIÓN ACADÉMICA DEL PROGRAMA DE DOCTORADO EN ____________________

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

A nation’s educational level has a significant impact on its development. Academics make substantial contributions to education through promoting education and advocating regulation, which enhances the standard of living for both individuals and communities. However, academic turnover typically results in a diminution of these benefits. In the realm of education, concerns regarding staff turnover have been significant (Jabeen et al., 2015; Pauzi et al.,2021). This is because the core of each institution is its academic staff, whose duties are crucial and whose quantity, quality, and efficiency influence future generations’ education.

Human capital, as opposed to human resources, refers to employees' knowledge, skills, and talents as a measure of their worth (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020). Human capital can also be defined as people who are skilled in certain professions and have a high level of competence and experience, such as academic personnel (Secundo et al., 2015), or they can also be referred to as knowledge workers (Arthur et al., 2017). The literature emphasizes the importance of human capital for organizational success and sustainability (Diaz-Carrion et al., 2021). Thus, organizations must shoulder a great deal of responsibility for selecting and retaining adequately educated employees capable of carrying out their duties effectively.

Employees nowadays, particularly those who are competent and eminent, are looking for an employer who can expand their experience, abilities, and knowledge while also providing a work atmosphere that is pleasurable and intellectually stimulating (Younis, 2020). Moreover, it has been suggested that managing expert talent and retaining competent academics, particularly in higher education, is critical for a growing economy (Mohan et al., 2015; Teece & Linden, 2014).

As a result, the focus of this research is on potential human capital loss due to academic personnel departing higher education institutions, as it has been stated that many educators leave the field within the first five years of their careers (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015), and according to recent research, most faculty members (52%) have pondered leaving their current positions (Kim & Rehg, 2018). Therefore, businesses can enhance their retention efforts and reduce academic member turnover by learning more about the reasons faculty members leave their current jobs.

To ensure knowledge continuity, committed decision-making, and collaborative workflow, universities must seek to preserve their staff. In higher education institutions, faculty members are considered the most valuable human asset with the potential to be the principal source of competitive advantage (Aboramadan et al., 2020; Webber, 2018). Moreover, academic staff have considerably high international mobility (Bauder, 2015). Hence, universities must proactively implement strategies to avoid staff loss in light of the extensive competition not only locally but also globally, or else they risk losing their employees' distinctive skills (Blackmore, 2014), which are essential for institutions and countries' competitiveness.

There is evidence that indicates that academic employees are leaving their positions at a much higher rate than workers in other sectors (Han & Yin, 2016). Therefore, executives must discover ways to attract and recruit academic staff and retain them (Madigan & Kim, 2021; Han & Yin, 2016). Additionally, in terms of economic and social development as well as the cultivation of a nation's human resources, educational institutions play a vital role in the infrastructure of every state (Nawaz et al., 2020).

When a faculty member leaves a university, it is the responsibility of human resource management experts to find qualified candidates. Especially in today's competitive business environment, many organizations are looking for new approaches to improve their human resource department productivity and performance (Przytuła et al., 2020), as there has been an increase in the number of individuals leaving and employee retention has become one of the most prominent issues facing organizations, resulting in a higher demand for solutions that can help organizations retain their best personnel (Backhaus, 2016; Pregnolato et al., 2017). Further, it is no secret that human capital retention is even more critical for a developing country like Egypt, which has invested in nurturing specialized people to gain a competitive advantage (Tessema & Soeters, 2006).

Since the beginning of the 20th century, there has been a growing focus on employee retention as researchers seek answers to questions such as what causes workers to quit their jobs and what factors influence how well they do their jobs (Bibi et al., 2018). According to Hom and Griffeth (1995), turnover intention is the relative strength of an individual's intent to leave an organization voluntarily and permanently.

When an employee quits willingly, and the firm's opinion of that employee remains positive, turnover has a significant impact on the organization. This is why it is essential to understand an employee's desire to quit to prevent it and minimize the loss of qualified personnel.

Scholars have debated the value of an academic career and the issue of academic staff turnover, with previous studies focused mainly on advanced economies with lengthy histories of formal educational institutions (Awang et al., 2015). It has been suggested that "early in the 21st century, there will be a crisis in higher education with an estimated academic labor shortage of 20,000 if this trend is not addressed" (Mathews, 2003, p.313). Since actual turnover is challenging to forecast and is dependent on information from people who have already left, previous research has shown that turnover intention is a good predictor of actual departure (Griffeth et al., 2000; Price, 2001; Radzi et al., 2009). Moreover, this increasing trend of turnover intention is not limited to the Western area but has also spread to the Middle East region, as this study aims to prove.

1.2 Importance of the Research Problem to the Academic Field

Academic staff are deemed knowledge workers with considerable global mobility (Arthur et al., 2017; Bauder, 2015). As a result, in an increasingly competitive environment, universities have begun to embrace management approaches from the private and industrial sectors as academic staff are an important aspect in determining the higher education institution's overall success as well as its vision and goal.

The Arab world is concerned about the quality of research coming out of the region, and its power to influence educational policy and practice is expanding (Hammad et al., 2022). In specific, faculty turnover is a key issue in higher education since it is costly, difficult to manage, and impacts institutional performance (Chakrabarti & Guha, 2016); nonetheless, it has been incredibly under-researched in Egypt until now. This issue poses great obstacles at universities, causing university administrators to cope with two distinct expenses due to turnover: recruitment and selection costs, as well as a decline in organizational effectiveness.

In addition, it has been reported that task failure, employee turnover, and absenteeism are on the rise in today's workplaces, threatening an organization's ability to function and grow (Mullen & Kelloway, 2018). This is why employee retention tactics are becoming increasingly important, as it has become one of the most critical organizational difficulties confronting today's workforce in the modern world (Javed & Jaffar, 2019). According to Zopiatis et al. (2014), turnover is a persistent issue at every organizational level, and numerous studies, like this one, underline the need to retain highly valued employees (Erasmus et al., 2015; Gandy et al., 2018; Korsakienė et al., 2015; Ochieng'Ojwang, 2019; Quratulain et al., 2018). Particularly in the education field, human capital is exceedingly expensive to replace . As a result, universities and governments must respond quickly and seriously to the turnover of skillful employees (Jiang & Shen, 2018).

Although Egypt has a large population and a large number of organizations, the amount of human research and management research conducted in Egypt is relatively rare. Despite the fact that Egypt has several business management schools, the academics at these universities have only conducted a relatively low amount of research on human research management. For so, this research aims to shed light on the urgency of this topic and identify the different organizational strategies adopted by Egypt’s education industry, the impact of individual behaviors, and the effect of reward systems on keeping employees in the academic sector.

The study findings will therefore provide significant information to management on how specific practices influence turnover intent in an organization and assist in pinpointing why many faculty members are currently considering quitting their jobs. Finally, since the government has a significant role to play in developing policies that affect employee wellbeing, the findings of these studies will assist policymakers in government and academia in establishing regulations that will increase the overall productiveness of employees, resulting in a win-win situation for both academics and the government and eventually lowering the turnover rate.

1.2.1 The importance of applying this study in Egypt.

Higher education in Egypt poses a peculiar dilemma that has long gone unnoticed. There are few studies on faculty members' intentions to resign in developing countries, such as Egypt. Human resource management approaches, in particular, should be more researched and appreciated, notably in the higher education sector. This has resulted in the academic field urging researchers to increase their efforts and supply policymakers with adequate evidence-based analysis essential to strategic planning and policy formulation (Abouchedid & Abdelnour, 2015).

A study conducted by Hallinger and Hammad (2019) fueled this debate by reviewing over 4,000 research articles published in nine major international journals between 2000 and 2016 for a new study focused on the academic sector in the Arab region. Educational Administration Quarterly (EAQ), International Journal of Leadership in Education (IJLE), and International Studies in Educational Administration (ISEA) were only three of the nine journals they focused on. All considered journals had to publish in English and have a moderate-to-strong citation impact. Citation impact was calculated using the h-index statistic, which can be used to calculate a journal's cumulative influence based on the frequency of its articles' citations (Harzing, 2007). These journals' h-indices ranged from 29 to 152, with ISEA having the lowest at 29 and EAQ having the most at 152. According to the findings, only 62 papers in the review focused on Arab societies, highlighting the region's negligible contribution to the international body of knowledge in this domain (Karami-Akkary & Hammad, 2019). Table 1 lists the countries that participated in this study, revealing that Egypt published only seven articles discussing educational management over a 16-year period, which is a meager contribution to the academic discipline.

A high faculty turnover rate is undesirable because it results in a loss of qualified educators, which lowers academic standards, research productivity, and institutional standing (Robyn & Du Preez, 2013). According to the most recent report, the rate of employee turnover in Egypt was 33.66% in 2017, an increase from 31.1% in 2016 (Egypt Economic Indicators, 2019). Despite the rise in employee turnover, there is a lack of focus on human resource management research in Egypt, which can be attributed to a variety of factors.

To begin with, there are not many Egyptian academics who have been trained to conduct such studies, though the number is growing. Second, Egyptian scholars interested in publishing their human resource management research would rather submit it to more prestigious journals published in other countries, focusing their research on applying it to developed countries. Third, managers in Egyptian firms have been hesitant to participate in human resource management research for concern that the findings may expose flaws in their managerial methods(Burke and El-Kot,2014).

Furthermore, a review of the literature revealed that most earlier studies had taken place in developed nations; however, the researcher was unable to find adequate studies that discussed this issue in depth in developing countries, including none in Egypt. To add to the previous point, Sobaih and Jones (2015) stated that human resource practices are not globally generic and that there are various human resource practices challenges highlighted in developed country literature that are not comparable in developing country situations, which is why there is a need to focus on one country as each educational system is unique and should not be compared to another one.

Table 1. *Distribution of Publications across the Arab Societies*

Country	Number of Articles from 2000 to 2016
United Arab of Emirates	**16**
Israel	**12**
Egypt	**7**
Jordan	**6**
Saudi Arabia	**6**
Lebanon	**3**
Kuwait	**2**
Oman	**2**
Multicounty	**2**

Palestine	**2**
Morocco	**1**
Qatar	**1**
Syria	**1**
Iran	**1**

Source: *(Hallinger & Hammad, 2019)*

1.2.2 Practical importance of private universities in Egypt.

In Egypt, stakeholders, including entrepreneurs, politicians, and foreign professors, own private universities. As identified by Galal (2008), "privatization suggests that access to higher education is no longer solely a matter of state planning but also operates within an open market for credentials" (cited in Buckner, 2013, p.532). Unlike public universities, private universities are driven by supply and demand, such as the preferences of applying students and the market.

The importance and impact of preserving Egypt's faculty members in private higher education is essential, as currently, private institutions are bearing the brunt of the global higher education enrollment rise, accounting for more than a third of worldwide tertiary enrollment (Levy, 2018). The Middle East and North Africa (MENA) area, in particular, has seen remarkable growth in response to community demands to improve access to higher education.

On that note, private institutions have begun to establish and expand more rapidly due to the increasing demand. Moreover, Egypt's Minister of Higher Education has announced the establishment of 60 new universities over the next ten years, including 20 state institutions and 40 private, international, and technological universities. The Egyptian government is focusing on private institutions to encourage private investment in higher education, improve quality, fulfill the rising demand for higher education, and alleviate the challenges that Egyptian students have when studying abroad.

In addition, several policy reforms have occurred in the Egyptian government recently, most notably in the country’s educational system. These transformations are motivated by internal factors, like the pressing need for change and advancement. Regarding matters such as education, for example, Egypt's 2030 vision makes it clear that the government intends to strengthen the role of the private sector in the system. Thus, the reason for choosing private universities for this study is that the rising presence of private organizations in a higher education system has piqued the attention among scholars (Altbach et al., 2019; Teixeira & Dill, 2011).

The rise of these institutions has been deemed a "global revolution" and one of the most profound changes in higher education in recent decades (Altbach et al., 2019; Altbach & Levy, 2005). Conversely, they possess an exemplary track record and reputation in the Arab world, drawing affluent students, top-notch instructors, and staff members with difficult-to-imitate skills (Alniacik et al., 2011). This is evident when looking at pupil enrollment in public universities in 2018/2019, which was 62% (about 1.8 million students). However, data from the Ministry for 2013/2014 reveals a substantially higher percentage of public institutions (78%). This reflects the country's continued expansion in the proportion of private institutions providing higher education.

Table 2 shows that private universities in Egypt are on the rise at 2.5%, which is the highest growth rate when compared to other higher educational institutes, which thus increases the opportunities for faculty members to simply migrate from one university to another when they are unsatisfied. This reinforces the case for the growing relevance of private universities in Egypt and how vital it is to retain faculty members, as recent studies show that the private sector has a high turnover rate than the public sector (Bajwa et al., 2014).

Table 2. *Trends of Higher Education Enrollment in Egypt*

Higher educational institutions	2006-2007		2012-2013		Growth rate
	Number of enrollments	%	Number of enrollments	%	
Governmental Universities	1,104,105	44.1	921,608	41.2	-3
Governmental Universities (New patterns)	398,977	15.9	455,637	20.3	2.2
Al-Azhar University	350,236	14.1	280,123	12.5	-3.7
Technical Faculties	136,041	5.4	92,497	4.2	-6.4
Private Universities	48,269	1.9	97,936	4.4	2.5
Private Higher Institutes	431,959	17.3	359,154	16	-3.1
Private Intermediate Institutes	31,974	1.3	32,368	1.4	0.2
Total	2,501,561	100	2,239,323	100	-1.8

Source: *Egypt Higher Education Sector Cooperation Planning Survey in Egypt (2017, p.12)*

1.3 Analyzing Turnover Intention in Egypt

Despite tremendous progress in reviving Egypt's economic growth since the 2013 revolution, unemployment remains persistently high, impacting the value of higher education. The average turnover in the Egyptian labor market is 536 employees per year in large organizations; 20 employees per year in medium-sized organizations; and 5 employees per year in small organizations (Ezzat & Ehab, 2018). One of the main reasons is a major mismatch between available skills and labor market demands, as well as weak social protection programs. Out of 148 countries, Egypt ranked number 146 in terms of labor market efficiency in 2013-2014 (Creative Associates International, 2016). This is an alarming fact that needs prompt intervention.

Egyptian universities specifically are facing extremely severe situations as a result of globalization's constant and swift changes in technology that have impacted the marketplace The Egyptian revolutions of 2011 and 2013 played a serious role in complicating an already troublesome situation. Hence, businesses understood that they needed to create a distinctive stance that would allow them to maintain a competitive advantage over their business rivals

In an interview with Mohamed Helmy El-Ghor, secretary-general of Egypt's Council of Private Universities in 2022, he claimed that the shortage of faculty members was a major issue facing private universities. He stated that universities must have a specific percentage of faculty members, which is about 3% of the total number of students in practical faculties and 2% in theoretical faculties, and that approximately 70-80% of colleges meet these requirements. He further stated that while public universities have large numbers of faculty members, recruiting them to private universities is difficult because many prefer the mandate system that allows them to work in more than one college at a time (Halawa, 2022). This bolsters our argument that it is important to study at private universities rather than public ones, as the real problem with staff turnover occurs in the private sector. Also, because private universities do not offer the luxury of working in more than one college at a time, staff members' incomes are limited, and competition in the private sector is fierce.

1.3.1 Situation in Egypt.

In order to understand the importance of education in Egypt and its impact, it is vital to look at its origins. To begin, its origins may be traced back to the Fatimids, who established Al-Azhar University, which provided a variety of academic degrees. Later, Mohamed Ali changed the educational system by establishing new administration, accounting, and engineering colleges. In 1876, new legislation was created with the goal of teaching most Egyptians and thereby broadening the educational sector.

The first university in Egypt was a public one established in 1908, today known as Cairo University. Afterwards, more public universities began to open to be able to keep up with the number of students, especially since the constitution declared education a right for all in 1952. The passing of Law 101 in 1992 paved the way for the establishment of private universities. Following the law's passage, 4 new universities opened in 1996, 5 in 2000, and 6 in 2006 (The World Bank, 2010).

By 2021, there were 28 private universities. Furthermore, private universities have established and managed partnerships with international higher education colleges or universities, such as the British, German, or Russian universities, which have flourished since 1996 (Elsayad, 2014) but they still have to adhere to the Egyptian Education Ministry law.

Private universities confront the same procedural and regulatory issues as public universities. Howbeit, private institutions tend to have more independence in making choices such as the number of new students accepted per semester, tuition prices, whether to add or dismiss faculty members, which new majors to introduce, etc., yet all decisions and policies must be approved by the government before being implemented. In other words, private universities are independent, yet they must adhere to government and Ministry of Education laws, censorship, and control because "the Egyptian higher education system is state-controlled" (Cupito & Langsten, 2011, p.184). If private universities do not follow the rules, the Egyptian Supreme Council of Universities will not recognize them, which might prevent their graduates from getting jobs or further education.

The administration's ability to attract and maintain excellent tutors has a favorable impact on the quality of education provided by institutions. Higher education institutions rely heavily on their faculty members and performance indicators, such as the number of academic staff having a Ph.D. (Breakwell & Tytherleigh, 2010). According to the resource theory, if sufficient resources are gathered, student growth and advancement will proceed. Therefore, college administrators are adamant that the acquisition of resources should be prioritized. For instance, one resource indicator in universities is the student-to-faculty ratio (Astin, 1984). Many administrators believe that the lower the ratio, the greater the opportunity for learning and personal development. According to the National Center for Education Statistics, the optimum student-to-faculty ratio in public universities was a 14:1 ratio in 2018, while private universities should have a 10:1 student-to-faculty ratio. However, the number of students enrolled in Egypt’s private universities during the academic year 2018/2019 was 194,559, while the number of faculty members was 10,743. This means that the average number of students per faculty member in private universities is 18, which is above the allowed threshold.

The student-to-faculty ratio is significant because both Quacquarelli Syomonds (QS) and Times Higher Education (THE) use the faculty-staff-to-student ratio as an indicator of teaching quality. As a result, Egypt has no private universities other than The American University in Cairo (AUC), which has been ranked among the top 800 universities worldwide. However, the AUC rank has dropped from 365 in 2017 to 420 in 2019, which could be attributed to a 5.7% decrease in teaching staff from 436 to 411 in just two years.

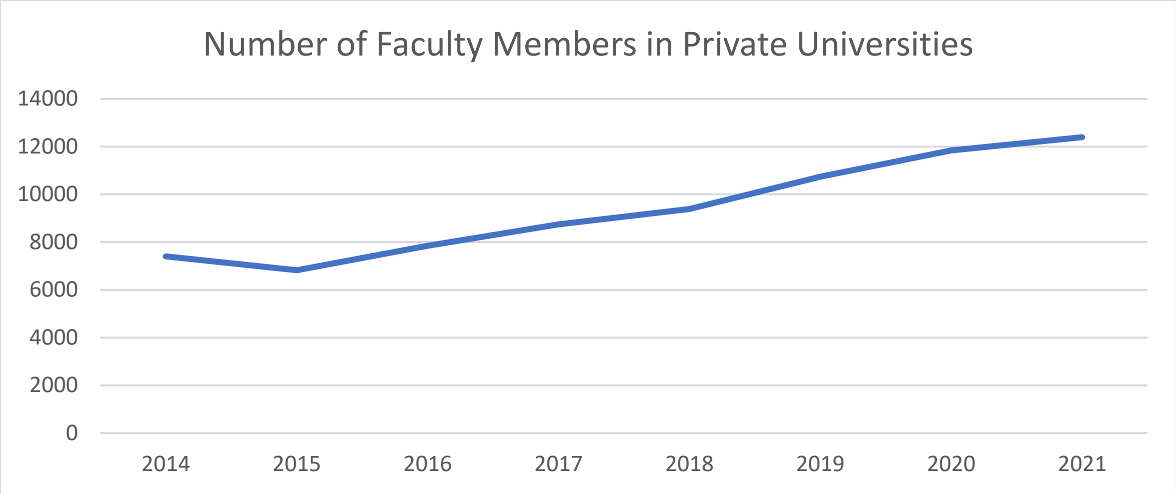
Table 3. *Turnover of Teaching Staff in Private Universities*

Rank	University	Total number of teaching staff 2018/2019	Total number of teaching staff 2017/2018	Location	Percentage
1	American University in Cairo	411	436	Cairo	-5.7%
2	6th of October	784	759	Cairo	3.2%
3	Misr University for Science and Technology	1039	1130	Cairo	-8.05%
4	German University in Cairo	963	931	Cairo	3.4%
5	Pharos University	705	726	Alexandria	-2.75%
6	Misr University	142	148	Cairo	-4.05%

Source: *Universities Websites*

As shown in Table 3, there is a significant turnover in some of Egypt's top private universities in the two main cities, Cairo and Alexandria. Even those with an increase in faculty members show a minor increase of less than 4%. This adds to the notion that Egypt's private university industry is on the cusp of a severe crisis. It ought to be noted that the overall number of faculty members in Egypt is rising, as shown in Figure 1, due to the increased number of universities; however, as shown in Table 3, this has created an opportunity for faculty members to transfer from one university to another.

Figure 1. *Number of Faculty Members in Private Universities*



Source: *Campus Report Higher Education 2020/2021*

After reviewing the available body of knowledge about Egypt in higher education, it was found that there are limited topics discussing this issue, despite the country's history of producing scholars and influencing people in both the African and Arabian civilizations (Emira, 2014), making the development of its higher education a vital matter, especially with the increasing number of universities and their influence in the education field. Table 4 lists the number of private universities in Egypt by year of founding and location. Most private institutions are located in big cities, perhaps because individuals who can afford tuition costs live in these cities rather than in rural areas.

Table 4. *Number of Private Universities in Egypt*

	Name	**Year of Establishment**	**Location**
1	The American University in Cairo	1919	New Cairo
2	6th October University	1996	6th of October
3	Misr University for Science and technology	1996	6th of October
4	Modern sciences and Arts University	1996	6th of October
5	Misr International University	1996	Cairo
6	Université Française d'Égypte	2000	El Shorouk
7	German University in Cairo	2000	Cairo

8	Arab Open	2000	Cairo
9	Modern university for Technology and Information	2000	Cairo
10	Alahram Canadian University	2000	6th of october
11	The British University in Egypt	2006	El Shorouk
12	Sinai University	2006	Cairo
13	Future University	2006	New Cairo
14	Egyptian Russian University	2006	Badr
15	Nile University	2006	Giza
16	Pharos University	2006	Alexandria
17	Delta University for Science and Technology	2007	Mansoura
18	King Salman International University	2020	Sinai
19	Heliopolis University	2009	Cairo
20	Deraya University	2010	Minya
21	New Giza University	2016	Giza
22	Horus University	2013	Domayat
23	Egyptian Chinese University	2013	Cairo
24	Badr University	2014	Badr
25	Nahda University	2006	Beni Suef
26	Sphinx University	2019	Assuit
27	Merit University	2019	Sohag
28	Al Alamein International University	2020	Al-Almein

Source: *Ministry of Education*

1.4 Faculty Members in Egypt

1.4.1 The process of becoming a faculty member in Egypt.

To properly grasp the reasons behind faculty turnover intentions in Egypt, one must first understand how faculty members are selected in the first place. Faculty members in Egypt are selected from a pool of top-achieving undergraduate students. They then begin their master's program with university tuition support. This implies that most university lecturers have a bachelor’s degree from the university they work at.

After earning a master's degree, teaching assistants enter a Ph.D. program, but they are strongly encouraged to study abroad for a portion or the full of their degree. Upon obtaining a doctorate, they are hired as faculty members and start teaching as assistant professors. Consequently, high rates of faculty turnover might translate into a loss on investment because institutions invest extensively in faculty members’ postgraduate studies (Kim et al., 2013).

1.4.2 Problems facing faculty members in Egypt.

The Egyptian education system is centralized, with universities, institutes, and schools having little influence over curriculum, finance, and program development. Most decisions are made by the minister and the board of trustees. This might make faculty members feel as if they have no control over their classes or content, which leads to job dissatisfaction and employee attrition.

After being appointed to a faculty position at a university, faculty members commonly spend time abroad conducting further research. During this activity, they take a leave of absence, and according to Egyptian legislation, they are allowed to be absent for up to 10 years while still holding their positions. Many faculty members are frequently absent, and the law requires that the absence be within 25% of the faculty body. For example, in Cairo University’s Faculty of Engineering, 200 out of 800 faculty members are currently absent.

Thus, one of the current problems confronting universities is that, after investing in their faculty members by financing their expenses abroad, they have come to find that after 10 years, most of their academic staff prefer to stay in the host country. As based on research, the longer a person stays abroad, the more integrated they become in the host culture and adapt their behavior, attitude, and cultural identity patterns (Forster, 1994; Sussman, 2002).

According to Schomaker (2015), Egypt's higher education system is plagued by a shortage of competent faculty members as a result of low motivation and compensation, which frequently leads to corruption. What has further fueled this statement is the current lack of motivation and turnover at private universities, as based on Table 5, it is evident that the education industry is the most underpaid in Egypt when it comes to the private sector. As shown below, the education industry had the lowest percentage increase of only 7.6% from the year 2016 until 2017, compared to other sectors such as real estate and transportation, which had a minimum of 10% increase annually in their wages.

Table 5. *Average of Weekly Wages in Private Sectors & Industry (2016 - 2017) (L.E/ Week)*

Private Sectors	2017	2016	% Increase
Education	495	460	7.6%
Transport and storage	980	816	20.1%
Real estate and renting	755	642	17.6%
Food and accommodation services	514	465	10.54%
Information and communication	773	675	14.52%

*Average wages in the first week of October each year

Source: *Egypt Statistical Yearbook 2019 – Labor, 2019*

1.5 Research Questions

Based on the previous discussion, the research questions can be formulated as the academic relevance of this topic has been analyzed and discussed, as well as the value of applying it in the Middle East, both theoretically and practically. The current study seeks to investigate factors influencing employee turnover intention in Egypt’s academic industry and to extend the existing turnover intention theories. This study aims to bridge a gap found in the literature and provide human resource practitioners with practical and useful insights for reducing turnover intentions in private higher education. Therefore, the following main research question was devised: What factors influence faculty members' intentions to leave private Egyptian universities?

Consequently, the research aims to answer the following sub-research questions:

- What is the current status of turnover intention in Egyptian private universities?
- What factors lead to a faculty member's turnover intention?
- How can turnover intention be managed?

1.6 Research Objectives

The objective of this doctoral thesis is to provide a detailed picture of the factors that influence turnover intention. Thus, the previous research questions have been specified in the following objectives:

- RO1: To examine the influence of organizational factors on employee turnover intention in private universities in Egypt.
- RO2: To examine how reward systems influence turnover intent in private universities in Egypt.
- RO3: To investigate the influence of individual factors on turnover intent in private universities in Egypt.
- RO4: To determine the mediating role of job satisfaction on the relationship between organizational factors, reward systems, and individual factors on employee intention to quit in private universities in Egypt.
- RO5: To construct a conceptual framework to identify the factors that influence employees in private universities in Egypt to quit.

1.7 Conclusion

The current study focuses on academic turnover intention predictors at Egyptian private universities, with the goal of better understanding the phenomenon of faculty turnover and the variables that influence employees' decisions to leave their jobs. This study will focus on turnover intention rather than actual turnover because an employee's intent to quit is a key indicator of serious turnover. As a result, it is vital to investigate the factors that drive turnover intention and, eventually, real turnover. This research is significant because it articulates a new research perspective, various relationships, a unique setting, and a novel theoretical contribution to the literature.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Employee Turnover Intention

One of the early definitions of turnover intention is an individual's behavioral desire to leave the organization (Mobley, 1979). Another way to define employee turnover intention is the likelihood of an employee leaving the current job s/he is doing (Ngamkroeckjoti et al., 2012). According to a more recent definition, turnover intention is an employee's cognitive response to the working environment that drives an employee to hunt better alternative employment and expresses the goal to quit an institution freely (Ahmad, 2018). There have been some researchers who have stated that turnover intention is a planned psychological readiness to leave the institution (Alniacik et al., 2011; Ohana & Meyer, 2010; Panatik et al., 2012). The reason for the shifting definitions is that the literature rarely gives a precise description of turnover intention, and this is a consequence of the perception that people consider the term self-explanatory (Bester, 2012).

One of the most challenging problems any organization will face is the turnover of its employees, as it has severe effects on overall productivity. According to Liu-Lastres and Wen (2021), turnover is a severe problem, particularly in the human resource industry. Recruiting and maintaining talent is a well-recognized determinant of organizational success, which, according to the Global Competitiveness Index, is one of the economic success factors of nations (Lanvin & Monteiro, 2019). Thus, organizations have a responsibility to create and cultivate long-term ties with their employees, given that they are the major source of an organization's growth and prosperity.

It has been stated that high turnover will have a disturbing effect on organizations, especially if high-performing employees leave (Califf & Brooks, 2020; Wu, 2012). The relationship between employee turnover and organizational performance has been studied previously, with a particular emphasis on the staff expenses associated with the human resource procedure to replace those who willingly leave the business (Hancock et al., 2013; Holtom et al., 2008). In essence, the economic expenses of employee turnover amount to 150-250% of the employee's annual earnings (Mello, 2010).

For an organization to sustain a competitive advantage, they must grasp the significant role employees play. This is why interest in the topic of employee turnover has been increasing over the last decade, with over 1500 studies published in leading journals of management and related fields in the 90s (Shaw et al., 1998).

The topic continued to grab the focus of scholars in the 20th century as researchers were persistent in trying to find a way to reduce employee turnover (Ahmed et al., 2015; Rabbi et al., 2015,Guzeller,2020,Pratama et al.,2022). This proves that employee turnover has been receiving substantial attention from many human resource managers and organizational theorists due to its importance and significance.

However, despite many published studies, it was noted by Holtom et al. (2008, p.232) that “it is not surprising that turnover continues to be a vibrant field despite more than 1500 academic studies addressing the topic”, and despite its importance, there was a void in the literature for insufficient empirical research into the subject (Awang et al., 2013; Rageb et al., 2014). It is important to mention that the current global situation in Egypt has played a major role in altering the organizations’ roles and has taken a huge toll on the economy. For so, employees are currently conflicted about whether they should stay in their current jobs or look elsewhere. The current investigation attempts to determine why employees at private universities in Egypt are considering leaving their jobs. This will add to the body of research by elucidating what causes this to occur in academic institutions.

2.2 Academic Turnover Intention

The university faculty is one profession that has piqued the interest of numerous scholars due to its significant turnover (Nawaz et al., 2019). Musselin (2007, p.3) was quoted as saying, “An in-depth investigation of academic work would probably have shown that many academics were already engaged in many other activities”. She further noted that an assessment of academic activities would reveal that academic activities have undergone major modifications and that the academic profession is now far more than merely teaching and research. This assertion was further supported in 2013 by Hyde et al., who found that academic professionalism and identity issues are getting more complex than ever; for example, according to Gurin et al. (2002), academicians are now expected to educate students for the outside world.

There are many reasons why faculty personnel would consider leaving, but the most frequent reason for the early retirement of university academic staff was dissatisfaction with university (Jain, 2013). According to Arimoto’s (2007) findings from the Carnegie Survey, the degree of stress faced by those working in the academic field was the greatest of any of the 14 countries surveyed in his study.

These levels have most probably increased due to severe competition and keeping up with all the needed tasks such as writing proposals, developing contracts, elaborating e-learning programs, and being involved in administrative duties are part of the tasks achieved by faculty members nowadays, and they are no longer considered secondary work but recognized as important aspects of academic work. As a result, a tendency to withdraw from a university is extremely likely.

Herbert and Ramsay's (2004) research focused largely on turnover in the teaching field in USA, but it aligned well with research from other African countries. The study discovered that their decision to stay and work as educators was based on their own needs and situations. Teachers leave the profession for various reasons, including incentive schemes, working conditions, professional development, and assignments. Finally, the boundaries and restrictions set up by educational institutes to ensure adherence to the syllabus, the large number of students in each class, prearranged exams, and time constraints leave little or no room for instructors to apply their own course design (Tehrani & Mansor, 2012; Yu-hong & Ting, 2012).

Tettey (2006) stated that retirement from academia reduces the synergies that come with a group of academics working together, as well as the impact and scope of knowledge production and dissemination. Moreover, the cost of employee turnover in higher education will be higher because the employees' loss will affect the university’s academic and research activities. For example, suppose a lecturer decided to leave in the middle of the semester. In that case, the consequences would be severe, as it would be hard for both the university and the student to adjust to and accept a new instructor during the course.

The problem of academic turnover intention is a problem that faces universities worldwide, as shown by a survey conducted in 2000 in the USA for tenured academic staff that found that more than 40% of them had contemplated changing careers (Sanderson et al., 2000). According to a more recent study it was found that almost 7.7% of tenured academic staff from different universities and colleges had switched to other universities (Abubakar et al., 2015).

In some countries, such as Australia, around 68% of university faculty members expressed a desire to leave the profession in 2002 (Anderson et al., 2002). Singapore, South Korea, and Taiwan each had average monthly resignation rates of 3.4%, 2.9%, and 2.7%, respectively (Barnard & Rodgers, 1998). According Abubakar et al. (2015), Nigeria, for example, loses almost 20,000 professionals annually, many of whom are teachers at various colleges and institutions, as they seek better chances in Western countries like Germany, Canada, and England**.** Finally, data from African universities suggest that around 5-10% of faculty members leave their posts in the field each year (Association of African Universities,2018)

Although precise numbers are hard to quantify, Crimmins et al. (2017) estimate that 67% of present academics will have departed the field by the year 2021. It has also been predicted that by 2023, 25% of the existing academic workforce will retire and another 25% will abandon the profession altogether (Bexley et al., 2013).

2.3 Theories Discussing Turnover Intention

In this section, a review of previous theories is examined that were used to help structure the conceptual model and further add rigor to this research.

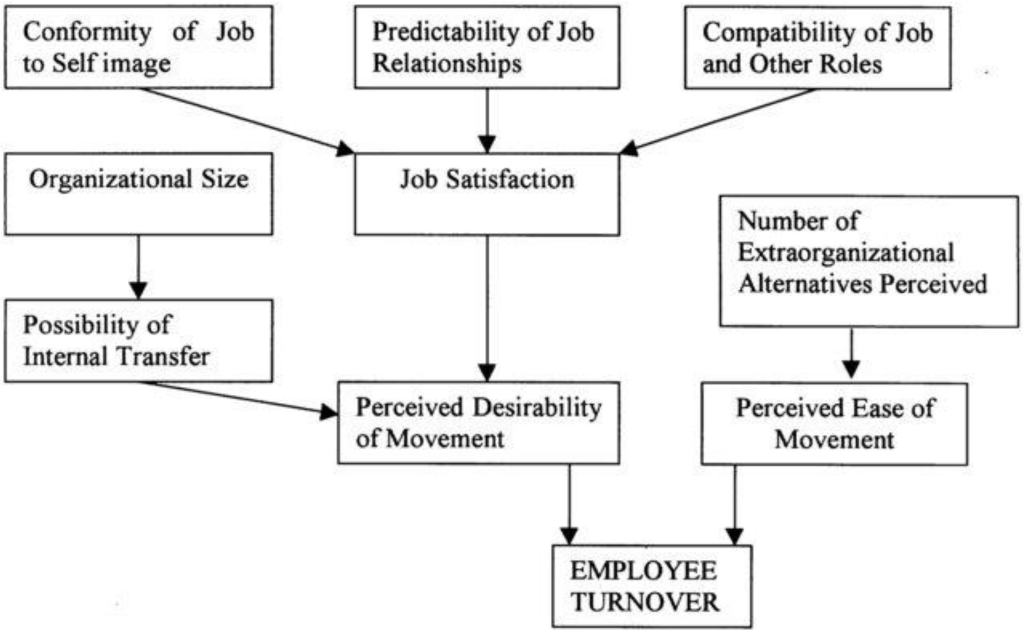
2.3.1 The theory of organizational equilibrium (TOE).

TOE is widely perceived as the first formally recognized turnover intention theory (Holtom et al., 2008). It adamantly stresses the requirement of finding a balance between employee inputs and motivations and those of the organization. The premise of this idea, which gives turnover its title, is that individuals decide to leave an organization after evaluating their perceived value to the organization and the organization's contribution to their lives (March & Simon, 1958).

As per this, the apparent convenience of mobility and the perceived appeal of mobility are the two fundamental aspects that define an employee’s balance. Job satisfaction is likewise influenced by these two key variables, which in turn directly influences turnover intention (Holtom et al., 2008). In the realm of TOE, the suitability of a person's multiple responsibilities at work, workload, likelihood of interactions at work, and conformance of their work with their personality are the primary elements influencing job satisfaction (Brasher, 2016). It is worth noting that this model incorporates a loop relationship involving turnover, organization size, transferability, and the perceived attractiveness of mobility.

In other means, according to the theory of equilibrium, turnover affects the organization's size and influences the likelihood of transfer, which in turn affects the perceived appeal of the movement, and has an impact on turnover (Long et al., 2012). Subsequently, management inventiveness and involvement are required to prevent turnover intentions and encourage employee retention by preserving the balance between employee contributions.

Figure 2. *Simplified Version of March and Simon's Model*



Source: (March and Simon's Model (1958, P.99)

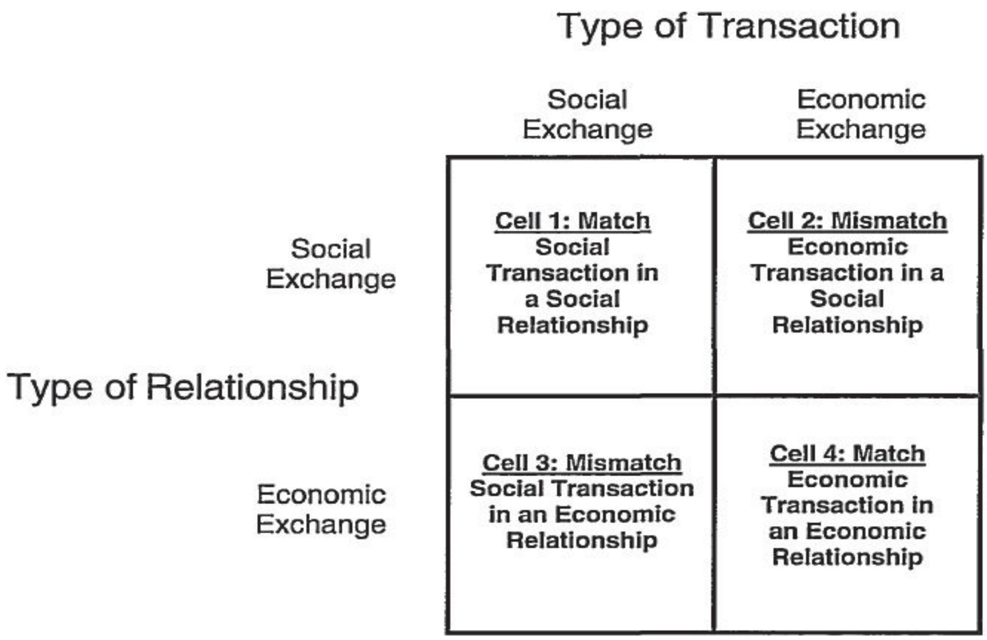
2.3.2 The social exchange theory (SET).

According to Cropanzano in 2005, the core tenet of SET is that the scale to which two people or social entities regard one another tacitly and openly in the agreement of social rules and trade conventions determines their relationship, as shown in Figure 3. Trust, loyalty, and devotion are a few qualities that characterize the strength of such relationships. These qualities are influenced by factors often invested in relationships, such as affection, reputation, expertise, wealth, commodities, and services.

The SET defines reciprocity as one of the several openly negotiated principles that comprise the social rules and regulations of the exchange. The law of reciprocity proposes that one should be regarded according to how s/he treats others (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). The SET also states that workers are linked by a network of connections, the depth of which affects whether or not they intend to remain in their current positions (Holtom et al., 2008).). Justice, leader-member exchange, psychological contract, collaboration, and trust, according to Blau (1964), are the common elements of this theory. Moreover, it has been stated that failure to maintain social exchange relationships will eventually lead to a high turnover rate (Avanzi et al., 2014).

The implications of social network theory for voluntary turnover should thus be further studied. Therefore, from the standpoint of the SET, the intention to leave a job is a result of management or coworkers failing to follow agreed-upon regulations. This implies that if past agreements are violated, an employee may willingly choose to leave the company. Given this, management initiatives to uphold implicit or explicit standards might be seen as a retention tactic, particularly for skilled personnel.

Figure 3. *The Social Exchange Theory*



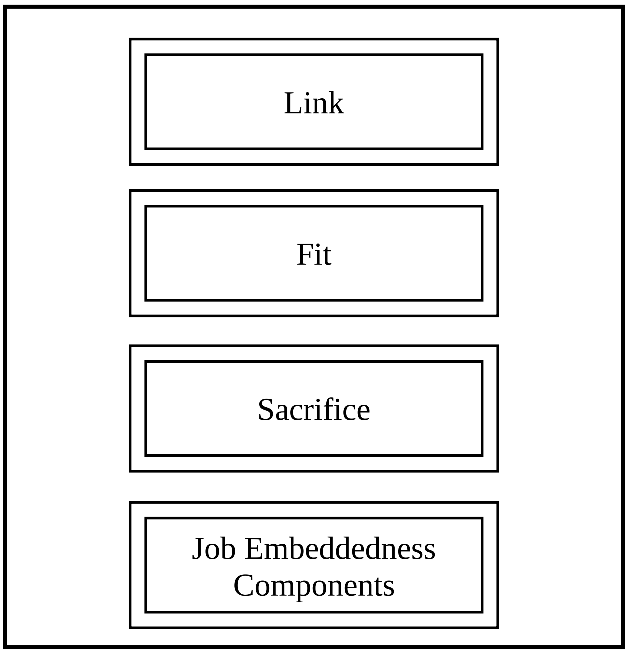
Source: Adapted from Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005)

2.3.3 Job embeddedness theory (JET).

The JET, supported by Zhang et al. (2012), asserts that employees have strong ties and links inside their business and community that they do not like to sacrifice in exchange for a new job or a new setting. According to JET, an employee's organizational and societal integration is influenced by factors including their personal convictions, professional goals, knowledge, and competencies. Additionally, workplace culture, employment needs, and general aspects like weather, religious beliefs, and entertainment activities influence it.

This theory lists "leaving old colleagues, intriguing projects, or appealing perks" and "giving up an easier drive or local club membership" as sacrifices or losses. According to JET, employees remain in their existing positions as long as they continue to feel connected with their work and social environments. Otherwise, they become amenable to the appeals for turnover intentions. Consequently, retention efforts should work to preserve this feeling of rootedness in the social and professional context, particularly for exceptional personnel.

Figure 4. *The Job Embeddedness Theory*



Source. *Own Elaboration*

2.3.4. Herzberg’s two-factor motivation-hygiene theory.

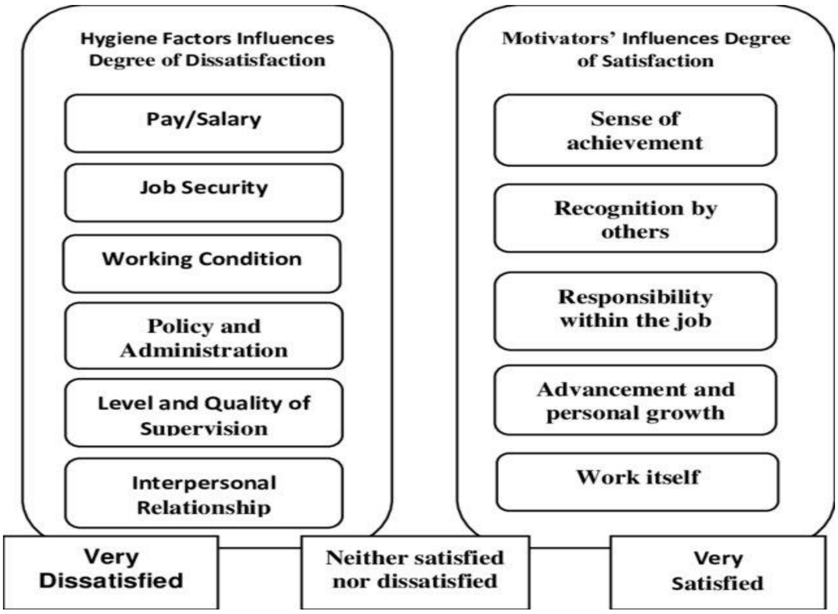
According to Herzberg’s Two-Factor Motivation-Hygiene theory, there are two categories of elements in organizations: "hygiene factors" and "motivators", both of which contribute to work discontent. Experiencing accomplishment, gaining acknowledgment, stimulating work, and growth are the factors that work as motivators. Whereas, incompetent supervisors, a stressful working environment, low salary, and other problems were identified as hygiene factors (Chu & Kuo, 2015).In 1959, Frederick Herzberg first described the Two-Factor Theory, also known as the Motivation-Hygiene Theory. The theory has gained significant attention for its practical approach to motivating individuals in the workplace. Motivators and hygienic variables were the focus of the concept since the theory stated that they have a direct impact on total job satisfaction.

While the existence of motivators can increase job satisfaction, the absence of hygienic aspects can lead to job dissatisfaction and discontent. Salary, working environment, and other health and safety factors are among the hygiene elements, whereas job characteristics serve as motivators (Herzberg et al., 1959). Motivators and hygienic elements, according to the theory, are not mutually exclusive. A rise in job satisfaction does not necessarily imply a decrease in job dissatisfaction because the factors that influence each are distinct.

The two-factor approach's main aim is to explain why employees are still demotivated even when they are offered high incomes and ideal working conditions. This is due to the reality that high salaries and favorable working conditions are merely means of preventing employee discontentment. In Herzberg's view, motivation stems directly from the work itself. For so, managers must examine the nature of the tasks they assign to their workers. If you want an employee to do well on the job, Herzberg contends that you should give them a decent job, to begin with.

This theory states that an employee begins to succumb to the appeal of turnover intentions when the factors that contribute to overall satisfaction begin to deteriorate. This is the situation, for instance, when workers begin to feel that their work no longer stimulates professional development and growth, is no longer engaging, or is not given enough credit for their efforts. Consequently, retention tactics should aim to maximize motivating elements to reduce employees' intent to leave.

Figure 5. *Herzberg's Two-Factor Motivation-Hygiene Theory*



Source: (*Ololube,2018)*

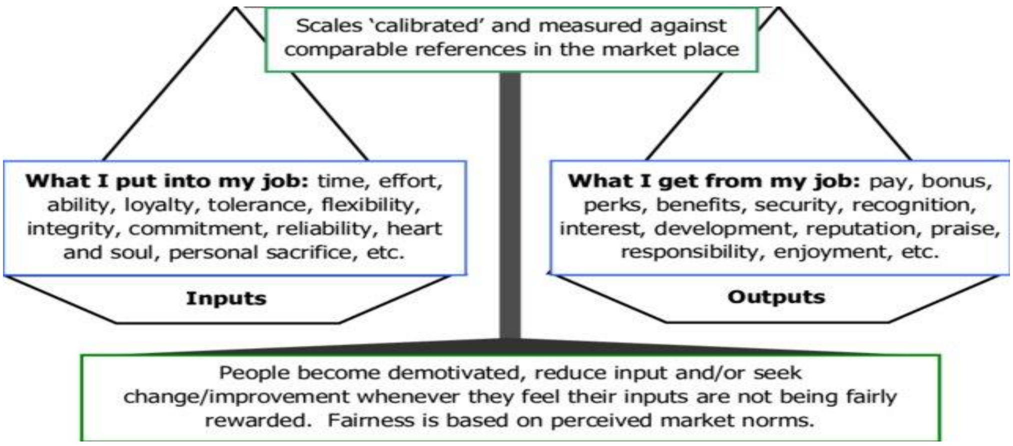
2.3.5 The equity theory.

According to the "equity theory" (Adams, 1965), individuals are inspired when they notice justice and equality in the ratio of their job's inputs to outputs. The Equity Theory emphasizes the relationship of exchange where people offer something, namely their inputs, and receive something in exchange, namely the anticipated outcomes (Al-Zawahreh & Al-Madi, 2012).

As per this theory, comparing the worth of the outputs to the inputs indicates whether or not there is equality for a certain individual, colleagues, family members, or the individual themself in a different but comparable position. Inputs often comprise their expertise, abilities, and efforts, while outputs might include things like compensation, bonuses, obligations, and recognition (Al-Zawahreh & Al-Madi, 2012). The equity theory further assumes that anytime individuals notice unfairness, they prefer to take action to correct it.

Therefore, changing inputs and outputs are two instances of equity restoration acts. This theory is suitable for studies on labor turnover and persistence when turnover intention can be viewed as a result of perceived injustice (Berry & Morris, 2008). As a result, senior management's attempts to uphold a fair workplace might be seen as a retention tactic to thwart plans for turnover.

Figure 6. *Equity Theory*



Source: (*Chapman, 2002, based on Adams, 1963)*

2.3.6 Social identity theory (SIT).

Tajfel's earlier empirical study on categorization and social perception, as well as his social issues-oriented interest in elucidating bias, inequality, and conflict in the community, formed the foundation of SIT (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Tajfel stated the most fundamental definition of social identity as an “individual’s knowledge that he belongs to certain social groups together with some emotional and value significance to him of this group membership” (Tajfel, 1972, p.292).

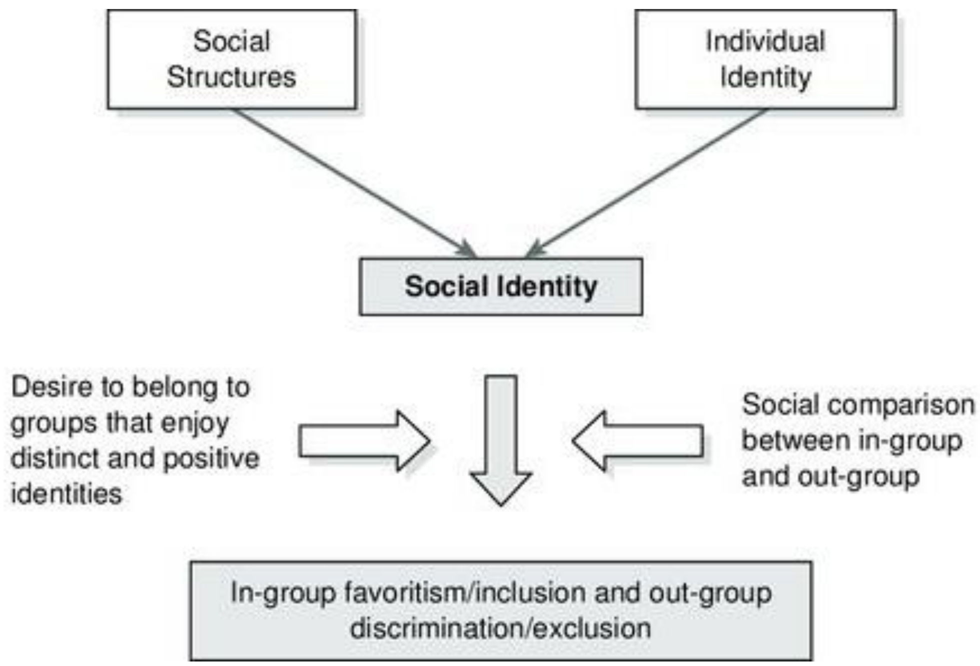
Social groupings, whether big demographic divisions or small task-based teams, provide their members with a common shared identity that dictates who they are, what they should think, and how they should act. Crucially, social identities illustrate how the in-group differentiates from pertinent out-groups in each social situation (Hogg, 2016). As per SIT, employees who are closely connected and recognized by their group and organizations are less likely to leave since there is substantial overlapping between them and the organization. Moreover, employees may feel obligated to stay if they perceive a solid (exchange) connection with their firm, i.e., exhibit minimal turnover intentions despite low overall identification. Furthermore, when an employee is firmly identified, s/he may devote themselves to the job regardless of whether the exchange connection with the organization is unsatisfactory (or, at least, not completely good). Nevertheless, and most significantly, when employees are highly identified, their view of the quality of their organization's exchange connection becomes less relevant and far less essential in driving withdrawal behavior.

Since EI is a subtype of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and other people's emotions, differentiate between them, and use the information to guide one's thinking and actions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) therefore, employees with high EI are more efficient, optimistic, and resilient at work and in their personal lives (Krishnaveni & Deepa, 2011). Thus, people may attach emotional importance to their group, leading to group identification and influencing their turnover behavior (Tajfel & Turner, 1979).

Miller and Leary (1992) argued that embarrassing events serve as emotional input, causing the individual to observe the reactions of others more attentively and take corrective precautions to avoid them in the future. These precautions are made to avoid acts that could also damage the social identity of the individual. This demonstrates that emotionally intelligent people are aware of how their activities are perceived in social circumstances. Consequently, these people are more able to develop, preserve, or reinvent their social identity.

Dong et al. (2014) investigated the relationship between employees' EI and their choices regarding career progression, job desertion, performance, and social identity on the job. They found that those with high EI had a positive relationship between developmental job experience and their intention to leave their current employer. According to the findings of these studies, an organization's qualitative performance values, including satisfaction, turnover, employee morale, and well-being, are impacted by its members' EI.

Figure 7. *Schematic Diagram of SIT's Basic Principles*



Source: *(Barak, 2008)*

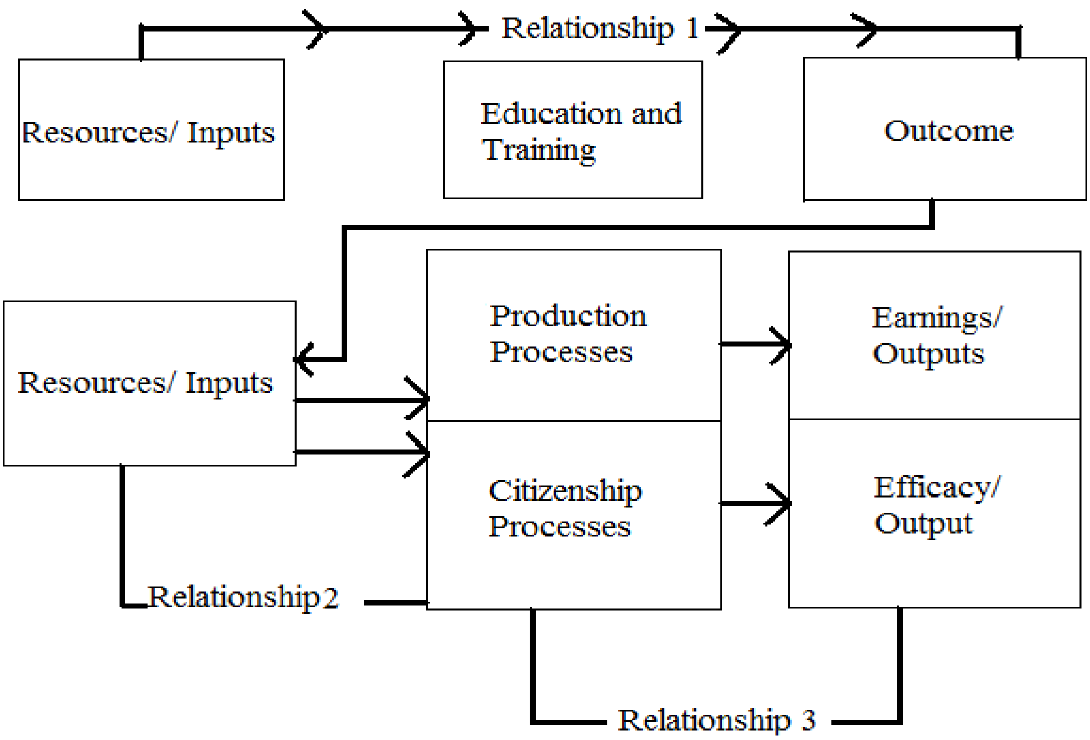
2.3.7 Human capital theory (HCT).

According to Becker's HCT, education and training can improve an employee's knowledge and abilities (Becker, 1975). Becker further extended his study to show that increasing employee knowledge and abilities lead to higher employee compensation, which has a direct impact on the intent of employees to leave their jobs. Employees who are happy in their jobs are more likely to stay for longer periods of time than employees who are dissatisfied with their jobs (Tongchaiprasit & Ariyabuddhiphongs, 2016). The HCT asserts that workers whose employers invest in their professional development are expected to stay with the organization for a longer period as employees value the investment in their professional development (Becker, 1964).

Furthermore, according to HCT, schooling, training, and growth, as well as other learnings, have a favorable influence on performance and remuneration (Zula & Chermack, 2007). According to Rahman and Nas (2013), the HCT believes that education is integral to enhancing workers' output capabilities. As a result, organizations must invest in their employees' professional growth to boost productivity. Improved efficiency and profitability, as well as increased salaries and revenue, are characteristics of return on investment (ROI) outcomes that benefit both the firm and the employee.

Nonetheless, HCT acknowledges that training and development can boost employees' competitiveness and promote turnover for better positions. According to HCT, managerial-level initiatives to engage in employee education, coaching, and growth may be regarded as an essential element of turnover intention (Zula & Chermack, 2007).

Figure 8. *Human Capital Theory*



Source: *(Adams, 2013)*

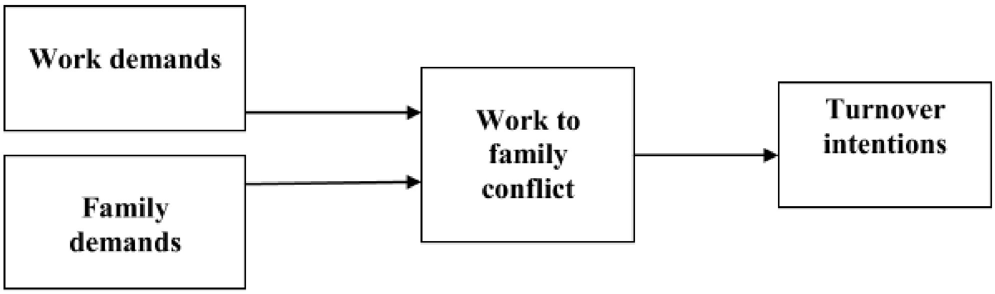
2.3.8 Role Theory.

Role theory by Kahn et al. (1964) contends that a person's life consists of multiple roles, including roles at work and outside of work (e.g., personal relationships, parenthood). According to role theory, devoting human time and energy to one role (e.g., family) reduces time and energy available for other roles (e.g., job), diminishing productivity in that position (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000).

As per role theory, the interplay between family and work is best portrayed as a zero-sum game since a person's energy and time are scarce resources. Family time and energy cannot be diverted from work, and vice versa (Friedman et al., 1998). Employees with greater family responsibilities will have less time and energy for their work, resulting in lower work performance and, eventually, leaving their job. Based on previous findings, role theory was used as a foundation to explain how the struggle to maintain a good work-life balance and manage work overload can lead to burnout and turnover in organizations (Javed et al., 2014).

Role theory serves as a theoretical foundation for assessing the success of work-life policies, as work-life policies interfere with this unfavorable work-family interaction by saving time, replenishing energy levels, and lowering disagreement. Employees, therefore, devote the consequent time and energy into their job to repay the benefits obtained from their companies (Tsui et al., 1997).

Figure 9. *Role Theory*



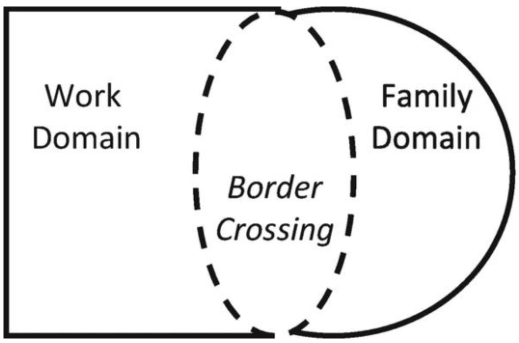
Source*: (Jain & Nair, 2016)*

2.3.9 Work-family border theory.

Clark first proposed this theory in 2000, in which work and personal life are seen as separate sectors from this perspective. This is because culture, values, and goals might be very different from one sector to the next, leading to an ongoing struggle to balance the two sectors. Those who struggle to strike a healthy balance between their private and professional lives are, therefore, more inclined to consider leaving their current position. The basic goal of the theory is to create a harmonious balance of professional and personal responsibilities. This can only be possible if one feels content in both their professional and private lives (Clark, 2000). Clark's (2002) theory delves deeply into the complexities of juggling work and family life (2000).

At its core, this concept asserts that in terms of their mutual influence, "job" and "family" are essentially interchangeable terms, and when the two responsibilities overlap, it increases the likelihood that the employee will have difficulty establishing a healthy work-life balance, which increases the likelihood that the person will be dissatisfied with their job and lead to turnover (Zhou et al., 2020).

Figure 10. *Work-Family Border Theory*



Source: *(Clark, 2000)*

2.3.10 The Job-demand resource model (JD-R).

Arnold Bakker and Evangelia Demerouti, two researchers in the field, developed the JD-R model. They advocated for it as an alternative to more traditional methods of gauging workers' contentment since previous models, such as the demand-control model and the effort-reward imbalance model, addressed only a subset of the elements, rendering their findings inapplicable to all individuals and to all fields of effort.

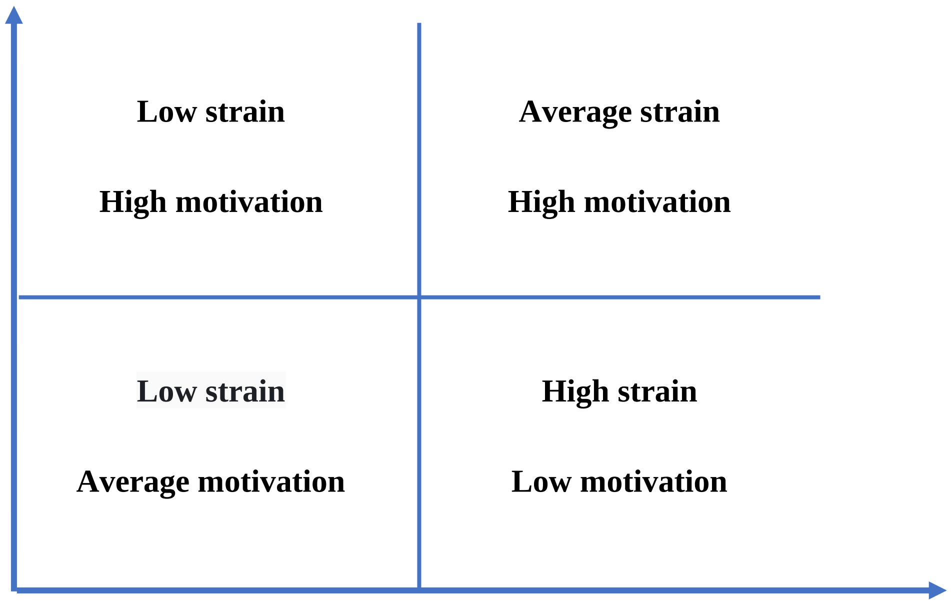
Therefore, Bakker and Demerouti developed a model with adaptable prerequisites, resources, and employment advantages to address what they regard as the limiting constraints affecting the economy. They stated that despite working in different fields, there are two distinct categories of working conditions that may be distinguished using this theory, such as academics, industry, or transport. These categories are job demands and job resources:

- Job demands: workplace demands can generate mental and emotional strain simply because they are an inevitable part of the job (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). Time restraints, excessive workloads, challenging surroundings, ambiguous jobs, emotional labor, and strained relationships are all examples of these types of challenges.
- Job resources: employment resources include, but are not limited to, the physical, social, and organizational aspects of your workplace that help accomplish your objectives while also lowering the stress level (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Numerous factors come into play, including chances for professional development and advancement, the prospect of personal growth, the availability of guidance from superiors, the freedom to make decisions regarding responsibilities, and a sense of independence.

According to the JD-R model, the likelihood of experiencing work overload, which results in burnout and stress in the workplace, increases when there are few positives and more negatives in the environment (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). On the other side, pleasurable aspects of a job may help to compensate for the negative impacts of stressful work, which can boast job satisfaction and lower turnover intention.(Carlson et al.2017).

In accordance with the JD-R model, predictors of employees' intentions to leave can be identified (Demerouti et al., 2001). For instance, the JD-R model provides a link between the model’s work overload and turnover intentions (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), as specific job demands have often been proven to predict turnover intentions among professional groups (Jyoti & Rajib, 2016). The model postulates that the two sets of working conditions, resources and demand, each evoke a different process. Therefore, work overload is likely to result in stress reactions such as burnout and tension, which contribute to increased turnover and absenteeism. In the JDR approach, work overload was augmented by work engagement; both constructs were theorized to mediate the links between job demands, job resources, and the intention to leave the workforce (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Figure 11. *The JD-R Model*



Source: *(Bakker & Demerouti, 2007)*

After reviewing the previous theories, Table 6 provides a summary of the factors found that influence turnover in organizations according to the theories.

Table 6. *Summary of Theories Findings*

Theory	Findings of factors that influence turnover
The Theory of Organizational Equilibrium (Mediation effect)	This theory states that job satisfaction is influenced by various factors such as work overload and interactions at work, which will eventually lead to turnover intent.
The Social Exchange Theory (Organizational factor)	Relationships with co-workers and leaders will directly impact members' attitudes and behaviors, thus leading to turnover intent.
Job Embeddedness Theory (Individual factor)	If they continue to experience a sense of commitment in both their work and social settings, employees are more likely to remain in their current roles. Failure to do so will make them susceptible to

Theory	Findings of factors that influence turnover
	the appeals for turnover intentions.
Herzberg's Two-Factor Motivation-Hygiene Theory (Reward and mediation effect)	The theory identifies and analyses several aspects that contribute to satisfaction and the intention to leave an organization. The analysis focuses on the most important elements, such as monetary benefits, personal development, and recognition.
The Equity Theory (Reward factor)	This theory states that workers anticipate fairness in their job's input-output ratio. This theory demonstrates how employees care about reward equality, as unfair incentives will cause employee turnover intent.
Social Identity Theory (Individual factor)	If employees identify with the organization's principles and have the EI to manage their social identity, they may feel bound to remain. Several studies have therefore linked social identity theory to organizational identification, EI, and turnover intent.
Human Capital Theory (Organizational factor)	The theory states that employees who invest in their professional development will remain with the organization longer. Additionally, employee training, coaching, and advancement may be an important turnover intention factor.
Role Theory (Individual factor and Organizational factor)	The role theory has been used as a foundation to explain the link between the challenge of maintaining a good work-life balance and the management of work overload, both of which can contribute to turnover in organizations.

Theory	Findings of factors that influence turnover
Work-Family Border Theory (Individual factor)	This theory presupposes that when employee family and work responsibilities overlap, it increases the likelihood that the employee will struggle to establish a healthy work-life balance, which in turn increases the likelihood that the employee will leave.
JDR Theory (Organizational factor)	As individual job demands generally predict turnover intentions in professional groups, the JD-R model links work overload and turnover intentions. The model assumes that resources and demand elicit various responses. Thus, work overload can cause an increase in turnover.

Source:*(Own Elaboration)*

2.4 Hypotheses Development and Conceptual Framework

According to the information in Table 6, there are various concepts about factors that could lead employees to consider leaving their workplace, and after analyzing and reviewing the preceding theories and their findings on the factors that influence turnover intention, it was concluded that the variables could be grouped into three groups: organizational factors, reward factors, and individual factors. The following section will analyze each of these factors with the different variables that will be studied beneath them and propose the hypotheses that will be investigated in this thesis.

2.4.1 *Organizational factors.*

Organizational factors such as talent management, work overload, and leader-member exchange were incorporated into the proposed conceptual model based on the four theories of SET, HCT, role theory, and JD-R theory, and the fact that previous literature has primarily focused on organizational practices being perceived as predictors of academics' turnover intention (Bibi et al., 2018; Converso et al., 2019).

2.4.1.1. Talent management.

As global rivalry has intensified, a fight for talent has refocused attention on the problem of talent management in both academia and industry. Consequently, there is an abundance of literature and research on talent acquisition, development, scarcity, and retention, which has intrigued the interest of both academics and practitioners (Collings & Isichei, 2018; Mcdonnell et al., 2017; Mohammed et al., 2020).

The emergence of talent management as a field of study has not been limited to a specific type of economy but has been of interest to all economies. In spite of the growing academic interest in talent management, there is still a narrow focus and a lack of substantial empirical studies (King, 2015; Mousa & Puhakka, 2019), and while there are ample studies on talent management in western organizational environments (Mohammed et al., 2020; Marinakou & Giousmpasoglou, 2019), there is a paucity of research on the same topic in Middle Eastern contexts (Mousa, 2018).

According to Diaz-Carrion et al. (2021), one of the most pressing concerns that organizations face today is the need to recruit, retain, and cultivate an efficient workforce. Moreover, Fogarassy et al. (2017) and Mathew (2015) highlighted that talent management is crucial to any organization's performance as it aids in the formulation and implementation of strategic business plans. However, the concept of talent management remains controversial in academic literature, which limits its practical application in the workplace (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2020).

Talent management has been defined as the “objective to ultimately nurture and maintain a talent pool of adequately skilled and engaged workforce” (Lewis & Heckman, 2006). Alternatively, it is a human resource management approach that seeks to balance the labor force’s multifaceted influences, employee behavior, and economic factors (Mellahi & Collings, 2010). Moreover, the term “talent pool” has been used several times when speaking of talent. This is due to the considerable number of talent management initiatives that focus on managing the talent pool and establishing career paths for the company's best employees. This may include career path planning, succession planning, development programs, and a range of other techniques implementable for high-potential individuals (Cappelli, 2009).

To truly adopt talent management strategy organizations, we need to acknowledge that it is a comprehensive and interconnected process. The first step is to decide on a suitable strategic framework to attract qualified workforce. The requests of applicants are then accepted or rejected, such that the most qualified, competent, and talented applicants tend to be selected. This can be done in several ways, including interviews, background checks, and physical exams. After selecting the ideal candidate, the organization needs to devote its resources to training and developing the selected individuals.

The training and development method chosen should focus on how to analyze talents, assess their strengths and key points, and develop them, in the long run, to benefit from them and enrich employees' capacities. Even though talent management is a widely established concept that is used in most successful organizations, academics studying the subject have yet to develop a set of "best practices" for talent management projects (Macky & Boxall, 2007).

2.4.1.1a Talent management and employee turnover intention.

When it comes to workforce preservation, talent audits are conducted to ensure effective human resource planning and the availability of talent when needed (Botha et al., 2011). To retain employees, it is not enough to just develop people through continual learning; the organization must also enable them to progress and take on more onerous responsibilities. While executing talent evaluations, talent management concerns are identified, indicating any intention to quit (McCartney & Garrow, 2006), as employee turnover is a significant indicator of talent (Allen et al., 2010), particularly in the higher education sector, as this study aims to prove.

The way in which managers perceive their talented employees is likely one of the most important factors that predict whether or not talented workers will leave an organization (Matobako & Barkhuizen, 2017), as when organizations start to implement more talent management practices, it proves that they are interested in investing in their staff. This may improve the psychological connection between a firm and its employees, leading to lower turnover intentions (Narayanan, 2016). Likewise, investing in people's development has several positive effects: it lowers turnover, boosts output, increases work satisfaction, and reinforces employees' loyalty to the company (Chaudhuri, 2020; Tirelli & Goh, 2015; Wijnmaalen et al., 2016).

The real challenge starts when a firm hires talented and skilled people and must now invest in their retention and engagement (Lewis & Heckman, 2006). Employee retention occurs when employees feel their abilities are appropriately handled and appreciated, and the rate of employee turnover decreases, resulting in employees conducting their duties both effectively and efficiently. As a result, many researchers have found a positive link between the organization's talent management system and employee retention (Barkhuizen et al., 2021; Rumawas,2021, Boonbumroongsuk et al,2022).

Research conducted in South Africa indicated that non-governmental airline institutions employ talent management methods to keep their best employees (Khanyisa & Robert, 2011). In 2014, Oladapo researched the impact of talent management on retention and concluded that employee retention is a major factor in reducing talented employee turnover. Later, a study by Du Plessis et al. (2015) found that talent management strategies have a negative impact on the desire to quit. Finally, according to Fletcher et al. (2018), proper management of employee talent and development will result in improved employee attitudes and retention rates.

Talented faculty members have been shown to boost university rankings, earnings, effectiveness, and efficiency (Hazelkorn, 2017; Lynch, 2015). Thus, a strong foundation of academic professionals with high levels of talent is the cornerstone of any successful educational system, as faculty members help to attract and recruit new students, can educate them well, conduct high-level research, and secure funding for more research, all of which boosts a university's reputation (Bradley, 2016).

When talent management strategies are implemented in educational institutions, it leads to the effective identification of the core competencies required for the job description by the faculties, thereby helping management in recruiting and selecting the most effective employees based on the relevant competencies, resulting in having the right person in the right job, and it is no secret that recruiting effectively is the first step towards retention (Tyagi et al., 2017).

The number of scholarly studies on talent management is relatively limited (Mohammed et al., 2020), especially on the relationship between talent management and employee turnover intentions in academia (Paisey & Paisey, 2018). Rudhumbu and Maphosa (2015) found that university managers lacked the knowledge and expertise necessary to design and implement talent-related programs, this led to high turnover in their investigation of talent management strategies in Botswana's higher education institutions. Another effort was done to evaluate educational institutions by Erasmus et al. (2017), which brought attention to the lack of knowledge that most educational institutions have about putting talent management policies into action. It is important to state that similar research has been conducted by Mokoena et al. (2022) in South Africa and by Al-Dalahmeh et al. (20202) in Jordan universities, but none of the researchers were academic employees at a private Egyptian university; thus, there has been a noticeable gap in the study of talent management and turnover intention.

Inadequate career support and limited opportunities for professional development increase the intention to quit academia (Heffernan & Heffernan, 2019). A global survey of 109 academics revealed that those who believed they needed to support themselves were more likely to switch universities or abandon the field. Eighty percent of these academics intended to change universities, but all intended to leave academia as soon as possible, highlighting the need for talent management to reduce staff turnover (Heffernan & Heffernan, 2019). Therefore, the following hypothesis is formed:

H1: The better the implementation of talent management strategies, the lower the turnover intention in the academic sector.

2.4.1.2 Work overload

Due to the increasingly competitive employment market, employees in nearly all types of businesses are burdened with a substantial quantity of work. They endure increasing stress and anxiety because of their growing work responsibilities. This is known as work overload, which is the degree to which an employee thinks that the amount or intensity of their work is excessive (Caplan & Jones, 1975).

Work overload is a broad concept that considers time, mental tasks, physical tasks, and pressures and is caused by employee expectations to work beyond contractual hours (Cooke & Rousseau, 1984). Work overload has been defined as the combination of actual work demands and the psychological strain that comes from meeting them (Bliese & Castro, 2000); the strain comes when an employee's capacity cannot meet the actual demand.

Another definition for work overload is “the perceived magnitude of work-role demands, as well as the feeling that there are too many things to do and not enough time to do them" (Parasuraman et al., 1996, p. 281). Overworked employees are more likely to consider leaving their jobs, which will eventually reflect in actual employee turnover rates across a variety of industries (Hakro et al., 2021). One of the most recent definitions of work overload was established by Masta and Riyanto in 2020, where they defined it as a working condition where the job needs to be completed in a short time.

Work overload occurs when there is insufficient personnel, new work is passed down by lower management, or the workload grows due to high responsibilities (Thaden et al., 2010). Employees are more likely to become agitated and resign in this situation, as they might believe that the amount of work assigned to them is greater than their capacity to do it and that they must put in extra time to complete their tasks (Kanbur, 2018). Xiaoming et al. (2014) declared that the source of the work overload can be divided into three factors. The first is time load, which is the fear that the work pace would slow or become critical. The second is spirit investment, which an employer must work hard mentally or physically to invest in physical activities to accomplish specific objectives, followed by mental stress, which refers to the mental effort invested in a job, such as thinking, a judgment call, calculation, recollection, focus, and search.

***2.4.1.2a Work overload and turnover intention*.**

In a variety of ways, educators have too much work on their plates. They are not only responsible for educating and spreading knowledge but also serving the community as supervisors, leaders, and planners (Johari et al., 2018). To call what transpires throughout the lecture "teaching" would be an understatement. This is because educators' responsibilities extend beyond the hours spent instructing students, therefore increasing their work overload.

A growing body of evidence shows that educators must spend unpaid time outside the classroom on administrative tasks such as grading, planning lessons, and checking student work (Silva & Fischer, 2020). Moreover, they are required to conduct extensive research on the subject matter to be taught, administration of tests, assignments, and exams, as well as marking and distributing students' grades. Professors, in certain, are expected to put in extra time during summer and winter breaks to prepare for the upcoming academic year, such as preparing lectures, correcting exams, providing feedback, publishing papers, and assisting in administrative work. They, therefore, face a high level of work overload and a need to work overtime or even at home, prompting them to consider other alternatives (Adam, 2002).

This excessive work overload burdens faculty members with commitments that much surpass their own capacity and is likely to induce mental pressure and alter a person's behavior, leading them to consider quitting (Aytaç & Basol, 2019). Furthermore, it was found that a heavy workload, as well as multitasking, resulted in poor quality of life, which eventually led to turnover intention (Lee et al., 2015); heavy workloads, networking, and job pressure in universities influence employee behaviors, which provides grounds for employee turnover intention (Mushtaq et al., 2014; Mushtaq & Umar, 2015).

When employees realize that the tasks delegated to them are significantly larger than their capabilities, work overload prompts the individual to consider leaving (Hon et al., 2013). This statement is in line with previous studies that have shown that work overload isolates employees, leading to increased employee turnover intentions (Liu & Lo, 2018; Xiaoming et al., 2014). It is important to note that previous studies have highlighted the need for further exploration into how poor working environments, such as work overload, drive employees toward negative work behaviors (Boyd et al., 2011; Pooja et al., 2016), such as turnover intention. As a result, the following hypothesis is formed:

H2: The more work overload, the higher the turnover intention in the academic sector.

2.4.1.3 Leader-member exchange.

Several studies have shown that leader-member exchange is a concept with roots in social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Dirican & Erdil, 2020; He et al., 2021) which was founded by Graen and his colleagues to focus on the social exchange relationships between leaders and followers (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen, 1976). The leader-member exchange theory (LMX) has been defined as the quality of the professional relationship between leaders and followers (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). It was later established that to develop a high-quality leader-member relationship, the social, mental, and spiritual support exchanged between the supervisor and their subordinate ought to be considered (Liden et al., 1997). The interaction between leader and subordinates is crucial because subordinates contact their superiors daily to gain experience, confidence, encouragement, and approval to achieve workgroup objectives. Since these interactions differ from follower to follower, leaders are said to be able to build and form discrete social exchange links with each of their followers individually (Chen et al., 2007).

To accomplish a high-quality LMX relationship, there are three main components: mutual understanding, dedication, and accountability (Brower et al., 2000). As a result of receiving assistance, encouragement, and support, high-quality LMX relationships in the workplace encourages followers to take on more duties than they would ordinarily be willing to.On the contrary, low-quality LMX exchanges are distinguished by a rigorous set of standards, role-defined agreements, and economic exchange behaviors. Support and information exchange are limited when leaders engage in these interactions and maintain a certain distance from their followers (Graen & Schiemann, 1978; Van Dyne et al., 2008).

According to Xin and Pelled (2003), dyadic disputes arising from the exchange connection are particularly inclined to result in withdrawal behaviors. Affective and substantive conflicts have been characterized as the two types of disputes (Landry & Vandenberghe, 2009). Affective conflicts involve differences in personal styles, principles, or preferences, whereas substantive conflicts involve differences in thoughts, attitudes, and perspectives about job assignments and the distribution of resources. Furthermore, it has been suggested that LMX not only plays a role in enhancing the outcome of supervisory-subordinate connections but also serves as a foundation for comprehending how supervisory behaviors influence turnover intent (Hakro et al., 2021; Kitur, 2015). This simply means that LMX not only plays a role in determining the quality of supervisory-subordinate relations but it has also been deemed a framework for turnover intention behavior, as this study will demonstrate.

2.4.1.3a Relationship of leader-member exchange and turnover intention.

According to several studies, a supervisor's support is essential to maintaining employee performance in every workplace (Hsiao et al., 2015; Karatepe, 2013; Wu & Chen, 2015). The type of leadership style adopted by organizational leaders can impact followers' attitudes and behaviors, which greatly impacts their intention to leave an organization (Conger & Kanungo, 1987).

This is supported by previous research, which proved that leadership plays an essential role in employees' decisions regarding their desire to quit their jobs voluntarily (Ansari et al., 2007; Jordan & Troth, 2011; Al Hashmi et al.2019; Kim et al., 2019). Since whenever managers are successful in forming an effective LMX relationship, employees perceive the psychological contract as being fulfilled by the firm, making them less likely to leave the organization (Chen & Wu, 2017; Collins, 2010).

Because the quality of an employee's connection with their supervisor has a significant impact on whether or not they intend to stay in their current position (Allen et al., 2009; Cowden et al., 2011; Kuvaas & Buch, 2019), controlling the LMX could be an effective strategy to retain critical personnel. According to Strachota et al. (2003), employees who voluntarily resigned from their jobs did so because they were unsatisfied with the level of support they received from management and were concerned about it. As a result, prior research has demonstrated that the quality of leader-member exchange has a detrimental impact on both intended and actual turnover (Ansari et al., 2007; Agarwal et al., 2012; Morrow et al., 2005,Aarons et al,2021).

Nevertheless, it is vital to state that the link between LMX and turnover has previously been found to be weak and unstable in other publications (Schyns et al., 2008; Vecchio & Norris, 1996). Shaalan et al. (2019) provided support for Collins's (2010) assertion that "the exact nature of the relationship between LMX and turnover intent remains equivocal." The inconsistent findings concerning previous studies call for deeper investigation into the nature of the LMX–turnover relationship, as previous studies all support the need to further examine the relationships within LMX (Kim et al.,2010;Lloyd et al., 2017)

Added to that, the LMX theory has mostly been applied in western contexts (Michael, 2014;Cropanzano et al., 2017; Flickinger et al., 2016; Kwak & Choi, 2015; Vatanen, 2003), whereas only a few studies investigated the concept in non-western society. There is preliminary evidence that the LMX theory can be applied to the study of leader-follower relations in Egyptian culture; however, the studies are limited.

Since the higher education sector is relatively unexplored territory, this study will focus on the effect of LMX on the motivation to leave this field. According to Ruben et al. (2018), high-level educational leaders need to foster positive connections with their personnel to reduce employee turnover. This fact highlights the need of examining LMX in the context of higher education (Anthony & Antony, 2017; Kok & McDonald, 2017). The goal of this study is to investigate the link between turnover intentions and LMX in Egyptian culture to close the gap. Therefore, the following hypothesis is formed.

H3: There is a negative relationship between LMX and turnover intention in the academic sector.

2.4.2 Reward system.

Based on Herzberg's Two-Factor Motivation-Hygiene Theory and the Equity Theory, the reward factors that were included in the conceptual model were intrinsic reward and extrinsic reward. In order to attract, encourage, and maintain personnel who produce the greatest benefit, the field of reward management has advanced. In higher education, most faculty members learn about university reward systems informally, through conversation with other faculty members; this can lead to misunderstandings and an increased likelihood of the intent to leave (Dorenkamp & Weiß, 2018). Despite its importance, the connection between faculty compensation and turnover intention in universities has evident gaps. This pointed out by De Gieter and Hofmans, who were concerned about the pervasive disregard for the relationship between rewards and employees' intent to quit (De Gieter & Hofmans, 2015). Therefore, the purpose of this study is to help bridge this gap.

The entire reward system consists of a mix of monetary rewards, personnel benefits, and non-monetary incentives (Armstrong, 2002). According to Al-sharafi et al. (2018), the motivation of employees is correlated with an increase in the likelihood of staying with the company. The concept of reward is then broken down further into two distinct categories, namely, intrinsic factors and extrinsic causes. For example, financial rewards like salaries and non-financial rewards like recognition and appreciation- both aspects of reward- are necessary to generate a great deal of effectiveness.

Employees that are highly motivated may reach their full potential and experience the highest levels of job satisfaction, which leads to an increase in the value of their organizations and their overall productivity and optimality, decreasing turnover intention. Two studies, one by Bakuwa et al. (2013) and another by Alhmoud and Rjoub (2019), show that intrinsic rewards have a more significant impact on retention than extrinsic rewards. In contrast, Morgan et al. (2013) and Nnabuife et al. (2017) argue that extrinsic rewards have a stronger correlation with employee retention. As a result, in this study, we will be examining each other independently.

2.4.2.1 *Intrinsic reward (recognition) and turnover intention.*

The role of incentives in reducing employee turnover has garnered a lot of attention in the management literature (De Gieter & Hofmans, 2015; Kuvaas et al., 2016). This is because it has been found that an effective incentive system is thought to be necessary for motivating and keeping personnel (Singh, 2003) and is concerned essentially with the internal sense of satisfaction, progress, and self-competence experienced by an individual at work.

Mosley (2016) found that for an organization to have better outcomes in both business and culture, they need to work on developing a solid recognition program, as it is the key to reducing employee turnover and retaining top talent. Many businesses believe that when employees feel unappreciated, their turnover rate increases; hence, they implement basic recognition procedures to limit the pace of turnover. Recognition is acknowledging someone in front of their peers for desired behavior or even accomplishments, actions, or a favorable attitude (Nigusie & Getachew, 2019). Moreover, it is the act of offering individuals verbal attention to express admiration or appreciation for a job well done (Siegrist, 2002).

Employers in various countries utilize recognition programs such as long service awards or loyalty awards to honor employees who have worked for them for a long time. This type of activity improves staff retention in sectors with a high turnover rate. Another example of formal recognition is the "employee of the year" scheme that has been used in organizations as a way of rewarding employees. Nevertheless, many managers appear to be too preoccupied with rectifying errors and dealing with issues to acknowledge their staff's positive contributions. This failure to recognize good work will eventually lead to employees feeling unappreciated and/ or leaving the organization.

Many past researchers have demonstrated that a competitive incentive system such as intrinsic rewards increases the probability of employees remaining with the business (Guthrie, 2001; Mgedezi et al., 2014). As cited in Khan & Qadi in 2016 a study conducted in an organization on employee attitudes toward employers and the workplace, a total of 12750 respondents from various cadres of big enterprises agreed that appreciation and recognition helped them lower turnover intentions. Therefore, the following hypothesis is formed.

H4: The higher the intrinsic reward, the lower the turnover intention in the academic sector.

2.4.2.2 *Extrinsic reward (financial rewards) and turnover intention.*

Money is the most effective motivator because people need it to meet their basic needs; thereby, it drives employees more than any other incentive (Rynes et al., 2004). McNamara (2008) defined financial rewards to include wage and/ or salary programs and structures such as merit-based programs, bonus-based programs, and commission-based programs. In addition, Gomez et al. (2006) considered employee financial compensation as salary, overtime pay, shift allowances, uniform allowances, and performance-based compensation such as merit awards, incentive pay, bonuses, and profit sharing.

Financial incentives, such as wages, have been identified in the research as an important motivator for employees to keep working in an organization (Parker & Wright, 2001; Rynes et al., 2004), as when employees perceive the financial compensation provided by the organization as insufficient, this could lead to the employee's intention to retire from the company and seek work elsewhere.

According to the findings of a survey of faculty members at private higher education institutions, 44% of respondents lacked confidence in their university’s financial stability (Hanover Researsh, 2018). This is a staggering figure that could lead to employee turnover, as Mohammad Atiq and Afshan Bhatti concluded in 2014 that monetary incentives have a substantial association with employee turnover in various age groups.

These results were further supported by two studies in 2020 and 2022, which found that a substantial percentage of faculty staff opted to remain with the university because of their income, indicating a link between extrinsic incentives and turnover intention (Miligi et al., 2020; Kebede & Fikire,2022). The purpose of this research was to find practical strategies for lowering staff turnover and to pinpoint specific areas of its human resource operations that needed enhancement. The study concluded that the high employee turnover intention is attributable to a lack of extrinsic incentives, such as salary disparities, and advised ways for improving extrinsic rewards, leading to a lower turnover intention. Consequently, the following hypothesis is formed:

H5: The higher the extrinsic reward, the lower the turnover intention in the academic sector

2.4.3 Individual factors.

Because every person is a unique combination of their own physical and psychological characteristics and attributes, as well as the complex influences of their own culture and society, workers' intentions to leave their current positions may be more deeply rooted in their own identities than in the organizational structures in which they are embedded. Therefore, based on SIT, JET, role theory and work-family border theory, the individual factors that were included in the conceptual model were: EI, work-life balance, and organizational commitment.

2.4.3.1 Emotional intelligence.

For over a decade, management scholars and educators have been fascinated by workplace emotions, and they have defined EI as the ability to monitor one's own and other people's emotions, differentiate between them, and use this information to guide one's thoughts and actions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). In the initial research conducted in the 1990s, the notion of EI garnered great attention in applied and academic texts and was identified as a crucial component of an individual's ability to successfully contribute to the success of an organization (Bar-On & Parker, 2000; Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1999).

Individuals with high EI, for instance, are more efficient, optimistic, and resilient in work and in their personal lives (Krishnaveni & Deepa, 2011). Therefore, lots of theorists have sought to define EI from many perspectives. Among the various definitions, Goleman’s “the capacity of recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and managing emotions well, in ourselves and in our relationships” stood out (Goleman, 1999, p.317). Simply put, EI means allowing the mind to rule the heart, not the other way around.Furthermore, Ravichandran et al. (2011) described EI as one's capacity to identify, comprehend, and appraise one's own in addition to others' emotions and employ this information in one’s cognition and action. Finally, according to Serrat (2017), EI represents the capability, aptitude, talent, or self-perceived competence to detect, analyze, and regulate the emotions of oneself, others, and groups.

2.4.3.1a Emotional intelligence determinates.

EI can best be determined in an organization by following the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS) (Law et al., 2004). This method focuses on four dimensions: self-emotion appraisal; others' emotion appraisal; regulation of emotion; and emotion usage. The self-emotion dimension has been defined as "an individual's self-perceived ability to understand his or her emotions" (Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008). Its primary focus is on an individual's ability to understand and express emotions. Moreover, individuals who can express their feelings and understand why they have certain feelings have good self-emotional appraisals (Kim et al., 2012).

The ability to recognize other people's emotions enables individuals to more precisely measure the affective responses of others and to choose socially adaptive behaviors in response (Mayer & Salovey, 1993). Others defined it as the ability to assess a person's tendency and to perceive other people's emotions (Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008). Emotion regulation refers to the ability to control both the appearance and intensity of one's own emotions (Gross & John, 1998). Mostly, people with high emotional self-control remain calm and rational even when confronted with overpowering emotions. They employ these skills to make sound decisions by using both their hearts and their heads (Nabih et al., 2016).

The use of emotion relates to an individual's capacity to effectively channel their feelings into productive endeavors and improve their performance (Wong & Law, 2002). This means that when a person uses emotions, it impacts their cognitive processes, which require them to be able to organize their appropriate emotions and feelings to assist them in certain cognitive activities such as reasoning, problem-solving, and decision-making, hence, enhancing their performance.

2.4.3.1b Emotional intelligence and turnover intention.

Since this research aims to understand the factors leading to turnover intention in faculty members, it is vital to realize that intelligence is certainly one of the primary dimensions that affect their performance and may lead to turnover intent; ergo, it is amenable to rigorous analysis. It is essential to note that the working environment in universities differs from that of any organization; however, faculty members face similar challenges in their daily work as the level of intellectual competitiveness and teaching responsibilities are often as powerful as those in businesses.

Many scholars have relied solely on cognitive intelligence to understand faculty members' intelligence; hence, grade point average, SAT, GSE, GMAT, and other admission tests are used in academic institutions as surrogates of IQ. However, management literature reveals that cognitive intelligence is insufficient to predict success (Judge et al., 2002;Collins,2013) since EI has been identified as one of the key predictors of management success in an organization (Sanchez et al., 2020 ;El Khatib et al.2021).

People with EI are said to have a stronger sense of self-awareness, better health, morale, and work-life quality, as well as a greater ability to establish and build tighter working relationships with their colleagues (Bardzil & Slaski, 2003), which leads to better organizational performance and lower turnover intentions. Carmeli (2003) was able to recognize a link between EI and the intention to leave the workplace in his investigations. He further stated that employees with high EI were also able to deal with workplace stress and issues, therefore reducing their intent to quit. An adverse relationship between turnover intentions and EI has been demonstrated in prior research. Wong and Law (2017), particularly, have backed up this claim, and their research underlined the fact that the higher the EI in a certain profession, the more adversely correlated it is with turnover intention.

Moreover, a study conducted by Lopes et al. (2006) found that employees with a higher level of EI were able to maintain strong relationships at work, which affected their intention to remain with the existing organization. Vandervoort (2006) also found that professors with high levels of EI are more effective as they nurture their students, encourage student success, build student self-esteem, and actively participate in the learning process.

EI could be a critical element in retaining employees and understanding the emotional reasons behind their quitting decisions. Emotional turmoil causes a lack of self-confidence, self-esteem, and dissatisfaction, leading employees to focus more on negative thoughts than on their work, becoming physically and cognitively disengaged, resulting in underperformance and work piling up, and hence an increased turnover intention.

Thus, EI is regarded as a crucial component in forecasting employees' turnover intentions, which translates into actual turnover (Riaz et al., 2018). Specifically, in the academic sector, EI plays an important role in reducing the high turnover rate, as employees with higher EI are more likely to see the positive side of things by modulating their perception of the work environment and utilizing their EI to analyze and comprehend the issue better.

Simply put, that they will be better able to use and regulate their emotions, making them less likely to leave their job (Jeswani & Dave, 2012). Despite its importance, few academic studies have been done on faculty members' EI and its impact on universities (Botey et al., 2020; Dornelles & Crispim, 2021).Thereby, this research aims to bridge this gap in the literature and form the following hypothesis.

H6: The higher the EI, the lower the turnover intention in the academic sector.

2.4.3.2 Organizational commitment.

According to the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (2014), without a skilled and devoted workforce, no educational establishment can ensure long-term continuity and performance. Consequently, employee commitment is a more important metric to track than employee satisfaction, so it is critical to get a handle on it (Mowday et al., 1982). One of the first definitions of organizational commitment, established in 1974, stated that organizational commitment means believing in and adopting the organization's goals and values, as well as possessing and showing a desire to be part of them (Porter et al., 1974). Later, Allen and Meyer (1990) asserted that organizational commitment is a psychological state that binds an individual to the organization. Moreover, it is an individual's emotional attachment to and involvement in a hiring organization (Cole & Bruch, 2006), or simply put, it is an individual's feelings towards the organization (Joo & Park, 2010).

Although organizational commitment can be defined by various definitions and many fashions of measurement , there is one common idea that revolves around them all, which is that organizational commitment is a bond or linkage of the individual to the organization. Additionally, organizational commitment is a two-sided relationship between the employer and the employee. For example, if the organization is not committed to its employees and the employees realize it, this will have a negative effect on the relationship, and vice versa. Therefore, commitment cannot be one-sided; it must be mutual to achieve organizational goals (Martins & Coetzee, 2007).

2.4.3.2a Organizational commitment determents.

Meyer and Allen (1991) characterized the concept into three parameters: (1) affective commitment; (2) continuance commitment; and (3) normative commitment. They defined each dimension of organizational commitment as follows:

- The affective component refers to employees' emotional attachment, identification, and involvement in the organization.
- The continuance commitment refers to commitment based on the costs associated with leaving an organization.
- The normative commitment refers to employees' feelings of obligation to remain with the organization.

A more in-depth look at each dimension is needed to understand the types of commitment and the factors that affect these three types of commitment ,especially among the academic faculty staff. Affective commitment is related to personal characteristics, organizational structures, and work experiences, according to Hartmann and Bambacas (2000), which is why employees with strong affective commitment remain in an organization because they feel they want to, and it is primarily based on their love for the organization.

Secondly, the employee's continuance commitment refers to what they will have to give up if they must leave the organization. Employees whose commitment is based solely on continuance remain with the firm because they cannot afford to leave their jobs now, and they need the material benefits (Meyer & Allen, 1991). This could imply that they will not hesitate to quit if they find a better job alternative.

Finally, normative commitment is characterized by a feeling of obligation to continue working (Jaros et al., 2017). It has been concluded that employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they ought to remain with the organization (Bentein et al., 2005). It is mainly the result of a situation that makes an employee feel obliged to remain loyal to one's employer as s/he has received benefits (e.g., tuition payments and skill training) that create a sense of obligation within the employee to return the favor (Wiener, 1982).

2.4.3.2.b Relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention.

After reviewing various literature on predictors of turnover intention, it has been suggested that there are numerous factors that affect turnover intention. One of the key factors that were found to have a direct effect on turnover intention was organizational commitment, as it is believed that when employees are committed to the organization, turnover and absence rates will decrease (Islam et al., 2013;Guzeller et al., 2020;; Purwanto, 2020; Pratama et al., 2022).

Welty et al. (2014) and Batugal and Tindowen (2019), define committed employees as those who are devoted to the organization, believe in its objectives and ideals, and want to remain with the organization through the ups and downs. Furthermore, Griffeth et al. (2000) pointed out that organizational commitment would be a better predictor of organizational turnover intention.

When it comes to the academic staff members, it has been proven that no university can perform at its peak unless each academic staff member is committed to its objectives (Abebe et al 2023)Therefore, for any university to compete in today’s competitive market, it must rely heavily on its academic staff (Bentley et al., 2013). In their 2020 study of turnover intention among academic staff, Hussain et al., 2020 found that academic staff members who have a high level of commitment tend to stay in their jobs longer than their colleagues or peers who do not think or feel the same way.

In contrast, it is essential to note that Saporna and Claveria (2013) discovered no correlation between organizational commitment and the intention to leave. This could be because, in the educational industry, the higher an employee's level of education, the lower their organizational commitment (Kassaw & Golga, 2019). In comparison, Teklle and Solomon (2016) found that employees with higher educational credentials demonstrate greater dedication than those with lower qualifications. Conversely, Teferi et al.’s (2016) research on educators revealed that the amount of education did not significantly predict instructors' commitment to the organization.

Despite numerous studies of commitment worldwide with contradictory results, the issue of academic faculty members' commitment and its relationship with turnover intention remains one of the most serious yet under-addressed educational issues, particularly in the context of Egyptian higher education institutions. Therefore, the following hypothesis is formed.

H7: There is a negative relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention in the academic sector.

2.4.3.3 Work-life balance.

One of the most challenging tasks for any employee is keeping up with their organization's demands as well as their personal lives. Especially nowadays, with the latest technological advances and the change in working patterns, it has become nearly impossible to detach from work when home. Moreover, the borders between work and personal life have become blurred (Woodward, 2007). Work-life balance has been defined as the extent to which individuals are engaged in and equally satisfied with their work role and family role (Greenhaus et al., 2003), while a more recent definition was stated by Atiq et al. (2017), where work-life balance was described as the balance between personal and professional life.

There has been an increase in the work-life balance conflict, specifically with the latest increase in the number of female workers joining the workforce (Boyar et al., 2005,Pace et al. 2021). However, as researchers began to delve deeper into the topic of WLB, they found that it affects men as well, who face distress attempting to balance their work and personal lives (Burke, 2000). Moreover, Waumsley (2010) was able to prove that WLB affected not only married employees but single ones as well (Waumsley et al., 2010). Therefore, WLB is a problem that impacts all demographic areas.

Employees around the world spend much of their time and energy at work to be able to make ends meet. As a result, it is expected that people will eventually lose the ability to balance their professional and personal lives. Work-life balance is especially hard for university faculty members who must balance the numerous demands of researching topics for papers, constantly updating their teaching methods, and administrative duties toward their university.

2.4.3.3a Work-life balance and turnover intention.

Organizations that adopt an effective work-life balance strategy that enables their employees to participate in community activities guarantee that costs and employee turnover are kept in check (Frone, 2003; Helmle et al., 2014; Kerdpitak et al ,2020). However, when an organization fails to implement WLB practices, employee motivation suffers, leading to withdrawal symptoms (Hughes & Bozionelos, 2007). One of the withdrawal symptoms is a desire to leave one's current job because it is challenging for individuals to establish a work-life balance when they are stressed out about their personal lives (Houston & Waumsley, 2003).

In addition to incorporating work-life balance measures into corporate policy, employees must observe management's dedication to implementing these practices through persistent and ongoing improvement. This was found to be a significant factor in the turnover rate, as it represents the employer's integrity (Lingard & Francis, 2005).

Employers' sincerity at Egypt's private universities is questionable, as there are very few policies to promote work-life balance. For example, faculty members working in private universities in Egypt find it extremely hard to balance their work and personal lives due to the fact that the current maternal leave policy in private universities is only 45 days, there is no childcare provided in any private university in Egypt, and due to the high level of competition, there is no room for flexible work schedules or a reduced workload. Consequently, the WLB has become a serious issue.

Although work-life balance has received extensive research over the years, the current research investigates that successful application of WLB procedures has a negative correlation with withdrawal intention (Jaharuddin et al ,2019;Koubova & Buchko, 2013; Kumari, 2012; Wilkinson, 2008). There are contradicting results, as Gordon et al. (2007) found no support for the association between work-life balance and turnover intention, implying that more research is required to fully understand this phenomenon.

The number of variables influencing WLB has evolved over time, making comprehending WLB challenges more complicated and, therefore, important for further study (Atiq et al., 2017). This is why it is perceived as an important issue among workers globally, including academics in higher education institutions (Stanton et al., 2009), as it has been proven that work-life balance has a negative impact on turnover intention (Surienty et al., 2014; Thakur & Bhatnagar, 2017), as employees who are able to balance their work and life have a lower intention to quit (Gächter et al., 2013; Koon, 2020).

Although researchers have investigated the impact of WLB practices on turnover intention in non-academic work settings(Jnaneswar,2016; Tan,2019) this study extends the existing literature by investigating the impact of WLB practices on academics' intention to leave Egyptian higher education institutions. Moreover, minimal attention has been placed on the reality of work-life balance and its relationship with turnover intention in the Middle East's higher education sector as most studies have focused on developed countries (Doherty & Manfredi, 2006; Mohd & Amat, 2010), and none has been placed on the private education sector in Egypt.

Additionally, Egyptian culture differ from those of western culture; hence, these relationships must be verified in Egyptian society. Therefore, the following hypothesis is formed.:

H8: There is a negative relationship between perceived work-life balance and turnover intention in the academic sector.

2.4.4 Job satisfactions as a mediator to turnover intention.

Job satisfaction is the most crucial component in determining an organization's success. Employee satisfaction indicates that workers are actively involved in their work and believe that firm values their effort and dedication. In the conceptual model, job satisfaction was considered a mediator of turnover intention since it can be influenced by organizational factors, the organization’s reward system, and individual factors that have to do with how each employee feels. This is further supported after analyzing the Theory of Organizational Equilibrium and Herzberg's Two-Factor Motivation-Hygiene Theory.

2.4.4.1 Definitions of job satisfaction.

One of the most common definitions of job satisfaction employed by researchers was a pleasurable or positive emotional state coming from an appraisal of one’s job or job experiences (Locke, 1976). Simply put, job satisfaction can be viewed as the positive or negative feelings and attitudes that people have toward their job.

A more recent definition has been defined as a combination of favorable ambitions or positive feelings that people have about their employment and their employment by an institution (Hamidi et al., 2014). In educational institutions, Shapira-Lishchinsky (2012) defined job satisfaction among lecturers as the emotional attitudes and affective feelings that result from the judgment that one’s job fulfills the value that one expects from the job. Basically, job satisfaction is the end feeling of a person after performing a task; it is the extent to which a person’s job meets their dominant needs and is consistent with their expectations and values.

The importance of job satisfaction stems from its association with greater productivity, as more satisfied employees tend to be more productive, leading to relatively more successful organizations (Silverthorne, 2004). Employee dissatisfaction might develop if they begin to believe that their work is not providing them with the financial, emotional, and intellectual fulfillment they had hoped for (Holtom et al., 2008). In conclusion, organizational leaders must prioritize employee satisfaction since it affects productivity and retention rates, which is a major challenge for modern university administrators.

2.4.4.2 *Job satisfaction determinates.*

Even though the concept of job satisfaction can be attributed to Taylor's scientific management movement, it remains one of the most investigated topics in behavioral science management (Dhammika, 2017; Mendoza, 2019). One of the main determinates of job satisfaction was developed in 1975 by Hackman and Oldham, who created the Job Characteristics Model, which was based on the two-factor concept. It was built in an attempt to describe the features of stimulating jobs and concentrated on five different aspects. Workplace characteristics such as identity, importance, autonomy, feedback, and skill range (Hackman & Oldham, 1974). Task identity, according to Coelho and Augusto (2010), provides employees with a sense of purpose and accomplishment in their work, which in turn motivates them to perform at their best.

According to Hackman and Oldham (1974), a job's significance is defined as the extent to which it has a significant impact on the lives or work of other people, both within and outside of one's organization. A job's level of autonomy is determined by how much freedom, independence, and discretion individuals have in arranging their work and deciding on the processes to be employed in carrying it out. Furthermore, it has been observed that allowing people to try new things boosts their chances of success (Coelho & Augusto, 2010).

Furthermore, Hackman and Oldham (1974) defined feedback as the degree to which an employee receives information regarding the efficacy of their performance as a result of doing the work activities required by the job. Employees must receive feedback in order to know where they can improve. Finally, skill variety refers to the degree to which a job demands a wide range of skills (Price & Mueller, 1986).

2.4.4.3 *Job satisfaction and turnover intention.*

The level of job satisfaction reported by an educational faculty member is a reliable indicator on both the success and failure of a university, as faculty job satisfaction in higher education institutions is vital to the development of educational systems to achieve efficiency and effectiveness in the educational process (Al-Smadi & Qblan, 2015).

The satisfaction level of employees plays a critical role in their retention, particularly those regarded as core employees or knowledge workers (Chen et al., 2011; Martins & Coetzee, 2007). To keep employees engaged, it is important to maintain a high level of job satisfaction. Therefore, job satisfaction is an important predictor of academic employees' intentions to stay or leave (Bangwal & Tiwari, 2019; Robbins & Judge, 2018). If an employee is dissatisfied, they may withdraw from the organization physically, intellectually, or emotionally (Luz et al., 2018).

Higher education has been impacted by the problem of job satisfaction and its influence on turnover intention (Al-Smadi & Qbian, 2015; Elder & Ryan, 2016); hence, educational leaders have been seeking to increase research on the factors that contribute to it (Kafumbu, 2019; Serin et al, 2022; Gessesse et al ,2023). For so, it is crucial to understand the exact association between faculty retention rates and job satisfaction (Amos et al., 2015), as it has been found to impact their desire to continue working for their university (AAUP, 2019; Elder & Ryan, 2016; Pan et al., 2015, Jusoh,2019; Serin et al, 2022).

Various studies have shown that faculty satisfaction is an important predictor of faculty turnover intentions dating back to the 1950s (Caplow & McGee, 1958; Kim et al., 2013; Rosser, 2004; Zhou & Volkwein, 2004). A seminal study on faculty mobility was conducted by Caplow and McGee (1958), which aimed to prove that faculty members are more likely to leave their university because they are dissatisfied than they are to leave simply for better conditions. A more recent study conducted by Kim et al. (2013) shows that satisfaction with professional experience, research, and perception of the clarity of the tenure process were important indicators of turnover intention (Kim et al., 2013).

Although satisfaction has been investigated for its potential role in mediating between variables and turnover intention (Chen et al., 2019; Huang & Su, 2016; Rhoades et al., 2001; Sharif et al., 2021; Tziner et al., 2015; Rahman, 2020), contradictory results regarding the relationship between these variables have been reported, owing to disparities in the sets of HR practices in different work settings. For example, educators in the public sector were found to be more satisfied with their jobs than their counterparts in the private sector, according to research comparing the two sectors (Arif et al ,2013;Agarwal & Sajid, 2017). On the contrary, another study has shown that academics at private universities are very satisfied with their jobs (Baş, 2002;Ayub,2010;Msuya,2022).

Due to various studies indicating inequalities in academics' job satisfaction depending on the sector to which they belong, (Akhtar et al., 2010; Sultana et al., 2017), this study decides to focus solely on private universities to eliminate this conflict and further enrich the literature. Furthermore, there are two distinct approaches to the topic of job satisfaction (situational and dispositional). According to the situational perspective, job satisfaction is determined by organizational variables, whereas the dispositional approach suggests that it is influenced by personal characteristics (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Therefore, this study investigates both organizational and individual factors to properly assess job satisfaction as a mediator of turnover intention, along with reward factors.

2.4.4.4 *Relationship between organizational factors and job satisfaction.*

This study considers three organizational factors: talent management, work overload, and leader-member exchange, with job satisfaction acting as a mediator variable for their impact on turnover intent.

2.4.4.4.a Talent management.

Research on the role of job satisfaction in the talent management and turnover intention relationship has yet to emerge, even though job satisfaction is a persistent, intervening variable in numerous studies(Özbağ et al 2014; Huang & Su,2016; Dewi et al,2021). However, it has been stated that talent management is one of the key strategies that organizations utilize to promote employee satisfaction in the 21st century. For example, Barkhuizen et al. (2021) discovered that talent management practices, including talent development and talent retention strategies, were inadequately implemented in organizations. Nearly half of the sample was dissatisfied with their jobs, and 68% of them contemplated quitting. Thus, the researchers concluded that talent management practices were substantially associated with job satisfaction and voluntary turnover intentions.

When further examining the relationship between talent management and job satisfaction, it was found in 2011 by Bethke-Langenegger et al. that there is a positive and significant effect of the retention of talented employees on job satisfaction. This was further supported by Magolego et al. (2013), who stated that talent management is a good predictor of job satisfaction. Additionally, Senona (2017) found that talent management practices, such as talent strategy, staffing, talent acquisition, and talent retention were important determinants of school teachers' work satisfaction, and Dixit and Arrawatia (2018) discovered that talent management directly influences employee work satisfaction.

Finally, a talent management strategy that prioritizes staff satisfaction has been shown to reduce the likelihood of competent workers leaving firms (Hafez et al., 2017; Ozuem et al., 2016). Likewise, the use of talent management methods has the potential to boost employee satisfaction, and research shows that satisfied employees are more likely to remain with an organization (Ingram, 2016; Othman & Sumardi, 2014).

Kochar (2008) analyzed job satisfaction in higher education and found that one of the primary drivers was the sense of growth and advancement that faculty members felt when their talents were fostered. Even though job satisfaction is a common mediator in many studies, little research has been conducted on its impact on talent management, and no study has been conducted to date on the relationship between talent management, job satisfaction, and turnover intention in the private academic sector in particular. After reviewing the theoretical background between job satisfaction and talent management, we hypothesize:

H9: Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between talent management and turnover intention in the academic sector.

2.4.4.4.b Work overload.

The amount of work assigned to an employee in an organization can be a significant source of discontent, and as a result of problems related to work overload, workers continue to be unsatisfied with their jobs and contribute as little as possible This has been proven to eventually result in employees feeling disengaged from their occupations and commonly expressing a desire to seek better opportunities elsewhere (Mangi et al., 2012; Hakro et al., 2022).). Prior research corroborates these findings, showing that when employees find their workload excessive, it contributes to employees' high degrees of job dissatisfaction, ultimately leading to their intention to leave the organization (Pradana & Salehudin, 2015; Yusoff & Khan, 2013).

A 2012 study discovered that occupational pressure, which may be caused by a variety of reasons, such as work overload, job insecurity, and interpersonal relationships at work, had a significant impact on job satisfaction (Paktinat & Rafeei, 2012). The researcher discovered in this study that workplace stress caused by many concerns, such as work overload, is damaging not only to the individual but also to the company, negatively affecting job satisfaction. Moreover, according to Qureshi et al. (2012), perceived work overload causes greater stress and reduced job satisfaction, leading to employee turnover.

When studying work overload affecting faculty members, specifically in higher education, Ali and Farooqi's (2014) discovered that academics who are overloaded with work are dissatisfied with their work. Therefore, it may be established that work overload negatively impacts job satisfaction, as this assertion has been corroborated by the findings of various research studies (Mahendrawan & Dan Indrawati, 2015; Udriyah et al., 2018).

Concerning the mediation role of job satisfaction on work overload, studies have stated a relationship between work overload and turnover intention through the mediating role of job satisfaction (Al Jamil et al ,2022;Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2017, Kunagaratnam,2018). On the contrary, it is critical to note that researchers such as Murtiasri in 2006 found no correlation between work overload and job satisfaction. Thus, we hypothesize:

H10: Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between work overload and turnover intention in the academic sector.

2.4.4.4.c Leader-member exchange.

Employee turnover intent and job dissatisfaction can be caused by a lack of interaction and leadership support, as well as unproductive behavior and psychological disengagement (Harris et al., 2005; Lebrón et al., 2018; Wang & Yi, 2011). Thus, the main person who can influence how demanding or satisfying a job is for an employee is a supervisor (Gilbreath & Benson, 2004; Major & Lauzun, 2010). This is especially true in academia, as instructors need the backing of their department head and dean when dealing with students and working on their research. In addition to having a direct effect on turnover intention, it is recognized that job satisfaction also mediates the impact of other variables on turnover intention. For example, Hakim and Ibrahim (2017) discovered that job satisfaction partially interfered with the relationship between leadership effectiveness and the willingness to leave.

Employees with a high level of leader-member exchange are considered in-group and receive greater support and attention from their superiors. This can contribute to employee satisfaction by eliciting better treatment from employee leaders (Liu et al., 2013). According to research, employees deemed "in-group" are more inclined to take on extra interesting duties from their leaders and communicate more successfully with them (Bitmis & Ergeneli, 2012). As a result, research indicates that LMX affects job satisfaction (Mardanov et al., 2007; Shaikh et al., 2019). In the academic sector specifically, the findings of a study conducted by Hooda and Singh (2014) on job satisfaction among faculty members found that job happiness was highly influenced by the leadership of their leaders.

Bauer et al. (2006) found through a longitudinal study that LMX adversely impacts executive turnover intentions, ultimately leading to actual turnover. This study further showed that high-quality LMX subordinates tend to be satisfied with their work and are, therefore less inclined to resign. Later in 2011, Vigoda-Gadot and Beeri stated that when employees form a high-quality connection with their supervisors, it will eventually have a significant impact on work satisfaction. Furthermore, Malik et al. (2015) discovered in their empirical investigation that the greater the LMX, the better the employee's work satisfaction.

Miao et al. (2011) investigated the impact of job satisfaction as a mediator between LMX and turnover intention and concluded that job satisfaction is a mediator between LMX and turnover intention. This relationship was also supported in 2015 by Bhatti et al., and in 2018 by Li et al., who proposed that job satisfaction plays a mediating role in the relationship between LMX and employee turnover intention .They also suggested looking into it to see whether the conclusion might be generalized to other settings. Thus, adding to the previous findings, this research aims to examine this relationship in the academic sector and in a developing country such as Egypt. Therefore, we hypothesize:

H11: Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between leader-member exchange and turnover intention in the academic sector.

2.4.4.5 Relationship between reward factors and job satisfaction.

An efficient reward system is one of the most critical aspects of human resource practice, and it is widely regarded as one of the primary contributors to higher employee satisfaction and lower turnover (Hoyos et al., 2021; Froese et al., 2019). De Gieter and Hofmans (2015) argue that in the relationship between rewards and turnover intention, there has been widespread neglect, not only on the level of individual needs, but also of the employee's level of satisfaction with a reward, which influences the behaviors and attitudes of various employees, including turnover intention. They further identified a gap in the literature regarding the need to embrace a broader conceptualization of organizational rewards and satisfaction levels.

2.4.4.5.a Intrinsic reward and job satisfaction.

In today's business climate, organizations strive to strike a balance between employee retention and organizational success, as academic researchers have demonstrated that employee recognition is positively related to job satisfaction and that the absence of recognized recognition is a substantial predictor of intentions to leave the organization (Angliss, 2007; Henryhand, 2009;Tirta et al ,2020; Hassan et al ,2020)

Rewards and recognition for one's work create a lively work experience; thus, incentive and recognition programs are essential to retaining employees' strong self-esteem and enthusiasm (Danish & Usman, 2010). Likewise, effective incentive schemes can improve employee performance and make them happier in their workplaces (Tahir et al., 2012; Yusoff et al 2022). According to Baporikar's (2021) research, intrinsic rewards such as personal competence and self-determination support job satisfaction and affect one's gratification at work, as nearly all workers value being credited for their job and receiving praise, primarily from respected coworkers and superiors. Similarly, most people feel bad when their efforts go unnoticed (Akafo & Boateng, 2015).

Flynn (1998) asserts that reward and recognition programs boost confidence, keep workers optimistic, and create a link between productivity and employee turnover intention. However, not all employees value intrinsic rewards equally, as Mauko (2021) found in his research that only employees who value autonomy and relatedness are more content with their jobs than those who do not. A recognition and reward system's primary objective is to acknowledge employees' excellence and make it known to the staff so that they can correlate their reward with their accomplishment, which fosters job satisfaction and encourages employees to put in more effort at work, as well as aids in employee retention. As a result, recognition techniques must be properly executed to draw in and keep skilled workers, as well as inspire them to manage their jobs more effectively (Bustamam et al., 2014).

H12: Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between intrinsic rewards and turnover intention in the academic sector.

2.4.4.5.b Extrinsic reward and job satisfaction.

Financial rewards are of fundamental importance for both employees and companies. Employees, in particular, must be content with their gross pay, as it may influence their behavior and attitudes as their salary is essential to meeting their economic needs. Studies have conclusively established that pay discontent may have significant and unfavorable effects on various employee outcomes (Heneman & Judge, 2000,Nandan et al ,2013). For instance, low financial rewards among employees can lead to increased theft, less loyalty to the company, and high turnover (Currall et al., 2005; Ebrahim & Ebrahim,2017).

According to equity theorists, employees seek a balance between what they put into their work in terms of effort, expertise, and abilities and what they receive in return in the form of income or acknowledgment (Adams, 1963). Thus, employees who feel underpaid will try to compensate by reducing input, such as increased absence, tardiness, breaks, and low productivity- all of which are costly to an employer (Greenberg, 1990).

After attempting to restore fairness but failing, many employees may resign from their positions since they have little to no control over the outcomes (Greenberg, 1987). Sharma and Bajpai (2011) aimed to identify the link between financial reward and job satisfaction. They concluded that work satisfaction improved or decreased when financial rewards improved or declined, respectively. This study demonstrated that well-paid employees have favorable attitudes toward their careers or professions and have lower employee turnover.

Likewise, Alam and Asim (2019) established that financial reward is highly statistically significant with the intention to leave, as they observed that employees who were satisfied with their financial reward were satisfied with their jobs and had no intention to resign. Moreover, in 2020 Rahman conducted a study to examine the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention and found that Pay was a found to a significant relationship to turnover intent through the mediating role of job satisfaction. For so, we hypothesize:

H13: Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between extrinsic rewards and turnover intention in the academic sector.

2.4.4.6 Relationship between individual factors and job satisfaction.

The notion of job satisfaction is complicated and multifaceted that relates to psychological, physical, and social factors. Individual factors, such as one's own natural traits and the experiences gained over one's lifetime, can have a considerable impact on the development of job satisfaction. Therefore, it is essential to study an individual's EI, capability to manage a healthy work-life balance, and impact on job satisfaction. In addition, organizational commitment is an individual factor as it is a psychological condition that distinguishes the relationship between employees and institutions and has an impact on the individual's turnover intent and job satisfaction , as those with a strong commitment will tend to have higher job satisfaction and stronger desire to continue working for the organization.

2.4.4.6.a Emotional intelligence.

Employees with high levels of EI usually report feeling happier and more satisfied with their work since they are more adept at evaluating, controlling, and steering their own emotions than those with a lower total EI. The previous statement has been supported in particular when it comes to professionals as it has been shown that professionals exhibiting higher EI will be more contended with their jobs as they are more successful in handling physiological and psychological stressors at workplace leading to encouraging consequences, like higher job satisfaction at the workplace (Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008; Srivastava et al,2021). In contrast, employees with low EI struggle to comprehend and control their emotions when confronted with challenging or complicated circumstances. Consequently, they tend to act out of character, escalating their negative emotions and lowering their productivity at work (Trivellas et al., 2013).

According to recent research by Gholipour et al. (2017) emotional intelligence improves staff's attitude toward increasing job satisfaction and decreasing turnover intent. Additionally, Latif et al. (2017) focused on the educational sector and further confirmed the relationship between EI, job satisfaction and turnover intent. These findings are in line with several empirical research that has found EI to be a significant predictor of work-related outcomes, including turnover intention, job satisfaction, and performance (Lam & O'Higgins, 2012; Sy et al., 2006).

In their empirical study, both Ghoreishi et al. (2014) and Srivastava et al. 2021 found a noteworthy association between EI and JS. When focusing on the educational field studies conducted by Singh and Kumar (2016) and Joshi et al (2015) found that there is a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. On the contrary, El Badawy and Magdy (2015) did a study at four different private institutions in Egypt and found no statistically significant correlation between EI and faculty members' levels of job satisfaction. Therefore, more research is needed to determine the cause of the discrepancies in findings regarding the connection between EI and job satisfaction as mediator variable Egypt.

Thus, we hypothesize:

H14: Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between EI and turnover intention in the academic sector.

2.4.4.6.b Organizational commitment.

Industrial and organizational psychologists, operations researchers, and sociologists pay a lot of attention to organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Organizational commitment and job satisfaction have been shown to be correlated with productivity, attendance, punctuality, involvement, turnover, and psychological disengagement from the workplace (Locke, 1976). Additionally, it has been argued that a lack of employee commitment may lead to decreased job satisfaction, emotional or mental withdrawal, or eventually employee turnover (Donald et al., 2016).

To forecast an individual's organization-relevant behavior (Roznowski & Hulin, 1992), verified work satisfaction scores are the most instructive information an organizational psychologist or manager can have. Job dissatisfaction, as per Roznowski and Hulin, can lead to one (or a composite) of four different forms of bad conduct. First, disgruntled workers may try to improve job performance by stealing and utilizing work time for personal purposes. Second, they could mentally retreat from their work, exhibiting behaviors like skipping meetings, drinking at work, or aimlessly roaming to appear busy. Third, they may engage in behaviors such as turnover or early retirement. Lastly, employees may engage in certain change behaviors to transform the workplace environment, such as attempts to bring changes via union or other activities or seeking to relocate work (Roznowski & Hulin, 1992). Hence, job satisfaction directly influences employees’ commitment to the organization and their turnover intention (Brown & Peterson, 1994).

The relationship between job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention is very complex. Researchers from a range of sectors have investigated the correlation between job satisfaction and commitment to an organization. Some of this research focused on the personnel at a hospital (Kapla et al., 2012), while others examined information technology (Lumley et al., 2011). Although there is consensus on the relative strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment, there is debate about the direction of that relationship (Tarigan & Ariani,2015).

The interesting thing about this research is to place job satisfaction as a mediating variable or mediate the influence of organizational commitment to turnover intention ,as previous research emphasizes organizational commitment variable as the intervening variable and job satisfaction as the dependent variable. (Ahmed., 2019; Tarigan & Ariani,2015). This is a new attempt as only a handful of researchers have attempted to examine this relationship. For example, this relationship has been studied in 2016 where the mediating effect of job satisfaction on the relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational commitment was tested and found significant (Donald et al,2016). A more recent study by Afrizal et al in 2022 found that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between organisational commitment to employee job performance (Afrizal et al,2022 However, there is a lack of information that can verify the mediation relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction, particularly among academic staff members in higher education institutions as only two studies was found that attempted to tackle this relationship and focused on the banking industry and the medical sector (Bhatti et al,2016; Agustinningtyas et al.2020). Thus, we hypothesize:

H15: Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention in the academic sector.

2.4.4.6.c Work-life balance.

Individuals in the 21st century have a greater need to establish a healthy balance between their personal and professional lives to maintain high achievement levels. Examples of the outcomes of work-life balance are improved financial performance, employee satisfaction and productivity, and organizational commitment and attachment (Shankar & Bhatnagar, 2010).

In specific, faculty members' levels of job satisfaction correlated with their capacity to achieve work-life balance at private universities (Kamran et al., 2014) because in the academic field, professors have little personal time due to the struggle of juggling their personal and work lives which is why this study is mostly focused on academics.

In the educational field, given the multiple workplace roles played by university academics alongside organizations and communities, pressures are likely to act as significant triggers that influence their perceived work-life balance, leading to job dissatisfaction (Khairunneezam et al., 2017). Regarding this, it is expected that universities may experience higher employee turnover if they do not cultivate circumstances for at least modest levels of work satisfaction and work-life balance, as employees' ability to maintain a healthy work-life balance has a substantial influence on their overall job satisfaction as well as their willingness to remain in their position (Holland et al., 2019).This is why organizations are significantly investing in work-life balance and developing a work-life balance-friendly workplace by providing employees with access to services like flexible scheduling, daycare, and parental leave, as this has been found to increase job satisfaction and reduce the desire to quit (Downes & Koekemoer, 2011; Helmle et al., 2014).

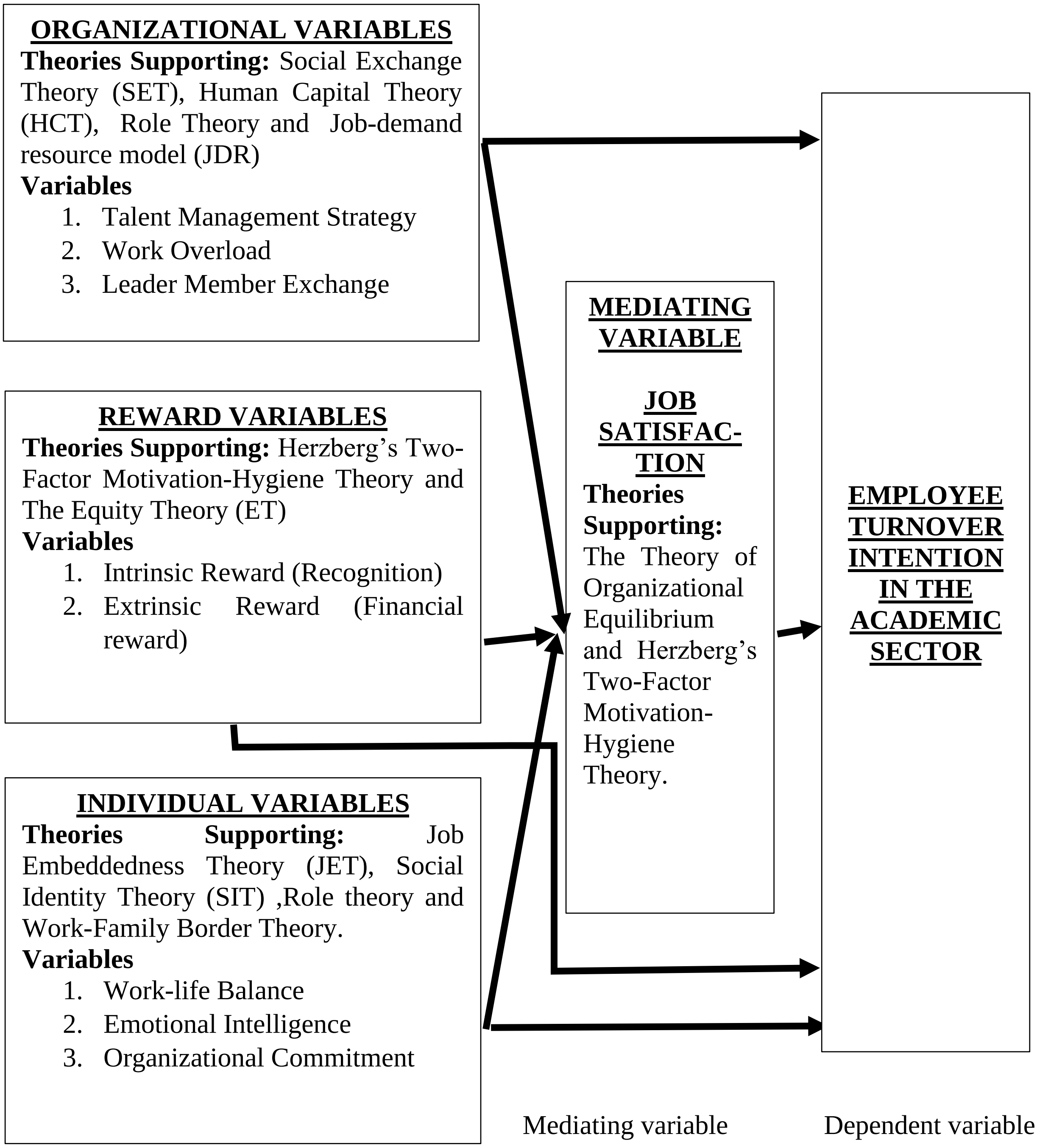
According to Azmi et al.in 2021, reasonable work-life balance leads to substantially higher levels of job satisfaction and lower inclinations to quit the organization. The study indicates that work-life balance might lower individuals' intentions to leave their jobs by enhancing job satisfaction. Additionally, it was also discovered that there is a job satisfaction partially mediated the relationship between WLB and turnover intentions (Noor, 2011) while a more recent study reported full mediation (Nair et al.,2021). However, Prayogi et al (2019) found that job satisfaction is not an intervening variable when it comes to the relationship between work life balance and turnover intent. Hence more research is required to understand this relationship as previous investigations have indicated that WLB practices can influence turnover intention through numerous factors and have called for additional investigation to look into other mediating variables to better understand how WLB practices affect employees' turnover intention. Thus, we hypothesize:

H16: Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between work-life balance and turnover intention in the academic sector

2.5 Proposed Theoretical Model for the Study

After reviewing the theoretical background and past theories and incorporating them, the following mode (Figure 12) has been proposed for this study.

Figure 12. *Proposed Research Model for this Study*



Source. *Own Elaboration*

2.6 Conclusion

This chapter started by defining turnover intention, specifically academic turnover intention, and went on to state the theories relevant to factors influencing turnover intent. From the theories, the factors were divided into organizational variables, reward variables, and individual factors, which were then discussed in detail to state the hypotheses for this research, which are summarized in Table 7 below, and develop the proposed conceptual framework as shown in Figure 12.

Table 7. *Summary of Research Hypotheses*

Hypothesis	Description
H_1	The better the implementation of talent management strategies, the lower the turnover intention in academic sectors
H_2	The more the work overload, the higher the turnover intention in the academic sector
H_3	There is a negative relationship between LMX and the turnover intention in the academic sector
H_4	The higher the intrinsic reward, the lower the turnover intention in the academic sector
H_5	The higher the extrinsic reward, the lower the turnover intention in the academic sector
H_6	The higher the EI, the lower the turnover intention in the academic sector
H_7	There is a negative relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention in the academic sector
H_8	There is a negative relationship between perceived work-life balance and turnover intention in the academic sector
H_9	Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between talent management and turnover intention in the academic sector
H_{10}	Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between work overload and turnover intention in the academic sector
H_{11}	Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between leader-member exchange and turnover intention in the academic sector

Hypothesis	Description
H_{12}	Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between intrinsic rewards and turnover intention in the academic sector
H_{13}	Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between extrinsic rewards and turnover intention in the academic sector
H_{14}	Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between EI and turnover intention in the academic sector
H_{15}	Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention in the academic sector
H_{16}	Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between work-life balance and turnover intention in the academic sector

Source. *Own Elaboration*

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

Employee turnover intention is a broad concept that transcends many aspects of research. Due to its complexity, it makes selecting an appropriate research method challenging. Since this research aims to study the phenomenon of turnover intention in the academic field, it is vital to note that research scholars have agreed that a phenomenon can be investigated using various strategies, techniques, and methods depending on the situation (Denzin, 2017). Employee turnover intentions research is diverse, necessitating disciplined methodological pluralism. In 1992, Landry and Banville defined pluralism in their research, as a preference for diversity in methods, theories, and research philosophies in scientific research. It renders pluralism a desirable state through which research is conducted, even when viewed retrospectively within unified paradigms. This chapter outlines the methodology used in this research to collect the data for later analysis. Thus, it will explain the research designs, types of research methods, sampling criteria, instruments used to collect data for later analysis, and types of statistical analysis.

3.2 Research Design

A research design is a plan, structure, and strategy to answer questions or solve problems. It outlines what the researcher will do, from developing the hypothesis to analyzing the data. Simply put, it is the blueprint that the researchers will use to achieve the research objective(Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). More importantly, the study's significance depends on the design, data obtained, and analysis (Kumar et al., 1999). Therefore it is a critical step when conducting research as it sets the way in which the researcher intends to reach their objective.

The research design is further used to determine the methodological choices, research approach, data collection tools, and ethical considerations to be addressed (Burns & Groove, 2014; Kumar, 2018; Saunders & Lewis, 2017). Moreover, Saunders' research shows that planning and designing are crucial to any study (Sahay, 2016). Therefore, it is vital that researchers address research philosophy, approaches, methodological choice, research strategies, research methods, time frame, and research techniques and procedures.

The current research employs a “mixed-method” approach to address the research question. Since the early 1990s, many mixed-methods studies have been conducted in a wide range of fields in the international literature, and this trend has been noted by several authors (Creswell, 2013; Ivankova, 2015). These studies were critical in sparking the development of mixed-methods research under a different paradigm (Ivankova & Clark, 2018; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). As a result, this study used a mixed-methods design with a sequential exploratory technique The researcher chose the exploratory mixed-methods design as it will help schedule the collected data and give weight to both quantitative and qualitative aspects(Johnson & Christensen, 2014). The researcher used the interviews to structure the variable inquiry and develop questions for variable talent management, as well as using the questionnaires to validate the proposed conceptual model and hypothesis.

In its definition, a mixed-methods approach is a comprehensive technique that comprises integrating data forms and applying unique designs that include making assumptions and generating theories. Bulsara (2015) defined it as a type of study where the researcher mixes elements of both qualitative and quantitative research approaches, especially the use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, and analysis. The mixed methods approach is helpful because the qualitative and quantitative aspects complement each other as the two sets of data are treated as different and not parallel, but the two processes are linked as they are at opposite ends of the continuum.

Historically, most research relied on quantitative approaches from the late 19th century to the mid-20th century (Noble & Heale, 2019), with qualitative research only recently being relied on since it brings a different dimension to the overall study. The qualitative part of the mixed-methods approach is mainly concerned with the inductive approach to the already existing link between theory and research. On the contrary, the quantitative research approach focuses on the deductive method (Creswell, 2013).

Many social science researchers started using mixed-methods research by the year 2000, and the discipline saw an explosion of related literature (Punch, 2014; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Although theoretical debates and examples of good practices in mixed methods exist, they are only found in the international literature (Corrigan & Onwuegbuzie, 2020). Thus, while Egypt follows international trends concerning methodological difficulties, mixed methods research in the social sciences is a recent phenomenon, therefore adding weight to this study.

3.3 Research Approach

Traditionally, researchers chose either inductive reasoning, in which a succession of specific observations leads to a general conclusion that may or may not be true, or deductive reasoning, in which a hypothesis or general rule is tested with evidence and, if found to be true, a specific conclusion is drawn (Dudovskiy, 2016). However, now there is a third option, abductive, which is the methodology utilized in this research as it is a hybrid of deductive and inductive research. The abductive approach was described by Dubois and Gadde (2002) as a process of systematic combining, as in abductive research, inductive hypotheses are formulated while deductive hypotheses are repeatedly investigated. They further stated that when researchers apply the adductive approach, they adopt a technique in which they build on their knowledge of theory and first-hand interpretations and this way tackle some of the weakness accompanied with inductive and deductive approach(Dudovskiy, 2016).

Abduction begins with the existence and observation of an uncommon or unforeseen incident, followed by the development of plausible theories to explain what occurred. The researcher may then investigate these theories further and uncover new findings that lead to the development of additional theories. Simply put, it provides the researcher with the opportunity to switch back and forth between data and theory. Its use is critical to the field of behavioral science because of its strong link to the study of human behavior and the identification of the major driving forces behind individuals' actions. This type of research helps analyze the elements that lead to people's various incentives to act in a given manner, such as employee turnover intention, and comprehend why it occurs. As the researcher is currently working in a private university in Egypt, abductive method was deemed appropriate as it started with the researcher noticing first-hand the rate of turnover intention in private universities, then researching theories and trying to develop a new conceptual framework to explain this recent phenomenon.

3.4 Research Paradigm

A research paradigm is a collection of ideas, beliefs, or interpretations that allow theories and strategies to exist. Simply expressed, it is a set of agreements and points of view regarding how challenges should be understood and appraised among academics (Kuhn, 1970). According to Guba and Lincoln (1994), research paradigms are features of methodologies used by researchers to answer three basic research questions: ontological, methodological, and epistemological (Brown, 2017).

Epistemology is the study of the precise link that exists between the "reality" being researched and the researcher conducting the investigation. Ontology is the method that researchers use to investigate a "truth" they believe to be true. Thus, according to Babbie (1998), social researchers may base their inquiries on a variety of paradigms. It signifies that no paradigm is correct or incorrect, as each paradigm will construct a unique type of theory for broad understanding. In the following paragraphs, the researcher will elaborate on the ontology and epistemology that form the basis of this study.

3.4.1 Ontology.

It is concerned with the nature and form of existence, reality, and research. It is claimed that ontology is concerned with the nature of reality and its qualities, and has two main dimensions: objectivism and subjectivism (Saunders et al., 2012). Objectivism conveys the existence of social entities that are externally independent of social actors. This means that social phenomena are founded on independent realities that are beyond perception or control. On the other hand, subjectivism maintains that social phenomena result from social actors' perceptions and actions, and that these two factors are intertwined (Saunders et al., 2012). As a result, researchers conduct their investigations to understand what is going on and report on these varied realities (Creswell & Tashakkori, 2007).

Researchers prefer to view the link underlying HRM policies and practices as objective and external to social actors (leaders, staff members, shareholders, etc.) due to the large number of environmental elements that could influence the relationship between the variables and are beyond the control of social actors. Subsequently, it is independent of the actions of an organization's members to examine this phenomenon objectively and act accordingly (Palagolla, 2016). Hence, the majority of HRM research is ontologically grounded in the objective reality of the social environment, and thus this thesis adheres to the objectivism approach.

3.4.2 Epistemology.

The study's epistemological part tackles the heart and the relationship between balance and the necessity to conduct the examination. It is derived from a Greek word that means knowledge philosophy and how an individual knows the universe. The discipline of epistemology interprets what is considered legitimate knowledge in a particular field of study (Wilson, 2014).

In brief, it discusses the study and what is thought to be known. Furthermore, it can be defined as the nature of knowledge concerned with exploring human beings' knowledge, nature, and existence (Bogen, 2009). The epistemological stances applied in business and management research are mainly positivism, realism, pragmatism, and interpretivism (Saunders et al., 2009). This research follows the pragmatic view, as explained in the following section.

3.5. Research Philosophy

In a positivist approach, the research society relies on empirical academic data where controlled and statistical evidence is used. Positivism states that when conducting scientific research, we should not go beyond the boundaries of what can be observed (Ryan, 2006). The positivist approach requires a clear, concise discussion, as well as a description plot not drawn from human feelings or subjective interpretation (Cruickshank, 2011). For positivists, the pursuit of knowledge is centered on the development of hypotheses using empirical methods like experimentation and observation (Saunders et al., 2012).

The philosophy of realism is predicated on the notion of a scientific approach to knowledge advancement (Alharahsheh & Pius, 2020). Furthermore, it depends on the concept of reality's independence from the human mind, which can either be direct or critical. "What you perceive is exactly what you receive." is the best way to describe direct realism (Saunders et al., 2012). Alternatively, "feeling and visuals of the real world can be misleading, and they frequently do not depict the real world", is known as critical realism (Novikov & Novikov, 2013). Simply put, realism in research philosophy is when the researcher confronts reality and focuses on the practical (Maxwell, 2012). An excellent example of realism is the rejection of all mythical beings.

Interpretivism's research philosophy is premised on the principle that the investigator has a specific role in observing the social world. It states that one can only gain access to reality through the process of social creation, which is based on the researcher's wants and interests (Creswell, 2009). In addition, interpretive research is a framework and practice common in social science research that heavily relies on philosophical and methodological strategies for comprehending social world realities (Alharahsheh & Pius, 2020).

Pragmatism provides the philosophical foundation for the study. It is important to understand that pragmatism is linked to a single aspect of philosophy and reality. The application of pragmatism is essential because adherents of that philosophy know that the world is not an absolute unity. The pragmatic approach is necessary since the research problem addresses data collection and analysis in various ways instead of adhering to that investigation in just one way. In essence, using a pragmatic philosophical approach ensures meaning is given to why both qualitative and quantitative data must be combined (Pistrang & Barker, 2012).Given that this study is based on a mixed methods design (exploratory sequential mixed methods design), this approach is generally consistent with the pragmatic paradigm in literature. According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2017), pragmatism is generally associated with mixed-methods research.

3.6 Triangulation in the Research

Triangulation is a fundamental term in the social sciences that refers to the use of numerous, distinct methods to expand knowledge of a particular theory or phenomenon (Burton & Obel, 2011). After reviewing the literature on factors affecting turnover intention, it was suggested that several factors usually influence the phenomenon. When this aspect is considered, the mixed-methods approach allows for a better comprehension of the turnover intention phenomenon, as the mixed-methods research is founded on the concept of enhanced comprehension via methodological triangulation (Denzin, 2012; Torrance, 2012). Furthermore, the study collected data using interviews and questionnaires to demonstrate the correlations and similarities between the variables' data (Noble & Heale, 2019).

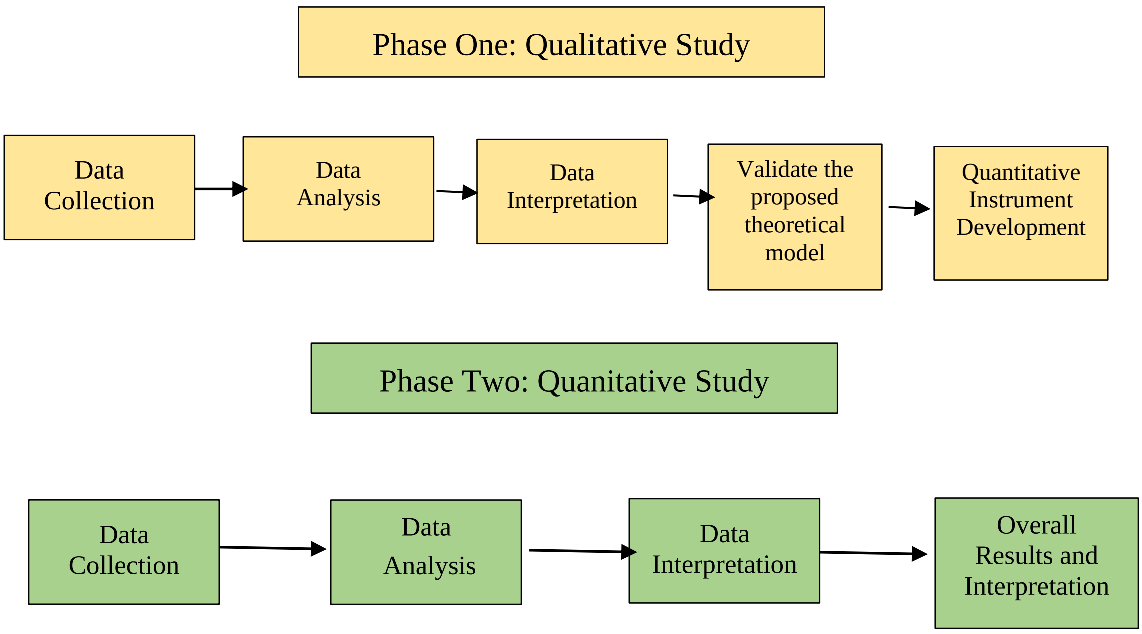
3.7 Research Process

As this study follows a sequential exploratory design, the first step was to collect and analyze qualitative data to identify themes that would be then used to drive the development of a quantitative instrument to further explore the research problem and help validate the conceptual model (Creswell et al., 2011; Onwuegbuzie et al., 2010). The reason behind using a mixed approach, specifically the sequential exploratory approach, is that the reasons for turnover may not be presented or effectively covered in a quantitative survey, as the reasons behind turnover intention can be very complex, necessitating the researcher's efforts to unearth the true factors.

As we present in Figure 13, the research begin with qualitative investigations, which include in-person interviews, data collection and analysis, and the development of the quantitative instrument (Keenan et al., 2017). This strategy is primarily intended to assist researchers in understanding participants' values and behaviors(Mack, 2005). It has been stated that qualitative methods are ideal for "research that is exploratory or descriptive, that assumes the value of context and setting, and that searches for a deeper understanding of the participant's actual experiences of the phenomenon" (Marshall & Rossman, 1999, p.60).

Interviews were held with university faculty members, and field notes were gathered in order to proceed to the next step of data analysis by conducting thematic analysis and data coding. This enabled the researcher to interrupt the sub-themes, validate the proposed conceptual model with three main themes: organizational variables, individual variables, and reward system, and their sub-variables (talent management, leader-member exchange, work overload, intrinsic reward (recognition), extrinsic reward(financial pay), EI, organizational commitment, and work-life balance), and develop the talent management statements in the questionnaire. As this is a mixed-methods study, the next step was to collect quantitative data via structured questionnaires so that data could be analyzed and the results could be interpreted to answer the research objectives and support the hypothesis. Figure 13 depicts the steps of the research and Table 8 summarizes the research methodology of this thesis.

Figure 13. *Research Process of the Thesis*



Source. *Own Elaboration*

Table 8. *Summary of Methodology*

Ontology	Objective
Epistemology	Pragmatism
Research Design	Mixed Method
Research Approach	Abductive
Data Collection Method	Interviews and Questionnaires

Source. *Own Elaboration*

3.8 Population and Sampling

A population is defined as a total group of individuals, events, or units that share a set of characteristics that the researcher desires to examine (Sekaran, 2003; Zikmund et al., 2013). The census is the concept of analyzing every aspect of the population (Greener, 2008; Saunders et al., 2012). Cochran (2007) suggested that researchers cannot always witness and investigate each area of the intended study under controlled conditions, they must rely on sampling.

A researcher uses sampling to pick a subset of a population from which to draw conclusions about a larger behavioral trend or phenomenon in the community. The two main sampling methods are probability and non-probability methods. Probability sampling is when each member of the population has an equal chance of being chosen to be part of the sample, such as in simple random sampling, cluster sampling, stratified sampling, and systematic sampling. When using a nonprobability, members of society are unaware if they will be selected for the research. There are various types, such as convenience sampling, quota sampling, expert sampling, snowball sampling, and the judgment-purposive sampling method.

The sampling technique adopted was a judgment-based, purposive sampling technique, wherein the researcher's discretion is used to select the participants who are best positioned to provide responses to the study questions based on their attributes. Such a sample satisfies the study's aims, which can be more difficult to attain with other sampling methods (Bryman & Buchanan, 2018; Creswell & Poth, 2018; Gentles et al., 2015). Purposive judgmental sampling selects a homogeneous sample in which all participants share similar traits, which is fitting for this research as the focus is only on faculty members in private universities in Egypt. This will allow the researcher to analyze the group in-depth and swiftly find minor differences and this sampling method was deemed suitable when the research focus on highly specific individuals (Sekaran & Bougie, 2003)

Finally, when a small percentage of the population possesses the characteristic under study, judgmental sampling is most useful. Judgmental sampling is a low-cost, time-efficient method for exploratory research. It is important to state that this method makes generalizing data difficult because each sample is based on the researcher's assessment, which can lead to researcher bias.

3.9 Sampling Size

For the qualitative study, to this day, individual researchers still commonly question the appropriate sample size for qualitative research (Dworkin, 2012). In this research, the researcher referred to the concept of data saturation. Guest et al. (2006) described data saturation as the point at which no new information or themes emerge from the completion of additional interviews or cases. Moreover, he stated that data saturation could be reached in as few as six interviews, depending on the population sample size. This was later supported by Marshall et al. (2013), stating that ten to fifteen interviews would be adequate to reach thematic saturation in a qualitative study.

Finally, Creswell (2013) suggested the number of interviews should be between 5 and 30, with a larger number if the research is concerned with comparing two distinctive groups. For this study, data saturation was reached after 14 individuals were interviewed. Another interview was conducted to ensure that new information could be obtained. When no new information was obtained, the interviewing process was terminated; therefore 15 interviews were deemed enough in the current investigation. As noted in Table 9, the sample included 10 females and 5 males ranging from 25 to 52 years. The participants included 2 professors, 2 assistant deans, 3 lecturers, and 8 teaching assistants. The participant's experience ranged from a minimum of 2 to 30 years.

Table 9. *Summary of the Demographic Characteristics for Qualitative Data*

Participant	Age	Gender	Position	Experience/ Year
1	34	Female	Lecturer	12
2	47	Male	Professor/ Department Head	12
3	26	Female	Teaching Assistant	3
4	29	Female	Teaching Assistant	8
5	28	Female	Teaching Assistant	6
6	32	Female	Lecturer	10
7	25	Female	Teaching Assistant	2
8	32	Male	Teaching Assistant	5
9	52	Male	Professor	30
10	26	Female	Teaching Assistant	3
11	34	Female	Teaching Assistant	12
12	33	Female	Teaching Assistant	10
13	35	Male	Lecturer	10
14	42	Female	Assistant Dean	21
15	49	Male	Assistant Dean	27

Source. *Own Elaboration*

Respect to quantitative study, the sample size ultimately determines the accuracy of the sampling; a larger sample size results in fewer errors and a higher overall quality of the questionnaire's findings (Saunders et al., 2012). According to Saunders et al. (2012), the level of inaccuracy decreases proportionately with the sample size. Despite this, the sample size is based not only on the level of confidence in the study's results but also on the type of statistical analysis that will be performed on the data and the total size of the population being studied.

In a substantial number of social sciences studies, researchers are willing to provide estimates with a confidence level of 95% and an error margin ranging from 3-5%. When applied to a finite population (5% sampling error rate, 95% confidence level, N, population size = 12,394, and p = q = 0.5) (Lind et al., 2012), the total number of sampling sizes should be 373 as provided by the table of Krejcie and Morgan (1970). The researcher managed to collect 396 completed questionnaires that were used for further analysis. The reason for increasing the sample size by 23 questionnaires was to identify outliers in the data and provide smaller margins of error to provide more reliable results. Further, when the number of faculty members grows each year, a larger sample will be able to put the findings closer to reality (Table 10 summarizes the characteristics of the quantitative sample).

Table 10. *Characteristics of the Quantitative Sample*

Target population	**Faculty members at private universities**
Geographical area	Egypt
Sampling unit	Faculty members with tenure
Population size	12,394
Sampling size	396
Sampling error/confidence level	5-95%
Field work data	February 2022 until October 2022

Source. *Own Elaboration*

3.10 Data Collection Methods

The initial strategy for data collection was qualitative research, using one-on-one interviews with faculty members from multiple private universities in Egypt. Since the researcher is in the academic field, this has increased their credibility and made it easier to recruit additional academics to participate in the study. Having distinctive perceptions, information, and involvement helps the researcher interpret the acquired data. The researcher must be aware of their previous experiences and viewpoints, be impartial, and have a clear understanding of the phenomenon. Thus, being a current faculty member at a private university helped the researcher conduct more interviews, have better access to participants, create rapport, and ultimately reduce interviewer bias.

Interviews are a personalized method of data collection that is primarily conducted by the interviewer, who is the researcher in the current study. Interviews require the researcher to forge a rapport with the interviewees, ask preset questions, and attentively listen to their responses so that they can be further discovered if necessary (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). Even though only a small number of participants are required to obtain data, interviews typically take a long time to conduct, and the researcher must be careful not to influence the participants' responses (Bhattacherjee, 2012). Semi-structured questions were believed to be the most appropriate type of questioning, in which the researcher had a predetermined set of questions to guide all interviews in a similar manner while allowing the participant to elaborate on certain points and ideas, thereby revealing unexpected information. The interview guide is available in Appendix 1.

For the data collected to be representative of a qualitative study, the participants chosen should have specific expertise or characteristics critical to answer the research question and shed light on the phenomenon (Bode et al., 2015). This is why purposive judgmental sampling was chosen as the sampling strategy, as it is the ideal method when the researcher intends to interview participants who have specific information based on their professional experiences (Etikan et al., 2016; Palinkas et al., 2015).

An interview guide was used to ensure all participants were asked the same questions; otherwise, as Guest et al. (2006) stated, it would be impossible to reach data saturation as it would be a constantly moving target. Before the interview, all participants were asked to sign a letter of cooperation to ensure they understood the purpose of the interview, that the data would be kept confidential, and that they approved the recording of it (see Appendix 2). All interviews were recorded and conducted through a Zoom meeting due to COVID-19 and lasted from 30 to 45 minutes. The interview was conducted in English; but to provide ease for interviewees they were allowed to express themselves in their native language, Arabic, if they were so inclined. The interview guide included 17 questions; however, additional questions were asked based on some of the participants' responses. The questions focused on the proposed conceptual model variables but allowed participants to suggest new factors that influence their decision to leave their job. The data was collected over a period of five months, from September 2020 to February 2021.

The researcher interviewed department heads and assistant deans who assess and evaluate their employees and are accountable for their growth, as well as non-managerial academic staff, to understand what factors about their job would make them leave. Participants were contacted by phone and the appropriate time for the interview via Zoom was determined. The participants chosen were 15 faculty members working at private universities.

The quantitative research technique was utilized in this study too, and the tool used in the quantitative part was questionnaires, which are a preformulated written set of questions to which respondents record their answers within closely defined alternatives (Shao, 1999). The researcher personally administered and collected the questionnaires, along with a cover letter for the questionnaire that briefly stated the purpose of the study. Before respondents decided to participate in this research, they were informed that the survey was voluntary and highly confidential. To reach a wider audience, the researcher distributed the data on private university campuses as well as online via LinkedIn with academics working in private universities. As private universities in Egypt offer part-time jobs for faculty members and pay them per hour, the researcher eliminated them from the sample as they might have different turnover intentions due to different work conditions and payment schemes than those with a permanent contract (tenure). Therefore, only individuals with long-term contracts were interviewed. The data was collected once during a nine-month period, from February 2022 to October 2022, making the research time frame cross-sectional.

3.11 Questionnaire Development

This study relied on structured, closed-ended, and self-administered questionnaires in English, as all academics working in the private sector in Egypt are supposed to have a strong command of the English language. The nominal scale, which allows the researcher to assign people to certain categories or groups, was one of the scales employed (Cooper & Schindler, 2011). The nominal scale was specifically designed for demographic questions including age, gender, and education. While the Likert interval scale was used for the dependent, mediating, and independent variables, it is a 5-point scale designed to examine how strongly respondents agree with a statement (1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= neutral, 4= agree, 5= strongly agree) (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013).

3.12 Measurement of the Data

Existing validated scales were used to measure all research hypotheses to ensure the scales' validity, with the exception of talent management, which was measured by a scale constructed by the researcher as the researcher could not find one that had been used before, especially in the academic sector where talent management is different from any other sector(Bradley,2016). Therefore, a scale was constructed after the qualitative analysis and checked for reliability before proceeding with the quantitative analysis.

3.12.1 Emotional intelligence.

Academic staff EI was measured using the Workgroup Emotional Intelligence Profile - Short Version (WEIP-S) (Jordan & Lawrence, 2009), since shorter questionnaires have the potential to boost the accuracy of self-assessments (Rammstedt & John, 2007). Additionally, the four WEIP-S subscales exhibit strong construct validity and reliability, as revealed by Jordan and Lawrence (2009). There are 16 total items that measure the following four aspects:

1. Own awareness of emotion

2. Management of own emotions management

3. Awareness of other emotions

4. Management of others' emotions

3.12.2 Turnover intention.

Items from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Lawler et al., 1979) were utilized to create a scale to assess turnover intent. Hom and Griffetth (1991) proposed that the MOAQ scale represents the intention to quit, search intention, and thoughts about quitting. This 3-item scale was designed to measure the organizational members' perceptions of their psychological state as it relates to their intent to leave.

3.12.3 Work overload.

The researcher adopted the 4-scale Quantitative Workload assessment created by the Department of Labor as a component of the Quality of Employment Survey (Quinn & Shepard, 1974). Kim et al. (1996) previously utilized the measure to predict career intent among physicians in the United States. Additionally, Price (2001) adopted the scale in his paper that focused on the reflections on the determinants of voluntary turnover.

3.12.4 Leader-member exchange (LMX).

LMX is primarily measured using two scales: the LMX-7 and the LMX-MDM. The LMX-MDM provides greater coverage and more clearly represents the follower's assessment of the relational features and qualities of the dyadic connection (Wang et al., 2005). However, because they are highly correlated, showing that they measure the same construct, either scale may be used to measure LMX (Dulebohn et al., 2017). LMX was evaluated in this study utilizing the LMX-MDM created by Liden and Maslyn (1998). The LMX-MDM is a 12-item measure comprising four subscales of LMX dimensions (three items per subscale).

3.12.5 Reward (extrinsic reward and intrinsic reward).

The researcher adapted the reward measurement to measure both extrinsic reward and intrinsic reward, as used by Pare and Tremblay in 2007. Intrinsic reward (recognition) was measured by a 6-item scale, while extrinsic reward (financial incentive) was measured by a 4-item scale. The scale’s context was used to measure turnover intentions among a sample of highly skilled professionals, which was deemed appropriate to also use for academic staff as they are also considered highly skilled employees.

3.12.6 Organizational commitment.

The researcher adapted the organizational measurement used previously by Daly and Dee in 2006 for the research context, as the original context of the measurement was to predict faculty turnover intent in urban public universities. Therefore, the researcher found the scale to be appropriate for this study.

3.12.7 Work-life balance (WLB).

The scale was a 15-item scale utilized by Hayman (2005), initially created by Fisher, to assess WLB (2001). As family dynamics may not apply to all workers, employers can benefit from taking a deeper look at employees' lives outside the office with this method. The scale included 15 items, designed to assess three dimensions of work-life balance: work interference with personal life (WIPL) was measured by seven things, personal life interference with work (PLIW) was measured by four items, and work and personal life enhancement was measured by four items (WPLE-4 items).

3.12.8 Job satisfaction.

The scale used to assess job satisfaction was developed by the TALIS 2018 team to assess teacher satisfaction, and since faculty members are considered teachers, this scale was chosen and adapted to measure their satisfaction. This will be the first time the scale is used to measure faculty satisfaction in higher education, validity and reliability were checked in the pilot study before the scale was adopted. The scale conceptualized and operationalized two facets of academic teacher job satisfaction. These subscales are “job satisfaction with work environment” and “job satisfaction with profession”, with four items each (OECD 2019).

3.12.9 Talent management.

The talent management scale for this study was developed through the interviews, as the first step in scale development is item generation, where the researcher provides theoretical support for the initial item pool through interviews (Hutz et al., 2015). The new scale’s content validity was then assessed to ensure that the initial item pool reflected the desired construct (Arias et al., 2014). In a systematic review, 105 studies published between 1976 and 2015 were evaluated by Morgado et al. (2017), and it was found that 74% employed expert opinions for content validity, and 64% used only one approach, either expert or population judges. Based on the previous study, the researcher used expert opinions for content validity in this research. Finally, the construct and discriminant validity and reliability of the scale were determined by analyzing the EFA, CFA, and Cronbach’s Alpha. Table 11 summarizes the research variables to be measured as well as the conceptual and operational definitions of each construct.

Table 11. *Conceptual and Operational Definitions of the Research Variables*

Variable	Conceptual Definition	Operational Definition
Talent Management	It is a human resource management approach that seeks to balance the multifaceted influences of the labor force, employee behavior, and economic factors (Mellahi & Collings, 2010).	Scale developed by the researcher and measured using a five-item, 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.
Leader-member Exchange	The quality of the professional relationship between leaders and followers can be described in terms of trust, respect, and mutual obligation (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).	The LMX-MDM scale was used and is measured using a five-item, 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.
Work Overload	The combination of actual work demands and the psychological strain that comes from meeting them (Bliese & Castro, 2000)	A four-scale item work overload assessment is used by the Department of Labor-developed Quantitative Workload and is measured using a five-item, 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.
Intrinsic Reward (recognition)	Acknowledging someone in front of their peers for desired behavior or even for accomplishments, actions, or a favorable attitude (Nigusie & Getachew, 2019).	Intrinsic reward (recognition) was measured by a 6-item scale developed by *Pare* and *Tremblay* in *2007* and is measured using a five-item, 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

Variable	Conceptual Definition	Operational Definition
Extrinsic Reward (financial incentive)	Wage and/ or salary programs and structures such as merit-based programs, bonus-based programs, and commission-based programs (McNamara, 2008).	Extrinsic reward (financial incentive) was measured by a four-scale item developed by *Pare* and *Tremblay* in *2007* and is measured using a five-item, 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.
Emotional Intelligence	The capacity to monitor one's own and other people's emotions, differentiate between them, and use this information to guide one's thoughts and actions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).	The Workgroup Emotional Intelligence Profile – Short Version (WEIP-S) (Jordan & Lawrence, 2009) was used to measure the EI of the academic staff and is measured using a five-item, 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.
Organizational Commitment	Refers to a psychological state that binds the individual to the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990).	Scale adopted by Daly and Dee in 2006 using a five-item scale and measured with a 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.
Work-life Balance	The balance between personal and professional life (Atiq et al., 2017).	The scale was a 15-item scale utilized by Hayman (2005) with a five-item component and measured using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

Variable	Conceptual Definition	Operational Definition
Turnover Intention	An individual's behavioral intention to leave the organization (Mobley, 1979).	Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Lawler et al., 1979) a 3-item scale was used to measure turnover intention using a five-item, 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.
Job Satisfaction	Emotional attitudes and affective feelings attached that result from the judgment that one's job fulfills the value that one expects from the job (Shapira-Lishchinsk, 2012).	TALIS in 2018 was used with an 8-item scale and measured using a five-item, 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

Source. *Own Elaboration*

3.13 Pilot Study

Before proceeding with the developed data-gathering tools for the specified topic, it is recommended that they be piloted (Cooper et al., 2006; Fatima, 2011). The pilot study's purpose is to refine the features and methods. According to Gardner et al. (2003), a pilot study is best understood as a "test run" for larger research or "a shakedown cruise of a new ship". Shakedown cruises involve taking a ship on a short trip to see how well it performs various functions. No sailor would set sail on a brand-new ship without first determining its seaworthiness. Therefore, a pilot study can help determine the "seaworthiness" of many research studies. A pilot study is not undertaken to collect data for a larger study, but rather to review and evaluate research techniques so that any necessary changes, such as evaluating the language and order, can be made before the actual data is acquired. Fifty academics from private institutions were used to pilot test the questionnaire for fluency, coherence, and the absence of misleading or ambiguous questions or answers.

Both paper and online versions of the survey were made available to respondents. Following the pilot study's data collection, the data were tested for reliability. All statements were found to be reliable throughout the reliability testing phase; however, some minor modifications were made to the wording of the questions to make them easier and more comprehendible as they were conducted in English and some of the respondents had some difficulty with the vocabulary.

3.14 Data Analysis Technique

3.14.1 Data analysis technique for qualitative analysis.

All recorded interviews were transcribed to analyze the data, identify themes, and help develop the conceptual model. The interviews were conducted in both English and Arabic to give the respondents the freedom to express themselves in whatever they preferred and to reflect a more flexible atmosphere. After extensive reading of the transcripts, the researcher generated codes from the entire data using words and short phrases to reflect the participants' narratives of their situations and points of view (Sutton & Austin, 2015).

Thematic analysis was chosen to analyze the data since it is less conceptually advanced than discourse analysis, narrative analysis, and conversation analysis requires less technology-related expertise (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Moreover, Braun and Clarke (2006) suggest that thematic analysis should be the first qualitative method that researchers should learn, as it provides core skills that will be useful for conducting many other kinds of analyses. Another advantage of using thematic analysis is that it is a method rather than a methodology (Clarke & Braun, 2013). Simply put, it is not connected to a particular epistemological or theoretical stance, unlike many qualitative methods.

The coding processes were manually performed and sorted into various categories using a thematic analysis approach, as suggested by Creswell (2009). The aim of data coding was to identify the most frequent reasons for turnover by faculty turnover intention to answer the main question of this research, "what are the determinants of turnover intention among faculty members of Egyptian private universities?" Microsoft Excel was used to code and help identify themes, as recommended by Bree and Gallagher (2016).

The coding process led to the formation of patterns and themes that are further discussed in Chapter Four. The data analysis results not only helped develop the conceptual model, but also helped construct the scale items for talent management, as the researcher was unable to find a scale suitable to measure talent management in the academic sector. The whole process of the thematic analysis follows a 6-phase guide devised by Braun and Clarke (2006), as shown in Table 12.

Table 12. *Steps for Thematic Analysis*

Step	Process	Description
Step One	Becoming familiar with the data	Reading and re-reading the transcripts
Step Two	Generate initial codes	Organize data in a meaningful, systematic way and coding relative features
Step Three	Search for themes	Fitting data together into a theme to create a thematic map
Step Four	Review themes	Revise, modify, and develop the preliminary themes
Step Five	Define themes	Establishing precise definitions and labels for each theme.
Step Six	Write-up	Develop the report

Source: *Braun & Clarke's six-phase framework for doing a thematic analysis (2006)*

3.14.2 Data analysis technique for quantitative analysis.

The analysis conducted is applied using SPSS, version 28, and AMOS (Analysis of Moment Structures), version 25. These tools are used to analyze the data collected via the questionnaire designed for the current research. The tests carried out will be as follows:

- Validity and Reliability Analysis
- Confirmatory Factor Analysis
- Descriptive Statistics
- Normality Test
- Multicollinearity Analysis
- Model Fit Analysis
- Hypotheses Testing

First, descriptive statistics were used to provide an overview of the sample and their responses to the variables of interest. This was followed by a factor analysis and Cronbach's Alpha coefficient to test the internal consistency of the measures. Reliability was measured using Cronbach's Alpha since it is considered the measure of the interrelations of the items of one instrument (Kottner & Streiner, 2010), as well as composite reliability, which is suggested by more recent studies (Hair et al., 2011).

Additionally, multicollinearity analysis is conducted to identify collinear relationships among variables. Next, model fit analysis was made to ensure the model's goodness of fit, followed by hypotheses testing, showing the correlation coefficient to measure the strength among the variables of interest in the study (Hair et al., 2003), and Pearson's correlation matrix to answer questions about the overall strength of relationships between study variables.

3.15 Conclusion

This chapter started by introducing the research approach, design, and process. Then, the researcher's selected population, sampling technique, and sample size were represented in this chapter. Next, the development and design of the questionnaire are explained. In addition, the data collection method and data analysis techniques are discussed. The data analysis chapter follows, in which the researcher introduces, presents, and interprets the results obtained from the data analysis for both qualitative and quantitative findings.

CHAPTER FOUR

QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

The preliminary study consisted of fifteen interviews with academic staff members in Egyptian private universities who were chosen to participate because they could provide a sufficiently representative sample to explore the key research question: what are the determinants of turnover intention among faculty members of Egyptian private universities?

This part of the study was done to validate a prior conceptual framework and to identify additional relevant constructs that might not be identified in the conceptual framework. A semi-structured interview with 17 questions was conducted, with the main purpose of identifying and generating discussion around the main sources of turnover intention at private universities. Furthermore, when talent management was established as a factor, interviews were used to develop a scale to quantify it.

The questions were open-ended, allowing respondents to react in whatever way they wanted. This chapter presents the data collection method, sample size, and demographics. Then the subsequent sections present the findings relating to faculty members' turnover intentions, what makes them stay, and lastly the current level of job satisfaction among faculty members. The chapter concludes by examining the contribution of the preliminary study in developing the model that served as the basis for the main study.

4.2 Data Analysis Results

After the process of coding the data through an Excel sheet, the analysis of the transcripts is provided below with the variables that emerged from the interviews:

4.2.1 Theme One: Unearthing common sources of turnover intention.

4.2.1.1 Talent management.

As stated in the literature review, talent management is concerned with several items such as recruitment and selection, performance management, career planning, and development and is based on the HCT. As such, respondents were asked about the managing these items, and their answers were used to develop the scale for talent management used in the questionnaire. When asked if their university efficiently handled their potential and interests, most respondents agreed that the university paid little attention to this matter. This has led many of them to be dissatisfied with their current work status. Respondent 1 stated the following:

“I am not sure I was ever asked what my talents were and maybe that itself is the problem. We were never asked by our department head what skill or talent can we use and invest here. It was never brought up nor were there any attempts to help us develop ourselves”.

This was further supported by respondents 5 and 14 who commented that they feel there is no room for development.

“No, I used to think I have a good talent when it comes to interacting with students and in my courses, but my job has lately mismanaged me to a point where I have lost interest and I feel there is no room to develop. I was also interested to take a course in analysis to help my research skills but was told that due to budget cuts, I would have to wait for a while. I have been waiting three years now”.

“When my university does not want to invest in me it just gives me a bad feeling. In a way, it is like they are telling you are not worth the effort. I am tired of being stuck in the same position with no room to expand. I have really big dreams and goals and if I keep feeling like I cannot achieve them here and stay unhappy then I will be looking for a new job soon”.

Respondent 6, who had finished her Ph.D. two years ago, added that the university's only addition to her talent was encouraging her to finish her Ph.D., but that was it. She was quoted saying the following:

“I am not sure my university has ever invested in me or shown interest to hear out what my skills are. The extent of their investment is to help us receive our Ph.D. and that is it. As soon as we have it, they seem to forget about us. This does not only apply to me but also to my colleagues”.

Respondent 3 focused on an important point, which is the poor recruiting that is done in universities here in Egypt, as most teaching assistants are hired based on their grades and not on interpersonal skills. She was quoted as saying:

“Talent has nothing to do with our sector. It is all about grades. We were all hired because we were at the top of our class but what I wish they would notice that just because someone has a high GPA that does not necessarily mean that they are qualified to teach and to work in the academic sector. Some people do not have the needed skills nor interest to learn them”.

On the other side, Respondent 2 stated that his private university has made good use of his skills and has always focused on developing and maintaining them. He summed up this part by stating:

"There is a development center available on campus for all faculty members and we are required yearly to take two courses of our choice for development. I really enjoy the course and feel like I learn something new and develop all types of skills I never know I had. It is one of the things I enjoy about my university".

Six out of the eight participants who stated that their universities lacked in developing their skills stated that this was one of the reasons they considered leaving their job, supporting H1 that the better the implementation of talent management strategies in an organization, the less the turnover intention in the academic sector, and H9 that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between talent management and turnover intention in the academic sector.

4.2.1.2 Work overload.

When asked to think of the first word that comes to mind when they think of their job, eight of the respondents which accounts for 53%, answered with the word "stressful" or "overworked". Moreover, four of the eight respondents continued to state that if their job didn't become less stressful and demanding, they would soon consider moving to another job. Respondent 2 was quoted as saying:

"You are actually calling me on my way back from the university and I am completely exhausted. We had an audit visit today which my dean called me to be part of last minute. I also have an 8:30 morning class and I am behind on correcting the midterm exams of my students. So now it is 5:30 and I still have to go home and correct 75 individual assignments".

Respondent 4 added to this point by saying:

"I am completely stressed out and it has made me doubt if I had chosen the right career path. I have to teach 18 hours per week along with extra four hours per week for office hours to students who need help. I also need to work on my Ph.D., and I am required by my college to publish two papers per year. Besides my official working hours which are from 8:30 to 4:30, the college requires us to work after working hours if there are any ISO or audit visits as well".

Respondent 7 went on to add that lately she feels like she is not performing well at her job due to the many subjects she teaches.

“When you are overloaded and feel like you are doing a million things at a time you sometimes forget to do important stuff or submit things that are not the best quality to get done with it. For example, you can skip important content of the chapters because you are in a rush to finish the section as you have to submit a task to your dean. Not just the admin task but this term I am teaching nine subjects. I barely have time to prepare them, and I feel like I am not giving my students the education they deserve which makes me extremely stressed out.

Respondent 1 blamed the paperwork for the reason behind her overload.

“Paperwork, paperwork, and paperwork! I cannot stress enough how much I hate this part of the job although I honestly feel it should not be part of my tasks. I studied for my Ph.D. abroad in the UK and I noticed that this was always a concern there. The turnover rate was quite high due to the crazy amount of paperwork that drove people out of the universities as it made their job very demanding and stressful. This job has always been my passion ever since I can remember but if I am ever going to consider leaving it is because of the unnecessary amount of paperwork which lately has become a stressor in my life”.

Some participants explained that the job of a faculty member itself was not the issue, as they enjoyed teaching, but that the extra roles that were given to them by the universities went beyond their expected tasks. The following are responses from three faculty members who have been working at their universities for the last five years:

“We need a clear job description; the problem is we keep doing things at work and we do not if it is even our responsibility or not which makes the whole experience very stressful and time-consuming. What would really help me personally is if I was given more time to work my actual job which I actually enjoy, which is publishing research papers and teaching rather than meaningless admin work”, Respondent 10.

“Working as a teaching assistant is something, I have been doing for ten years now. When I first started if you had asked me, I would have said my satisfaction level is a 9 but now it is a 4. I love teaching but lately what the college is doing is too much”, Respondent 4

“There is no equal distribution of tasks, and we are asked to deliver paperwork and reports with an unreasonable deadline which in my opinion should not be more job. There are not enough hours a day to finish all this work”, Respondent 12.

Finally, Respondent 13 addressed how the current COVID-19 crisis has added to the current problem of work overload:

“As soon as they told us we would be working online I know this was going to be a disaster. Now we work 24/7 with students reaching everyone from our mobile phones to emails to even our personal social media accounts. I feel the need to answer all students all the time and if I do not, I receive a call from my head of the department that the students are complaining I am not answering them fast enough! The situation is already stressful but now we are working double the hours with additional workload such as recording lectures and preparing exams for students online”.

After analyzing the answers, it was found that the qualitative analysis supports the JDR theory along with the proposition of H2: the more work overload, the higher the turnover intention in the academic sector, and H10: job satisfaction mediates the relationship between work overload and turnover intention in the academic sector. Accordingly, work overload was supported as a variable to be analyzed by the quantitative method along with the job satisfaction mediation effect.

4.2.1.3 Relationship with manager.

When the researcher asked the interviewees if they could change anything about their university, what would it be? Ten out of the fifteen respondents replied “management”. This is a major issue that could lead to employee turnover, as Strachota et al. (2003) have found that employees who voluntarily left their jobs stated the reason behind leaving was frustration with management support and fears about this lack of support. Four of the interviewees had the following to say about their management and how it has impacted them:

“The management always makes us feel like we are disposable, and I do not like that at all. I would like to feel more appreciated and have my views heard as some of us of good insight into the process of education due to our years of experience”, Respondent 3.

“Our head of department in my opinion does not understand quite how to handle us. I believe that even paperwork and extra working hours can be bearable with good management. It is not what they ask but more of the way they say things, the way they make you feel like you are obliged to do all those extra things with no appreciation whatsoever. We used to have better management that understood how to tell us stuff and how to handle our issues. Lately, I feel that our head of department and even the dean do not really have leadership skills”, Respondent 1.

While two interviewees stated that if the management did not change soon, they would consider moving on to another job.

“I believe that working in higher education is not like working in an international company. Our heads of departments should not treat us that are above us. We are all academics, and we all have certain areas of expertise that should be respected. There should be weekly meetings where we are heard, and our ideas are valued and listened to it. If they keep ignoring us as they have been for the past few years I might consider moving on to a different university”, Respondent 11.

“I would love to change the whole management!! My problem is that they treat the university like it’s a business, not an education provider. You know how they say the “customer is always right” here it is the “student is always right”. Just because we are a private university the management expects me to make sure students are happy as they are our source of income. The dean once called me into his office because the students were complaining that my exam was too hard. I was offered zero support and we were asked to repeat the exam to the students. In my opinion, that was disrespectful, and I am actually applying to other universities next spring”, Respondent 6.

It was clear from the interviews that the loss of the psychological contract between employees and their employers, as theorized by the SET, is a critical factor in turnover intention. The consequence of losing employees’ psychological contract perceptions are not limited to influencing their desire to leave the organization, but also results in the loss of the organization's expertise and job satisfaction, which are essential in higher education (Cullinane et al., 2006). Therefore, H3 and H11 are supported in the proposed conceptual model. However, it is important to note that there are opposing opinions on whether this is a clear reason why a faculty member would consider leaving, as only two out of the fifteen faculty members stated that this would be a reason why they would leave.

4.2.1.4 Recognition and appreciation.

Any employee wants to be appreciated and recognized for their work, and faculty members have no expectation. When asked what makes them consider leaving their university, six of the interviewees said if they keep feeling unappreciated at their university.

"One of my major issues is the lack of appreciation. There is never any meeting to thank certain members, never an email to congratulate you on publishing a paper or anything. However, if you make the slightest make there will definitely be a meeting to remind you of your mistake. It is a little frustrating, to be honest", Respondent 8.

"I am a workaholic, and I will admit it. I enjoy working and will do any task you give me but there is a limit to how much I am willing to give. When I receive almost nothing in return, I am not talking money because honestly, we are paid well but there is never a thank you for getting something done on time or even a simple good job", Respondent 5.

One of the interviewees recalled an incident that happened nine years ago which was the case of him quitting his job and moving to his current university.

"I remember during the 2011 Egyptian revolution we were in January and about finishing up the term and the revolution happened. It lasted almost three weeks and after it was over, we were required to return straight to work even though the streets were not safe and the whole country was in a panic state. We worked to finish our remaining courses and worked overtime to make sure all the content was delivered. After the term was over the least, they could have done was sent out an email thanking us for our efforts but that never happened. I quit the next term and moved to another university", Respondent 15.

After reviewing the statements, it appears that they are consistent with Herzberg's Two-Factor Motivation-Hygiene Theory, which states that when employees perceive that their efforts are sufficiently appreciated and recognized, they are more likely to remain with the organization and have high job satisfaction, particularly if they would be moving to another organization with the identical job and similar task responsibilities (Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014). Thus, H4 and H12 are supported in the proposed conceptual model to be analyzed quantitatively.

4.2.1.5 Balancing work with family.

Participants were asked if they found any difficulty balancing their academic careers with their personal lives. Out of the 15 participants, 10 agreed that this was definitely challenging at times. Respondent 12, who is currently working as a teaching assistant, was quoted as saying:

"Between all the paperwork, research hours, and classes I sometimes go home emotionally and physically drained. It is extra hard when you are a woman with two kids as they need constant attention and by the time, I am home, I do not feel like I have the energy to give them what is needed. I am hoping this will be better once I have earned my Ph.D."

Respondent 1, who is currently working as a lecturer, elaborated more on this issue saying:

"Now I could balance a little between work and my personal life after finishing my Ph.D., but then again as an academic you always take work home whether it is research, preparing for a course, correcting exams, or supervising a Ph.D. Student, so it is a tricky balance. I am sometimes able to work things out but most of the time it is definitely a challenge".

The struggle to balance between work and family was further explained by Respondents 14 and 15.

"Maybe if I just wanted to work as a lecturer then I could balance my work but as I am currently working as an assistant dean so there is always a problem not bringing my work home with me. Whenever I am home, I keep thinking of all the uncompleted tasks that are still pending and when I am at work, I keep thinking of the stuff I have to do when I am home. I do not know if this is the same for men in my position but for me as a woman and a mother of three kids the balance is truly difficult", Respondent 14.

"I never had a problem with balancing my work and family except maybe the last two years. The education field in Egypt is becoming very competitive and my university is always trying to stay on top. This requires me to work extra hard to make sure we preserve our ranking and keep up with all the new accreditations. For example, currently, we are working on receiving the AACSB, which has been a nightmare with all the demand. My wife and kids never complained before, but I find myself missing out on events at my kids' school because I am stuck in meetings all day”, Respondent 15.

After analyzing the statements, it was found to be in line with the role theory and work-family border theory concepts as many respondents found it challenging to maintain the right balance between their family and work duties as this could lead to lower job satisfaction and higher turnover intention. Thus, H8 is supported in the proposed conceptual model to be analyzed by the quantitative method as well as H16.

4.2.2 Theme 2: What makes them stay at their current job?

4.2.2.1 Extrinsic rewards.

When asked what makes them stay at their current university, most of the interviewees agreed that the reason they continued to work at their university was that the university offered an attractive financial package deal. Respondent 2 two said the following:

“My university pays me handsomely well especially after being a professor and that is defiantly one of the main reasons I have stayed so long. Also, I was able to have both of my children study here and received a 30% discount on their tuition fees. So overall it is a good deal”.

Moreover, Respondent 4, who seemed to be unhappy with her current situation at the university, said the only reason she has not left was the university benefit program.

“We have great health insurance not to mention we get paid half our salary in dollars which is very uncommon here in Egypt. In spite of all the things, I dislike about work the whole compensation package is too tempting to leave. I doubt I will find the same offer elsewhere”.

Respondent 9 added to the following points by relating the financial reward and its importance to the Egyptian society by saying the following:

“Here in Egypt, it is very important to keep up with social appearances. In my university when you reach the level of professor you receive a car with a driver. They also provide us with numerous discounts offered to faculty members for the purchase of summer homes which is something that is essential for the elite society. Also, our retirement plan is really good that I'm considering retiring early!”

After conducting the analysis, it was shown that extrinsic rewards (financial payments) were a critical factor in faculty members continuing with their universities as this seemed to be a key element to help keep them working in the university and help raise their job satisfaction. This assumption supports the equity theory in regard to the input-output of the job with respect to the proposition of hypothesis H5 and H13, to be analyzed further quantitatively.

4.2.2.2 Organizational commitment.

Some respondents have stated that the reason they have stayed at their university and would not consider leaving is that they feel that they are committed to the university, and they are proud to work there. This could be related to the fact that universities in Egypt usually hire from their graduate students, thus creating a sense of loyalty and also adding rigor to the "job embeddedness theory". Respondent 11 said the following about her university:

"I have been in this university since I was 17 as I started my undergraduate studies here as well as my master's and I am currently 34 so I have been here for over 15 years. this place feels like home to me and I cannot imagine working anywhere else".

Respondent 1 went on to say that when comparing her university to other universities, she was proud to work there and was quoted as saying:

"Although sometimes I have a love-hate relationship with my job. I am very proud to work here. It is an institution that has a long history for several generations".

Responding 12 also went on to state that she felt a sense of obligation to stay with her university as it gave her so much over the years, she was quoted as saying:

"Although there are some downsides to this job over the years this job has given me a lot to be grateful for. They have paid for my master's degree and are currently funding my Ph.D. abroad. I owe my knowledge to them, and I feel it would be unethical to leave them even if it is for a better opportunity. They have become my family".

After an examination of the transcripts and an analysis of them, it was found that the analysis supports the "job embeddedness theory" in the sense that if workers continue to feel linked to their work and social contexts, they will remain in their current jobs. Based on the previous, H7 and H15 were supported for further analysis.

4.2.3 Theme 3: How satisfied are the faculty members at private universities? The problem of job satisfaction has affected higher education; therefore, educational leaders have been working on increasing research to try to identify the variables that influence job satisfaction (Davis, 2001; Grace & Khalsa, 2003). The interviewees were asked if they were satisfied at their current job and, if yes, to what extent they felt satisfied (10 being the maximum and 1 being the minimum). Table 13 shows their response.

Table 13. *Level of Satisfaction of Faculty Members*

Participants	Level of Satisfaction
1	6
2	8
3	7
4	4
5	7
6	3
7	6
8	5
9	5
10	6
11	6
12	7
13	6
14	5
15	6

Source. *Own Elaboration*

The majority of respondents revealed that they were not as satisfied with their jobs as they used to be. This is an alarming issue, as stated by Mobley's model of turnover: when an employee is dissatisfied with their current job, they will quit if the new job is expected to be more satisfying. This could be a warning sign that if universities do not improve employee satisfaction, they might lose their staff sooner than expected. Furthermore, since the 1950s until now, various studies have shown that faculty satisfaction is an important predictor of faculty turnover intention (Caplow & McGee, 1958; Kim et al., 2013; Rosser, 2004).

The EI framework was not developed for qualitative research (Collins & Cooper, 2014); therefore, it could not be measured through interview questions. However, one of these factors linked to job satisfaction and turnover intention, is an individual's perception of themselves and how they manage their emotions and impulses (Jeswani & Dave, 2012), as this assertion is backed by the SIT.

Therefore, examining an employee's EI is imperative as it is directly linked to how one views their own personality and personality of others(Dong et al., 2014), and Noe et al. (2006) found that employees tend to leave organization when they are dissatisfied with the nature of the job or the employee's personality. Therefore, H6 is supported in the proposed conceptual model along with H14 for further analysis by the quantitative method.

4.3 Conclusion

This chapter presents the results from the 15 male and female faculty members at private universities who participated in qualitative semi-structured interviews. The chapter began with an introduction before delving into a deep thematic analysis of the qualitative interview questions. The analysis results help us ensure that the variables chosen will be able to assist in answering the research, developing a scale for talent management, and further helping achieve the objectives. The variables examined from the themes are also supported by evidence from the literature and theories discussed that have clarified the link between the variables and the main dependent variable, turnover intention, thus finalizing the proposed model. The next chapter will discuss the quantitative analysis to support or reject our hypotheses through structural equational modeling (SEM).

CHAPTER FIVE

Empirical Study and Findings

5.1 Introduction

After analyzing the qualitative data, this chapter introduces the empirical study by discussing its key findings and outcomes. The first phase was to conduct the descriptive analysis, and as indicated in Chapter Three, the total sample that participated in this study was N=396 from private Egyptian universities, with a 95% confidence level and a 5% error margin. The second phase involves data validation and verification. Convergent and discriminant validity were used to assess validity, while Cronbach's Alpha was utilized to assess reliability. Thirdly, research hypotheses are tested using inferential analysis, which employs correlation and structural equation modeling. In addition, the normality tests for the study variables are provided to validate the model's assumptions. The analysis is performed with SPSS (version 28) and AMOS (version 25). These tools are used to analyze the data collected via the current study's questionnaire.

5.2 Descriptive Analysis

Descriptive statistics provide brief summaries of samples and data measurement methods to explain and clarify data set characteristics. In the following section, means, standard deviations, and frequency statistics will be computed on both demographic data and the research variables. The respondent profile is shown in Table 14. Moreover, the age group 20 - 35 has a higher percentage than other age groups (57.1%); the total number is 226, and the age group 50 - 65 has the lowest percentage (5%); the total number is 20. Furthermore, the master's degree got 39.6% of the sample, with a total number of 157 respondents, while the bachelor's degree got 25% of the sample, with a total number of 99 respondents. Further, the number of female respondents is higher than the number of male respondents, with 65.6%, with a total of 261 respondents, while male respondents got 34.0%, with a total of 135.

Moreover, when asking about marital status, “married” has the highest number of respondents of 43.7% of the sample, with 173 respondents, while “divorced” has the lowest number of respondents of 3.5% of the sample, with 14 respondents. Furthermore, when asking about the number of children, “none” got the highest response with 61.6%, with 244 respondents.

Further, the current job status “teaching assistant” has the highest number of respondents of 39.9%, with a total number of respondents of 158, while the current occupation “associate professor” has the lowest number of respondents of 4.3%, with a total of 17 respondents. Furthermore, the average monthly income “10,000 – 20,000” has the highest number of respondents as it got 34.6%, with 137 of respondents, while the average monthly household income “5,000 – 10,000” has the lowest respondents of 31.8%, with 126 respondents. Finally, “Alexandria” responses are the highest when asking about residential city with 55.3%, and a total of 219 respondents. While “Cairo” responses ranked second with 43.2%, and a total of 171 respondents.

Table 14. *Respondent Profile*

	Frequency	Percent	Total
Age			
20 – less than 35	226	57.1	396
35 – less than 50	150	37.8	
50 – less than 65	20	5.05	
Highest Completed Level of Education			
Bachelor degree	99	25	396
Master degree	157	39.6	
Ph.D.	140	35.4	
Gender			
Female	261	65.6	396
Male	135	34.0	
Marital Status			
Single	157	39.6	396
Engaged	52	13.1	
Married	173	43.7	
Divorced	14	3.5	
Number of children			
None	244	61.6	396

	Frequency	Percent	Total
One	58	14.6	
Two	94	23.7	
Current job status			
Graduate teaching assistant	97	24.5	396
Teaching assistant	158	39.9	
Assistant professor	54	13.6	
Associate professor	17	4.3	
Professor	23	5.8	
Lecturer	47	11.9	
Average monthly income in Egyptian Pounds			
5,000 – less than 10,000	126	31.8	396
10,000 – less than 20,000	137	34.6	
Over 20,000	133	33.6	
City of residence			
Cairo	171	43.2	396
Alexandria	219	55.3	
Other	6	1.5	

Source. *Own Elaboration from SPSS data*

Table 15 displays the mean and standard deviation for the variables in the research data. All the mean values are relatively close, signifying that the data has a central tendency. Since standard deviation values lie between +2 and -2, measurements indicate they are close to the actual value, the numbers in this study show that the data is close to the variable means, as they all fall within the permitted parameter range. The mean and standard deviation for the research variables were observed to be as follows:

It could be claimed that the average responses to “talent management” are above average (mean = 3.4823) with a standard deviation of 1.01242. In addition, the average responses to “work overload” are below average (mean = 2.4470) with a standard deviation of 1.04565. Moreover, the average responses to “leader-member exchange” are above average (mean = 3.4848) with a standard deviation of 0.99481. Furthermore, the average responses to intrinsic rewards are above average (mean = 3.3434) with a standard deviation of 0.91305. It could also be claimed that the average responses to extrinsic reward are above average (mean = 3.5884) with a standard deviation of 0.98589. Besides, the average responses to “work-life balance” are above average (mean = 3.5076) with a standard deviation of 0.91261. The average responses to “emotional intelligence” are above average (mean = 3.4975) with a standard deviation of 1.00756. The average responses to “organizational commitment” are above average (mean = 3.2045) with a standard deviation of 0.87212. Moreover, the average responses to “job satisfaction” are above average (mean = 3.5960) with a standard deviation of 1.00297.

Finally, the average responses to “turnover intention” are within average (mean = 2.5081) with a standard deviation of 0.8515, indicating moderate levels of turnover intentions. As a result, the sample has a moderate but evident intention to leave their jobs at Egyptian private colleges, and since the majority of responses were above-average, this could indicate a positive attitude towards the questions.

Table 15. *Descriptive Analysis for the Research Variables*

Research Variable	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Talent Management	396	3.4823	1.01242
Work Overload	396	2.4470	1.04565
Leader-Member Exchange	396	3.4848	.99481
Intrinsic Reward	396	3.3434	.91305
Extrinsic Reward	396	3.5884	.98586
Work-life balance	396	3.5076	.91261
Emotional Intelligence	396	3.4975	1.00756
Organizational Commitment	396	3.2045	.87212
Job Satisfaction	396	3.5960	1.00297
Turnover Intention	396	2.5081	.8515

Source. *Own Elaboration from SPSS data*

5.3 Data Testing for the whole sample: Validity and Reliability Analysis through Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

The researcher distributed 416 questionnaires, but only 396 were used for analysis, and then the validity and reliability were checked as shown in Table 16, which shows the results of validity and reliability test of the entire research data. The KMO value for all variables was above 0.5, implying that the sample size was adequate to conduct the factor analysis technique for measuring constructs. Applying the factor analysis technique, the AVE for all variables was above 50%, indicating that the constructs have adequate validity. In addition, Cronbach's Alpha was all above 0.6, meaning they were reliable (Hulin et al., 2001; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Sekaran & Bougie, 2013).

Table 16. *Validity and Reliability*

Variables	KMO	AVE	Cronbach's Alpha	Items	Factor Loading
Talent Management	.965	0.85910	.985	TM1	.841
				TM2	.838
				TM3	.831
				TM4	.875
				TM5	.847
				TM6	.847
				TM7	.857
				TM8	.910
				TM9	.915
				TM10	.832
				TM11	.863
				TM12	.853
Work Overload	.887	0.93928	.978	WO1	.945
				WO2	.936
				WO3	.952
				WO4	.924
Leader-Member Exchange	.951	0.85532	.983	LMX1	.814
				LMX2	.922
				LMX3	.882

Variables	KMO	AVE	Cronbach's Alpha	Items	Factor Loading
				LMX4	.838
				LMX5	.915
				LMX6	.918
				LMX7	.828
				LMX8	.833
				LMX9	.814
				LMX10	.812
				LMX11	.833
Intrinsic Reward	.897	0.83003	.959	IR1	.873
				IR2	.718
				IR3	.756
				IR4	.859
				IR5	.837
				IR6	.938
Extrinsic Reward	.875	0.92642	.974	ER1	.915
				ER2	.914
				ER3	.958
				ER4	.918
Work-life balance	.972	0.87616	.991	WLB1	.927
				WLB2	.903
				WLB3	.878
				WLB4	.916
				WLB5	.919
				WLB6	.916
				WLB7	.892
				WLB8	.827
				WLB9	.812
				WLB10	.853
				WLB11	.840

Variables	KMO	AVE	Cronbach's Alpha	Items	Factor Loading
				WLB12	.877
				WLB13	.855
				WLB14	.853
				WLB15	.900
				WLB16	.865
				WLB17	.864
Emotional Intelligence	.967	0.90134	.993	EI1	.929
				EI2	.907
				EI3	.915
				EI4	.929
				EI5	.930
				EI6	.933
				EI7	.921
				EI8	.863
				EI9	.902
				EI10	.898
				EI11	.907
				EI12	.900
				EI13	.915
				EI14	.873
				EI15	.816
				EI16	.883
Organizational Commitment	.956	0.90700	.983	OC1	.868
				OC2	.921
				OC3	.937
				OC4	.930
				OC5	.926
				OC6	.933
				OC7	.832

Variables	KMO	AVE	Cronbach's Alpha	Items	Factor Loading
Job Satisfaction	.946	0.90863	.986	JS1	.879
				JS2	.863
				JS3	.840
				JS4	.882
				JS5	.948
				JS6	.947
				JS7	.958
				JS8	.952
Turnover Intention	.768	0.94654	.972	TI1	.930
				TI2	.948
				TI3	.962

Source. *Own Elaboration from SPSS data*

5.3.1 Discriminant validity.

It is described as "the amount to which measures of various constructs diverge or minimally correlate with one another" (Engellant et al., 2016). It aims to prove the absence of a relationship between constructs that should not be correlated (Taherdoost, 2016). According to Fornell and Larcker's (1981) technique, the square root of the AVE in each variable can be used to determine discriminant validity. Acceptable discriminant validity is attained when the square root of the concept's AVE values is greater than the construct's correlations with other constructs. Table 17 displays the discriminant validity of the research variables, revealing that all square roots of AVE values are bigger than the correlations between the respective construct and other constructs.

Table 17. *Discriminant Validity of the Research Variables*

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.
1. Talent Management	**(0.927)**									
2. Work Overload	-.608**	**(0.969)**								
3. Leader-member Exchange	.710**	-.623**	**(0.925)**							
4. Intrinsic Reward	.628**	-.548**	.700**	**(0.911)**						
5. Extrinsic Reward	.717**	-.654**	.756**	.695**	**(0.963)**					
6. Work-life Balance	.745**	-.615**	.732**	.696**	.762**	**(0.936)**				
7. Emotional Intelligence	.680**	-.570**	.686**	.642**	.699**	.754**	**(0.949)**			
8. Organizational Commitment	.533**	-.459**	.510**	.484**	.510**	.515**	.498**	**(0.952)**		
9. Job Satisfaction	.761**	-.687**	.753**	.708**	.779**	.772**	.736**	.601**	**(0.953)**	
10. Turnover Intention	-.766**	.758**	-.745**	-.716**	-.780**	-.785**	-.737**	-.596**	-.826**	**(0.973)**
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).										

Source. *Own Elaboration from SPSS data*

5.4 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Before starting SEM, the researcher must establish the factor structure as a measuring scale for each dimension using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (Hair et al., 1998). AMOS 24 was used to show variable factor loading and model fit using the maximum likelihood technique. Figure 14 shows the covariance CFA and its results.

Multiple measures of approximation were included because there is no single statistical test that best represents the accuracy of a model's predictions (Hair et al., 1992). The model fit of the confirmatory factor analysis was computed, and it was found that the minimum discrepancy, or chi-square divided by the degrees of freedom (Chi square/DF) was 2.240; the present sample (p-value) was 0.000; the goodness of fit (GFI) was 0.730; the adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) was 0.705; the Bentler-Bonett normed fit index (NFI) was 0.907; and the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) (a.k.a. Bentler-Bonett non-normed fit index) was 0.943, which assessed the incremental fit of the model compared to a null model; the comparative fit index (CFI) was 0.946.

The root mean square residual (RMR) was 0.022, which shows how much the sample variances and covariances differ from their estimates under the assumption that the model is correct; the root mean square of approximation (RMSEA) was 0.056, which is an informative criterion in covariance structure modeling and measures the error in population estimates. Overall, the model fits well. Table 18 displays CFA values and recommended values for them.

Table 18. *Fit Indices and Thresholds for Measurement Model*

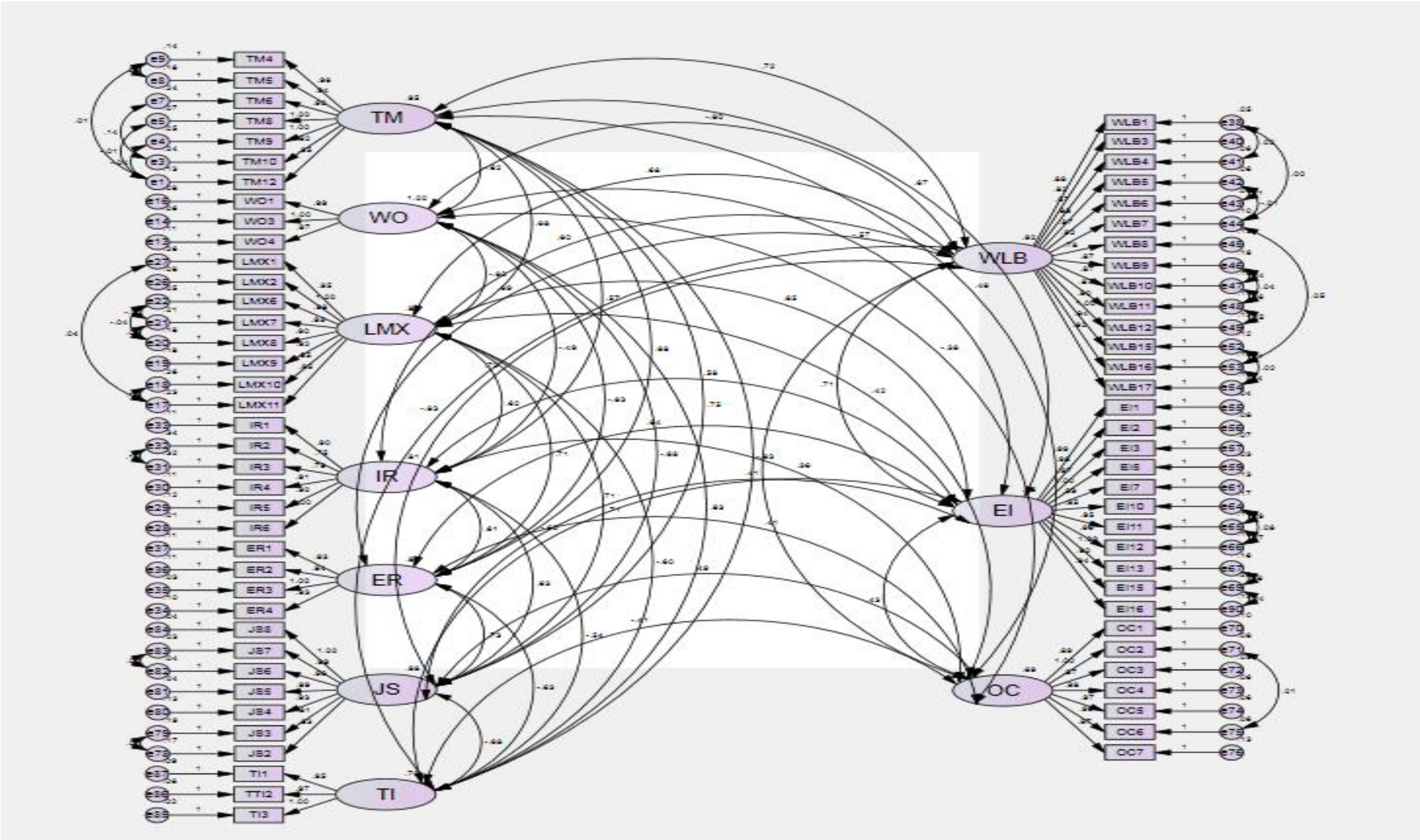
Measure	Results	Threshold
Chi-square/DF	2.240	< 2 excellent; <3 good; <5 sometimes permissible
P-value	0.000	> 0.005
GFI	0.730	Goodness of fit index Value ranges from 0 (poor fit) to 1 (perfect fit). Higher values indicate better fit, but no absolute threshold. Recommended level is between 0.75 and 0.99.
AGFI	0.705	Adjusted goodness of fit index It indicates the DF for testing the model. A value of 1 indicates a perfect fit. Recommended level is between 0.63 and 0.97.
NFI	0.907	Normed fit index It consists of values scaling between (terribly fitting) independence model and (perfectly fitting) saturated model. A value of 1 shows a perfect fit. Higher values show better fit.
TLI	0.943	Tucker-Lewis's coefficient also known as Bentler-Bonett non-normed fit index (NNFI). Values range from (but not limited to) 0 to 1 where a value closer to 1 represents a very good fit while 1 represents a perfect fit. Higher values show better fit.
CFI	0.946	Comparative fit index It has values between 0 and 1 where values closed to 1 show a very good fit while 1 represents the perfect fit (Bentler, 1990). Recommended level is >0.90.

Measure	Results	Threshold
RMR	0.022	Root mean square residual. The smaller the RMR value the better. Zero indicates a perfect fit, and less than 0.09 can be considered a good fit recommended level is <0.09.
RMSEA	0.056	It is the discrepancy per degree of freedom. The value of a suitable fit should be lower than 1 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1989).

Source. *Own Elaboration from AMOS*

Figure 14 shows the confirmatory factor analysis that has been applied, where the factor loadings are shown on arrows, implying good factor loadings (factor loadings > 0.4) for the confirmatory factor analysis. These factor loadings are shown in numbers in Table 20.

Figure 14. *CFA for the Measurement Model*



Source: *AMOS*

Table 19 demonstrates that all factor loadings are larger than or equal to 0.40, as recommended by Hair et al. (1998) and Sekaran and Bougie (2016), indicating that the constructs under investigation have sufficient validity. In addition, all P-values are less than 0.05, confirming the relevance of the respective statements' constructions. Additionally, the CR value for all structures was discovered to be greater than 0.60. Therefore, the necessary level of composite reliability was reached (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

- Talent Management: After eliminating statements with estimates less than 0.40 (TM1, TM2, TM3, TM7, TM11), the loadings of items on talent management variables are greater than or equal to 0.40, indicating that the construct under discussion possesses sufficient validity. In addition, all P-values are less than 0.05, demonstrating that the relevant concept assertions are meaningful.

- Work Overload: After removing the statement with an estimate of less than 0.40 (WO2), the remaining loadings on work overload associated variables are greater than or equal to 0.40, suggesting that the construct under research has appropriate validity. Correspondingly, all the P-values are less than 0.05, showing the significance of the corresponding statements to the construct.

- Leader-member Exchange: After removing statements with estimates less than 0.40 (LMX3, LMX4, LMX5), the construct under research has appropriate validity. All P-values are below 0.05, indicating the statements' significance are relevant to their construct.

- Intrinsic Reward: The size of the loadings of items on the relevant intrinsic reward variables is greater than or equal to 0.40, implying that the construct under study has adequate validity. Additionally, all the P-values are less than 0.05, indicating that the relevant assertions are significant to the construct.

- Extrinsic Reward: The loadings of items on extrinsic reward associated variables are greater than or equal to 0.40, implying that the construct under study has adequate validity. Similarly, all the P-values are less than 0.05, showing the significance of the corresponding statements to the construct.

- Work-life Balance: After deleting the statements with estimates below 0.40 (WLB2, WLB13, WLB14), the remaining loadings of items on work-life balance relevant variables are larger than or equal to 0.40, suggesting that the construct under investigation is legitimate. Moreover, all the P-values are less than 0.05, showing the significance of the corresponding statements to the construct.

- Emotional Intelligence: After omitting statements with estimations less than 0.40 (EI4, EI6, EI8, EI9, EI14), the loadings of items on EI associated variables are larger than or equal to 0.40, showing that the investigated construct has appropriate validity. Furthermore, all the P-values are less than 0.05, showing the significance of the statements.

- Organizational Commitment: The item loadings on the Organizational Commitment variables are greater than or equal to 0.40, which means that the construct being studied is valid. Furthermore, all of the P-values are less than 0.05, which shows that the corresponding statements are significant.

- Job Satisfaction: After discarding statements with estimates less than 0.40 (JS12), the item loadings on job satisfaction variables are more than or equal to 0.40, indicating that the construct discussed has appropriate validity. In addition, all P-values are less than 0.05, demonstrating the significance of the corresponding statements.

- Turnover Intention: The item loadings on the turnover intention variables are more than or equal to 0.40, indicating that the investigated construct has appropriate validity. Also, all the P-values are less than 0.05, showing the significance of the corresponding statements to the construct.

Table 19. *Item Loading after Confirmatory Factor Analysis*

			Estimate	**S.E.**	**C.R.**	**P**	**Composite Reliability**
TM12	<---	TM	.952	.028	34.485	***	.976
TM10	<---	TM	.924	.028	32.864	***	
TM9	<---	TM	1.000				
TM8	<---	TM	1.000	.019	52.966	***	
TM6	<---	TM	.898	.028	32.372	***	

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Composite Reliability
TM5	<---	TM	.940	.024	39.186	***	
TM4	<---	TM	.957	.023	42.024	***	
WO4	<---	WO	.975	.021	45.884	***	
WO3	<---	WO	1.000				.972
WO1	<---	WO	.992	.020	50.427	***	
LMX11	<---	LMX	.951	.029	32.736	***	
LMX10	<---	LMX	.946	.031	30.975	***	
LMX9	<---	LMX	.917	.026	34.944	***	
LMX8	<---	LMX	.902	.027	33.881	***	.974
LMX7	<---	LMX	.946	.028	33.403	***	
LMX6	<---	LMX	.982	.020	49.822	***	
LMX2	<---	LMX	1.000				
LMX1	<---	LMX	.950	.030	31.200	***	
IR6	<---	IR	1.000				
IR5	<---	IR	.898	.021	43.199	***	
IR4	<---	IR	.914	.020	46.589	***	.957
IR3	<---	IR	.795	.032	24.625	***	
IR2	<---	IR	.748	.033	22.483	***	
IR1	<---	IR	.896	.020	44.504	***	
ER4	<---	ER	.930	.019	47.810	***	
ER3	<---	ER	1.000				.974
ER2	<---	ER	.944	.020	46.263	***	

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Composite Reliability
ER1	<---	ER	.930	.020	46.802	***	
WLB1	<---	WLB	.882	.020	43.311	***	.989
WLB3	<---	WLB	.824	.022	38.137	***	
WLB4	<---	WLB	.870	.021	41.575	***	
WLB5	<---	WLB	.876	.021	42.618	***	
WLB6	<---	WLB	.870	.021	41.943	***	
WLB7	<---	WLB	.924	.024	38.486	***	
WLB8	<---	WLB	.779	.024	32.860	***	
WLB9	<---	WLB	.874	.028	31.003	***	
WLB10	<---	WLB	.869	.026	33.256	***	
WLB11	<---	WLB	.872	.027	32.018	***	
WLB12	<---	WLB	.902	.025	36.536	***	
WLB15	<---	WLB	1.000				
WLB16	<---	WLB	.941	.026	36.660	***	
WLB17	<---	WLB	.921	.024	38.388	***	
EI1	<---	EI	.993	.023	43.182	***	.988
EI2	<---	EI	.975	.025	39.128	***	
EI3	<---	EI	.973	.024	40.003	***	
EI5	<---	EI	.996	.023	43.761	***	
EI7	<---	EI	.989	.028	35.427	***	
EI10	<---	EI	.954	.029	32.615	***	
EI11	<---	EI	.953	.028	34.168	***	
EI12	<---	EI	.959	.029	33.180	***	
EI13	<---	EI	1.000				

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Composite Reliability
EI15	<---	EI	.898	.026	34.042	***	
EI16	<---	EI	.940	.025	37.179	***	
OC1	<---	OC	.885	.024	36.588	***	
OC2	<---	OC	1.000				
OC3	<---	OC	.968	.021	46.034	***	
OC4	<---	OC	.975	.022	44.563	***	.983
OC5	<---	OC	.972	.022	44.219	***	
OC6	<---	OC	.985	.020	48.285	***	
OC7	<---	OC	.865	.027	32.441	***	
JS2	<---	JS	.829	.023	36.388	***	
JS3	<---	JS	.815	.024	34.245	***	
JS4	<---	JS	.926	.020	45.217	***	
JS5	<---	JS	.992	.015	68.355	***	.984
JS6	<---	JS	.979	.014	67.817	***	
JS7	<---	JS	.990	.013	74.321	***	
JS8	<---	JS	1.000				
TI3	<---	TI	1.000				
TI2	<---	TI	.975	.018	55.284	***	.972
TI1	<---	TI	.946	.021	45.602	***	

Source: *Own elaboration from AMOS*

5.5 Normality Testing for the Research Variables

It is one of the assumptions used to verify the normality of a data set. Parametric analysis, like Spearman correlation, can be used on normally distributed data. Thus, prior to inferential analysis, data normality should be checked to decide if parametric or non-parametric tests can be employed to test hypotheses. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality is a popular way to assess data set normality for samples above 50 observations. If the P-value exceeds 0.05, it assumes normal a distribution. Table 20 presents the formal Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality for research variables.

Table 20. *Formal Testing of Normality*

Research Variables	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]		
	Statistic	**DF**	**Sig.**
Talent Management	.198	396	.000
Work Overload	.219	396	.000
Leader-member Exchange	.195	396	.000
Intrinsic Reward	.219	396	.000
Extrinsic Reward	.220	396	.000
Work-life Balance	.246	396	.000
Emotional Intelligence	.194	396	.000
Organizational Commitment	.231	396	.000
Job Satisfaction	.196	396	.000
Turnover Intention	.278	396	.000

Source: *Own elaboration from SPSS*

As the formal test shows that the values are not normally distributed, an informal test is used to detect the approximate normality. Table 21 depicts the informal test of normality, which demonstrates that some of the skewness and kurtosis values are at the acceptance level of ±1, indicating that the data under consideration are approximately normal. As per Curran et al. (1996), data is deemed normally distributed when the absolute value of skewness ranges between -2 and 2, and the absolute value of Kurtosis is within -7 to 7. Subsequently, parametric tests are used to describe the relationships between the research variables.

Table 21. *Informal Testing of Normality*

	N	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Talent Management	396	-.474	.123	.107	.245
Work Overload	396	.442	.123	-.325	.245
Leader-member Exchange	396	-.346	.123	-.120	.245
Intrinsic Reward	396	-.332	.123	-.057	.245
Extrinsic Reward	396	-.248	.123	-.237	.245
Work-life balance	396	-.454	.123	.104	.245
Emotional Intelligence	396	-.389	.123	-.065	.245
Organizational Commitment	396	-.479	.123	.154	.245
Job Satisfaction	396	-.439	.123	-.014	.245
Turnover Intention	396	.526	.123	.321	.245

Source: *Own elaboration from SPSS*

5.6 Testing Multicollinearity Assumption

This section explores and verifies the model's assumption of multicollinearity among the independent variables. It is one of the essential assumptions necessary to avoid duplication of information in the model under consideration. It arises when at least two variables in a model are inextricably linked to one another. Therefore, to minimize technical challenges when constructing the multiple regression model, multicollinearity analysis is used to detect collinear correlations among variables (Shrestha, 2019). Testing VIFs for the independent variables in the research model, as shown in Table 22, revealed that the VIFs of the research variables are all less than 5, implying that there is no problem of multicollinearity between the independent variables.

Table 22. *VIF Values for Research Variables*

Independent Variables	VIF
Talent Management	2.895
Work Overload	1.986
Leader-member Exchange	3.190
Intrinsic Reward	2.454
Extrinsic Reward	3.477
Work-life Balance	3.711
Emotional Intelligence	2.751
Organizational Commitment	1.542

Source: *Own elaboration from SPSS*

5.7 Testing Research Hypotheses

In this part of the investigation, the hypotheses being investigated are put to the test by utilizing the correlation and path analysis of structural equation modeling. Because the data under consideration has proven to have a normal distribution, the Pearson correlation will be applied. The correlation matrix that describes the link between all the factors of the study is presented in Table 23, and the SEM analysis that describes the influence of the research variables is presented in Table 24.

Table 23. *Correlation Matrix for the Research Variables*

		1	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.
1. Talent Management	Pearson Correlation	1									
	Sig. (2-tailed)										
	N	396									
2. Work Overload	Pearson Correlation	-.608**	1								
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000									
	N	396	396								
3. Leader-member Exchange	Pearson Correlation	.710**	-.623**	1							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000								
	N	396	396	396							
4. Intrinsic Reward	Pearson Correlation	.628**	-.548**	.700**	1						
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000							
	N	396	396	396	396						
5. Extrinsic Reward	Pearson Correlation	.717**	-.654**	.756**	.695**	1					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000						
	N	396	396	396	396	396					
6. Work-life Balance	Pearson Correlation	.745**	-.615**	.732**	.696**	.762**	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000					
	N	396	396	396	396	396	396				
7. Emotional Intelligence	Pearson Correlation	.680**	-.570**	.686**	.642**	.699**	.754**	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000				
	N	396	396	396	396	396	396	396			

		1	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.
8. Organizational Commitment	Pearson Correlation	.533**	-.459**	.510**	.484**	.510**	.515**	.498**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000			
	N	396	396	396	396	396	396	396	396		
9. Job Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	.761**	-687**	.753**	.708**	.779**	.772**	.736**	.601**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		
	N	396	396	396	396	396	396	396	396	396	
10. Turnover Intention	Pearson Correlation	-.766**	.758**	-.745**	-.716**	-.780**	-.785**	-.737**	-.596**	-.826**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	396	396	396	396	396	396	396	396	396	396

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

Table 24. *SEM Analysis for the Research Variables*

			Estimate	P	R^2
Turnover Intention	←-	Talent Management	-.082	.029	.814
Turnover Intention	←-	Work Overload	.198	***	
Turnover Intention	←-	Leader-member Exchange	-.021	.572	
Turnover Intention	←-	Intrinsic Reward	-.102	.003	
Turnover Intention	←-	Extrinsic Reward	-.104	.010	
Turnover Intention	←-	Work-life Balance	-.118	.004	
Turnover Intention	←-	Emotional Intelligence	-.072	.033	
Turnover Intention	←-	Organizational Commitment	-.079	.009	
Turnover Intention	←-	Job Satisfaction	-.157	***	

Source. *Own Elaboration*

According to Table 24, there is a significant negative effect of talent management, intrinsic reward, extrinsic reward, work-life balance, emotional intelligence, and organizational commitment on turnover intention as all p-values are less than 0.05 (p-values 0.029, 0.003, 0.010, 0.004, 0.033, and 0.009, respectively) and a significant positive effect of work overload on turnover intention as the P-value is less than 0.05 (P-value = 0.000). On the contrary, there was an insignificant effect of leader-member exchange on turnover intention, as the P-value is more than 0.05 (P-value = 0.572). Before moving on the mediation effect the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intent was examined and it was found that there is a significant negative effect as the P-value is less than 0.05 (P-value = 0.000) and the estimate is -0.157, which means that there is a direct relation between job satisfaction and turnover intention. Finally,The R^2 value shows the overall impact of independent variables on the dependent variable is 81.4% before the effect of the mediator variable.

5.8 The Mediator Effect

The mediator mediates the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. It appears to regulate the relationship between two variables (Hair et al., 2014). This mediation effect focuses on the impact of the mediator on the correlation between the independent and dependent variables. There are three types of mediation: full mediation, no mediation, or partial mediation. According to Hair et al. (2017), a mediation analysis entails evaluating both direct and indirect effects. This is because there is no mediation when both direct and indirect effects are insignificant; when the direct relationship is insignificant and the indirect relationship is significant, full mediation exists (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Finally, partial mediation exists if both the direct and indirect relationships are significant. This implies that, regardless of the mediator's effect, a relationship exists between the independent and dependent variables.

Table 25. *The Mediation Effect*

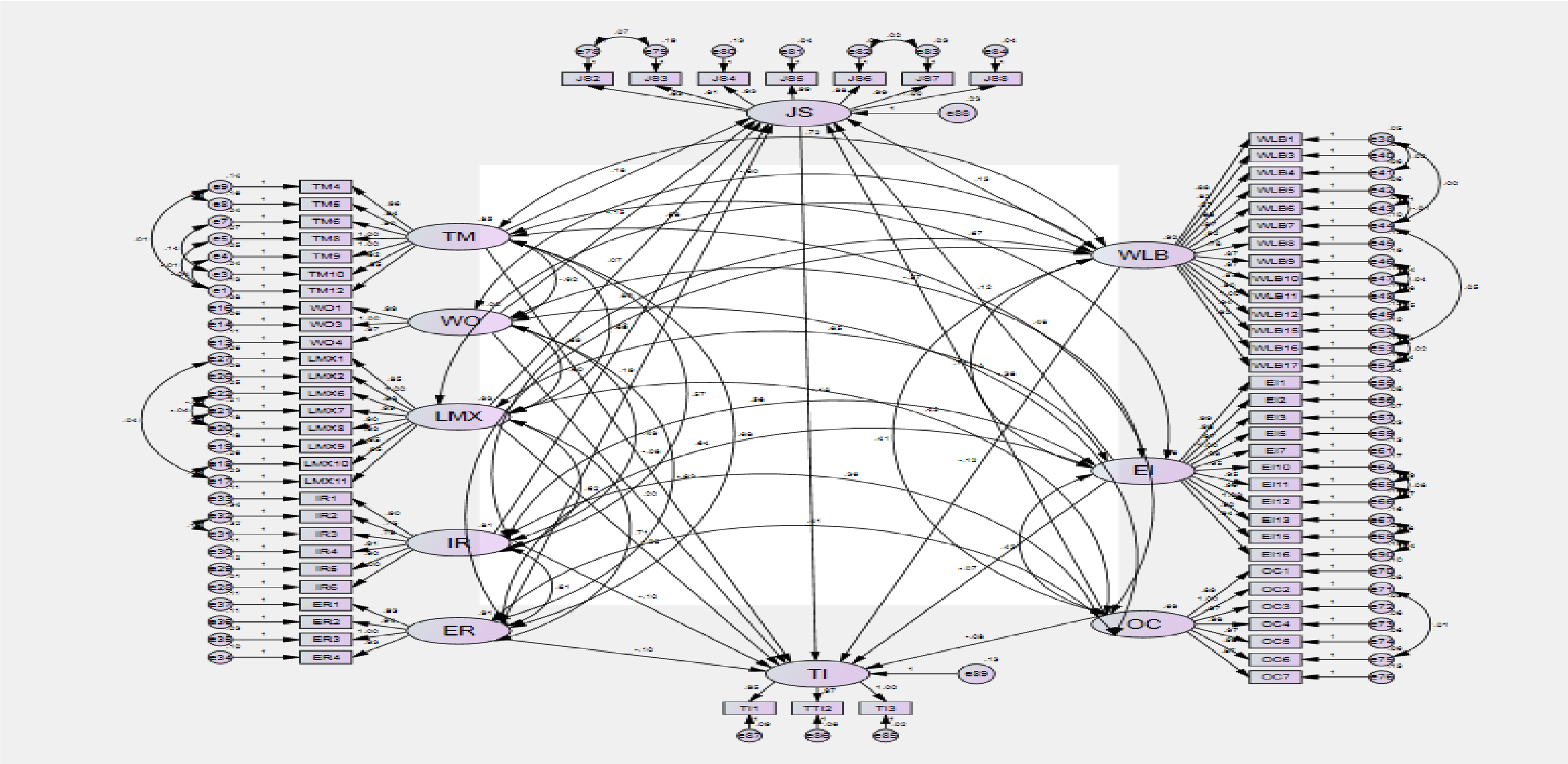
<table>
<tr><th colspan="5">Relationship</th><th>Estimate</th><th>P</th><th>Results</th><th>Mediation</th><th>R^2</th></tr>
<tr><td>Turnover Intention</td><td><---</td><td></td><td><---</td><td>Talent Management</td><td>.-.082</td><td>.029</td><td>Significant</td><td rowspan="2">Partial Mediation</td><td rowspan="7">.767</td></tr>
<tr><td>Turnover Intention</td><td><---</td><td>Job Satisfaction</td><td><---</td><td>Talent Management</td><td>.176</td><td>***</td><td>Significant</td></tr>
<tr><td>Turnover Intention</td><td><---</td><td></td><td><---</td><td>Work Overload</td><td>.198</td><td>***</td><td>Significant</td><td rowspan="2">Partial Mediation</td></tr>
<tr><td>Turnover Intention</td><td><---</td><td>Job Satisfaction</td><td><---</td><td>Work Overload</td><td>-.154</td><td>***</td><td>Significant</td></tr>
<tr><td>Turnover Intention</td><td><---</td><td></td><td><---</td><td>Leader-member Exchange</td><td>-.021</td><td>.572</td><td>Insignificant</td><td rowspan="2">No mediation</td></tr>
<tr><td>Turnover Intention</td><td><---</td><td>Job Satisfaction</td><td><---</td><td>Leader-member Exchange</td><td>.066</td><td>.169</td><td>Insignificant</td></tr>
<tr><td>Turnover Intention</td><td><---</td><td></td><td><---</td><td>Intrinsic Reward</td><td>-.104</td><td>.003</td><td>Significant</td><td>Partial Mediation</td></tr>
</table>

Relationship					Estimate	P	Results	Mediation	R^2
Turnover Intention	<---	Job Satisfaction	<---	Intrinsic Reward	.124	.005	Significant		
Turnover Intention	<---		<---	Extrinsic Reward	-.104	.010	Significant	Partial Mediation	
Turnover Intention	<---	Job Satisfaction	<---	Extrinsic Reward	.190	***	Significant		
Turnover Intention	<---		<---	Work-life Balance	-.118	.004	Significant	Partial Mediation	
Turnover Intention	<---	Job Satisfaction	<---	Work-life Balance	.132	.012	Significant		
Turnover Intention	<---		<---	Emotional Intelligence	-.072	0.33	Significant	Partial Mediation	
Turnover Intention	<---	Job Satisfaction	<---	Emotional Intelligence	.122	.005	Significant		
Turnover Intention	<---		<---	Organizational Commitment	-.079	.009	Significant	Partial Mediation	
Turnover Intention	<---	Job Satisfaction	<---	Organizational Commitment	.133	***	Significant		

Source. *Own Elaboration*

Job satisfactions partially mediates the relationship between talent management, work overload, intrinsic reward, extrinsic reward, work-life balance, EI, and organizational commitment on turnover intention. As all P-values for the indirect effects are significant (P-values <0.000, 0.000, 0.005, 0.000, 0.12, 0.005, 0.000, respectively) and the direct effect remains significant (P-value <0.000), then it is a partial mediation. However, leader-member exchange has an insignificant effect on job satisfaction. After the entry of the mediator value, the R^2 of the model is 76.7%. Figure 15 depicts the SEM model that was developed for the purpose of analyzing the

Figure15: SEM for the Research Variables



Source: *AMOS*

5.9 Summary of Testing Research Hypotheses

This chapter describes the empirical study that was conducted to test the research hypotheses. The study measured the variables that were determined from the previous chapter's literature review using SPSS and Amos to conduct a descriptive correlation. Table 27 shows a summary of the conducted analysis.

- Regarding the analysis, H1 “the better the implementation of talent management strategies in a company, the lower the turnover intention in the academic sector” is supported as there is a significant negative effect of talent management on turnover intention as represented by SEM testing, as the P-value is less than 0.05.
- Regarding the analysis, H2 “the more the work overload, the higher the turnover intention in the academic sector” is supported as there is a significant positive effect of work overload on turnover intention as represented by SEM testing, as the P-value is less than 0.05.
- Regarding the analysis, H3 “there is a negative relationship between LMX and the turnover intention in the academic sector” is not supported as there is an insignificant effect of leader-member exchange on turnover intention as represented by SEM testing, as the P-value is more than 0.05.
- Regarding the analysis, H4 “the higher the intrinsic reward, the lower the turnover intention in the academic sector” is supported as there is a significant negative effect of EI on turnover intention as represented by SEM testing, as the P-value is less than 0.05.
- Regarding the analysis, H5 “the higher the extrinsic reward, the lower the turnover intention in the academic sector” is supported as there is a significant negative effect of extrinsic reward on turnover intention as represented by SEM testing, as the P-value is less than 0.05.
- Regarding the analysis, H6 “the higher the EI, the lower the turnover intention in the academic sector” is supported as there is a significant negative effect of intrinsic reward on turnover intention as represented by SEM testing, as the P-value is less than 0.05.
- Regarding the analysis, H7 “there is a negative relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention in the academic sector” is supported as there is a significant negative effect of organizational commitment on turnover intention as represented by SEM testing, as the P-value is less than 0.05.

- Regarding the analysis, H8 “there is a negative relationship between perceived work-life balance and turnover intention in the academic sector”, is supported as there is a significant negative effect of work-life balance on turnover intention as represented by SEM testing, as the P-value is less than 0.05.
- Regarding the analysis, H9 “job satisfaction mediates the relationship between talent management and turnover intention in the academic sector”, is partially supported as the effect of talent management on turnover intention is still significant in the presence of job satisfaction, as the P-value is less than 0.05.
- Regarding the analysis, H10 “job satisfaction mediates the relationship between work overload and turnover intention in the academic sector”, is partially supported as the effect of work overload on turnover intention is still significant in the presence of job satisfaction, as the P-value is less than 0.05.
- Regarding the analysis, H11 “job satisfaction mediates the relationship between leader-member exchange and turnover intention in the academic sector”, is not supported as the effect of leader-member exchange on turnover intention is insignificant as the P-value is more than 0.05.
- Regarding the analysis, H12 “job satisfaction mediates the relationship between intrinsic rewards and turnover intention in the academic sector”, is partially supported as the effect of intrinsic reward on turnover intention is still significant in the presence of job satisfaction, as the P-value is less than 0.05.
- Regarding the analysis, H13 “job satisfaction mediates the relationship between extrinsic rewards and turnover intention in the academic sector”, is partially supported as the effect of extrinsic reward on turnover intention is still significant in the presence of job satisfaction, as the P-value is less than 0.05.
- Regarding the analysis, H14 “job satisfaction mediates the relationship between EI and turnover intention in the academic sector” is partially supported as the effect of EI on turnover intention is still significant in the presence of job satisfaction, as the P-value is less than 0.05.
- Regarding the analysis, H15 “job satisfaction mediates the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention in the academic sector”, is partially supported as the effect of organizational commitment on turnover intention is still significant in the presence of job satisfaction, as the P-value is less than 0.05.

- Regarding the analysis, H16 “job satisfaction mediates the relationship between work-life balance and turnover intention in the academic sector”, is partially supported as the effect of work-life balance on turnover intention is still significant in the presence of job satisfaction, as the P-value is less than 0.05.

Table 27. *Summary of Research Hypotheses*

Hypothesis	Description	Results
H_1	The better the implementation of talent management strategies in a company, the lower the turnover intention in the academic sector	Supported
H_2	The more the work overload, the higher the turnover intention in the academic sector	Supported
H_3	There is a negative relationship between LMX and the turnover intention in the academic sector	Rejected
H_4	The higher the intrinsic reward, the lower the turnover intention in the academic sector	Supported
H_5	The higher the extrinsic reward, the lower the turnover intention in the academic sector	Supported
H_6	The higher the EI, the lower the turnover intention in the academic sector	Supported
H_7	There is a negative relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention in the academic sector	Supported
H_8	There is a negative relationship between perceived work-life balance and turnover intention in the academic sector	Supported
H_9	Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between talent management and turnover intention in the academic sector	Partially Supported
H_{10}	Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between work overload and turnover intention in the academic sector	Partially Supported
H_{11}	Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between leader-member exchange and turnover intention in the academic sector	Rejected
H_{12}	Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between intrinsic rewards and turnover intention in the academic sector	Partially Supported

Hypothesis	Description	Results
H_{13}	Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between extrinsic rewards and turnover intention in the academic sector	Partially Supported
H_{14}	Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between EI and turnover intention in the academic sector	Partially Supported
H_{15}	Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention in the academic sector	Partially Supported
H_{16}	Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between work-life balance and turnover intention in the academic sector	Partially Supported

Source. *Own Elaboration*

5.10 Conclusion

This chapter presented the data analysis using AMOS and SPSS software. Several tests were conducted to assure validity and reliability, test the hypotheses of the study, and test the mediating effect of job satisfaction on turnover intent in private universities on the variables concluded from the past theories and from the qualitative analysis. In the next chapter, a discussion of the findings will be presented along with the implications and limitations of the study.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

This study's findings have several practical recommendations for human resource managers and specialists (e.g., department heads or deans) regarding human management policies (e.g., rewards and organizational factors) and individual factors that are critical to increasing employee job satisfaction, resulting in a decrease in the employee's intention to leave universities. Consequently, private university administrations can better manage their human resource development programs to meet faculty demands and expectations. Furthermore, by developing a talent management scale, our study contributes to better knowledge of the management of talent and turnover intent at universities, as well as to the literature.

This chapter will explore and analyze the preceding chapter's findings. First, the findings will be examined and linked to the original research questions and objectives outlined in Chapter One. The research's practical and scholarly contributions will then be provided, followed by a discussion of the study's limitations and recommendations for future research based on these limitations and overall findings. Finally, the overall study's conclusion will be briefly reviewed.

6.2 Discussion of the Main Findings and Hypothesis

This study indicates that private universities alarmed by employee turnover intentions should develop policies and procedures to better manage talent, organizational commitment, work-life balance, work overload, employee recognition, and financial incentives. Moreover, they should keep in mind that the EI of their faculty members is directly related to how much individuals value their jobs and plan to leave the university soon. Finally, it has been found that the relationship between leader-member exchange and turnover intention was insignificant in private universities. Sixteen hypotheses were constructed and tested using SEM to determine the relationship between the factors and employees' turnover intentions. The discussion of the findings is found in the next section.

6.2.1 Effect of organizational factors on turnover intention of academics.

6.2.1.1 Talent management.

Our first hypothesis assumed an inverse association between talent management and turnover intention. The hypothesis was supported by the findings, which indicate a significant negative association between talent management and intention to stay (p-value <0.05). This finding is consistent with those of Al-Dalahmeh et al. (2020) and Ahmed et al. (2021). The Pearson correlation value is -0.766**, indicating a negative and strong relationship. This implies that the more universities apply for and maintain effective talent management programs, the lower the staff turnover rate. Consequently, to retain talented and productive employees, our research shows that private university administrations should prioritize talent development programs; as a result, university employees who anticipate professional growth and development will be more dedicated and remain longer. This means that Egypt's managerial administration, in general, and the education sector, particularly, must be more vigilant and conscientious when drafting succession and talent development plans for academics.

6.2.1.2 Work overload.

The second hypothesis proposed a positive association between work overload and turnover intention. The study found significant proof that work overload has a significant negative relationship with turnover intent (P-value <0.05), which validated the hypothesis. The Pearson correlation value is 0.758**, indicating a positive and strong relationship. These findings were recently supported by Hwang and Kim (2021) and Hakro et al. (2022). Based on the finding, universities should begin focusing on distributing a reasonable workload for their staff, as this study provides empirical evidence that employees consider quitting their jobs when they are overloaded.

6.2.1.3 Leader-member exchange.

Our third hypothesis, which assumed a negative relationship between leader-member exchange and turnover intention, was rejected (P-value >0.05), which contradicts most previous findings but agrees with a few prior research findings regarding this relationship (Schyns et al., 2008).The failure of this research to uncover a relationship could be due to academics' ability to execute their main job duties, such as giving lectures, and publishing papers, without the assistance and support of their supervisor. Therefore, since academics have significant control over their jobs, especially at private colleges with less bureaucracy than public universities, the supervisor's support has no bearing on their turnover intention.

6.2.2 Effect of rewards factors on turnover intention of academics.

Academics are hard-working individuals; however, there may be some turnover as a result of the university's poorly handled reward programs. Given this, it is crucial to understand what kind of incentive system promotes employees to stay at the university. It would be impractical and expensive for colleges to implement all feasible reward schemes; therefore, human resource departments should choose those awards that have been shown to be most effective in boosting satisfaction and decreasing turnover. The findings of this research support the idea that well-designed reward systems are critical to achieving desirable outcomes through rewards such as recognition and financial compensation.

6.2.2.1 Intrinsic reward (recognitions).

The fourth hypothesis in this study assumed that the higher the intrinsic reward, the lower the turnover intention in the academic sector (P-value <0.05). The Pearson correlation value is -0.716**, indicating a negative and strong relationship. The finding is in line with those of Henryhand (2009) and Mendis (2017), who stated employee recognition has a significant impact on turnover intention. Based on the findings, universities should make it a habit to acknowledge their employees. Employee appreciation needs to come from the heart if it is to have any effect. For this reason, it is imperative that university administrations cultivate an environment in which employee recognition is a regular part of the workday, as this will imply that the academic community may expect reduced turnovers.

6.2.2.2 Extrinsic reward (financial reward)

The fifth hypothesis in this study claimed that the higher the extrinsic reward, the lower the turnover intention in the academic sector (P-value <0.05). The Pearson correlation value is -0.780**, indicating a negative and strong relationship. This is consistent with the findings of Olawale and Olanrewaju (2016), who studied the relationship between financial incentives and turnover intent at Lagos State University in Nigeria.

This reveals that poor monetary compensation increases the likelihood of academics considering quitting. This negative correlation can be explained further by the equity theory, which compares employees to those in the same occupation, doing the same job, or attending the same university (Scholl, 2006). If educators believe that their colleagues who perform similar duties earn more than they do, they will seriously contemplate leaving the university. Therefore, private universities should take a closer look at how salaries are paid and evaluated to ensure that financial rewards are dispersed fairly.

6.2.3 Effect of individual factors on turnover intention of academics

6.2.3.1 Emotional intelligence.

The sixth hypothesis assumed that the higher the EI, the lower the turnover intention in the academic sector. This assumption was accepted since, according to the findings, academics' EI is strongly and negatively related to their intention to leave universities (P-value <0.05). This shows that the higher an employee's EI, the lower their inclination to leave. The Pearson correlation is -0.737**, indicating a negative and strong relationship. Our findings also corroborate prior studies demonstrating a link between EI and turnover intentions (Giao et al., 2020; Riaz et al., 2018).

Based on the results, human resource professionals in universities should consider EI as a potential deterrent of turnover intention and, as a result, design their training and development programs and selection criteria and reconsider the role of EI in retention efforts, to reduce employee turnover. Moreover, academic EI should be considered by the administration to handle better the types of emotional periods that may drive employees to consider quitting their jobs. This is because academics who can control their own emotions would better cope with the challenges they face on the job, leading to lower turnover.

6.2.3.2 Organizational commitment.

Our seventh hypothesis stated a negative relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention in the academic sector. It was accepted as our results were accordant with the JET, indicating that the relationship between organizational commitment and employee turnover intention is negative and statistically significant (P-value <0.05), indicating that a high level of organizational commitment can decrease the rate of employee turnover intention. The Pearson correlation is -0.596**, indicating a negative and strong relationship. This confirms the findings of Gnanakkan (2010), Malaeb and Garavan (2013), and Rizwan et al. (2014).

6.2.3.3 Work-life balance.

Our eighth hypothesis, which assumed a negative relationship between perceived work-life balance and turnover intention in the academic sector, was accepted as the results showed a significant negative relationship between work-life balance and turnover intent (p-value <0.05). The Pearson correlation is -0.785**, indicating a negative and strong relationship. These findings correspond with the previous findings of Mendis (2017) and Suifan et al. (2016).

Based on the findings, institutions should implement policies that encourage a healthy work-life balance to keep employees from considering leaving. Organizations that do not make an attempt to ensure their workers are maintaining an appropriate level of work-life balance may notice a rise in the number of people planning to leave (McKenna, 2000).

6.3 Discussion of the Mediator Effect

The study tested the effect of job satisfaction as a mediator on the relationship between the eight independent variables of the study (talent management, work overload, LMX, financial reward, recognition, work-life balance, EI, and organizational commitment) and turnover intention. The results of the analysis found a significant and positive effect of job satisfaction as a mediator in seven of the eight relationships discussed.

The ninth hypothesis was supported, claiming that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between talent management and turnover intention in the academic sector (P-value <0.05). These results are consistent with the research conducted by Dzimbiri and Molefi (2021) and Mitosis et al. (2021), who discovered that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between talent management and other variables such as employee performance. However, because little research has been done before on this relationship, so there is no main ground to compare the results to, as according to the researcher's knowledge, this is the first study to examine this relationship as a mediator of turnover intent.

Our tenth hypothesis supported that job satisfaction mediates the influence of work overload on faculty turnover intentions (P-value <0.05). As there has been little research on this issue, there are few findings to compare these against. However, the findings of this research highlights how universities need to address work overload as it impacts job satisfaction, eventually leading to higher turnover intentions.

Our eleventh hypothesis, assuming job satisfaction mediates the relationship between leader-member exchange and turnover intention in the academic sector, was rejected as P-value >0.05. This finding opposes the finding of previous research such as Bhatti et al. (2015) and Elanain (2014). This could be because this is the first time this relationship has been measured in the academic sector, and as mentioned previously, faculty members do not rely on supervisors' support as many employees in other sections do.

Our twelfth hypothesis, job satisfaction mediates the relationship between intrinsic rewards and turnover intention in the academic sector, was supported (P-value <0.05). This study empirically supports previous researchers who have found that rewards like perceived recognition boost employee job satisfaction, which in turn lowers the likelihood of turnover (De Gieter & Hofmans, 2015; Dugguh & Dennis, 2014; Lobburi, 2012).

Our thirteenth hypothesis, job satisfaction mediates the relationship between extrinsic rewards and turnover intention in the academic sector, was supported by our study, which noted that job satisfaction partially mediates the relationship between extrinsic rewards and turnover intention (P-value <0.05). This was supported previously by De Gieter and Hofmans (2015) and Tran (2017) who also found that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between financial reward and turnover intents. Therefore, a decent financial reward will not only lower employee turnover, but also increase employee job satisfaction.

The fourteenth hypothesis, job satisfaction mediates the relationship between EI and turnover intention in the academic sector, was supported (P-value <0.05) indicating that job satisfaction can serve as a mediator (partial mediator) between EI and turnover intent. Our findings also corroborate prior studies demonstrating a link between EI and job satisfaction and turnover intentions (Carmeli, 2003; b Gholipour et al. ,2017). Thus, EI is associated with higher job satisfaction and reduced turnover intentions.

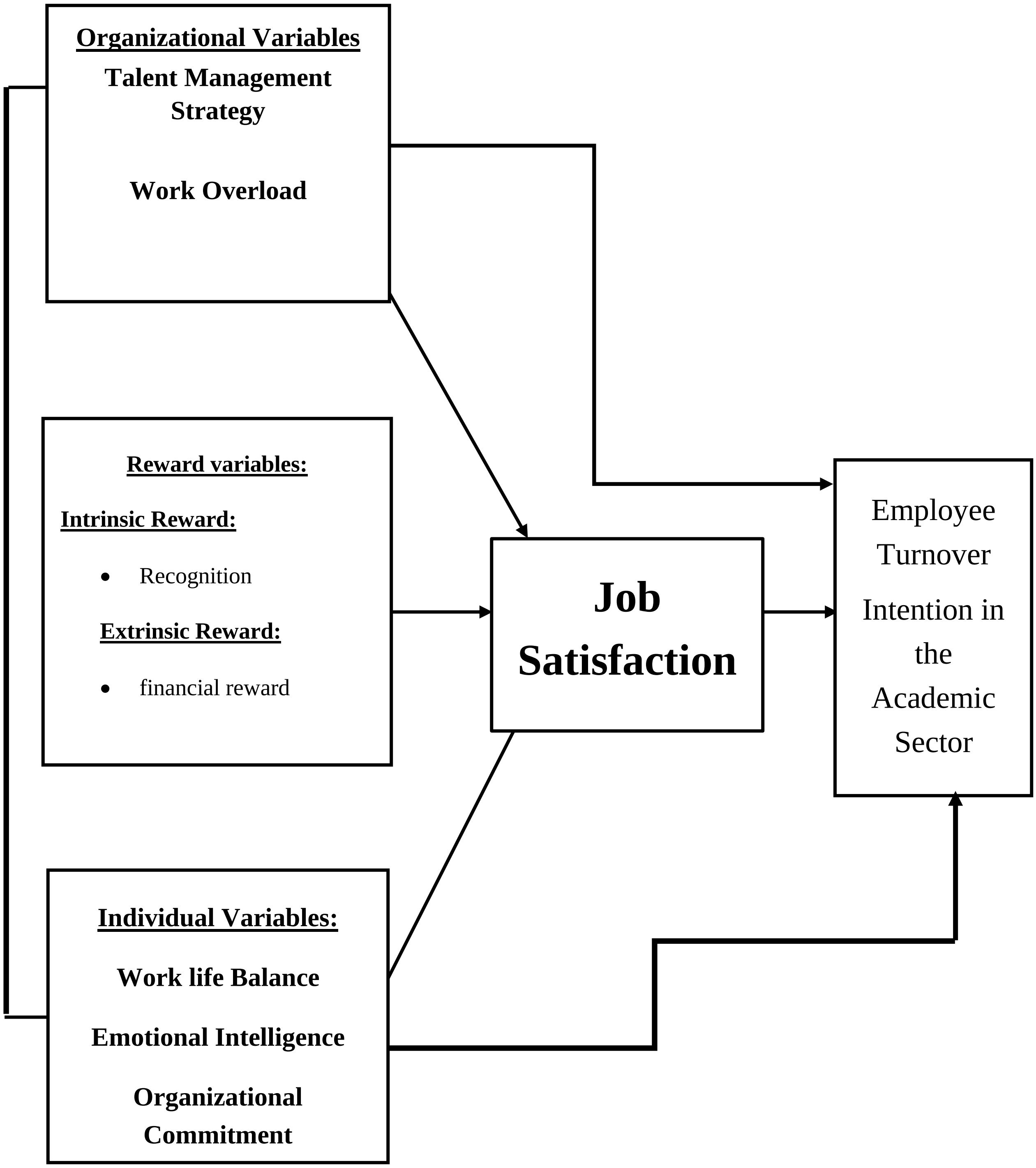
The fifteenth hypothesis, job satisfaction mediates the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention in the academic sector, was supported (P-value <0.05). This implies that job satisfaction can explain employee organizational commitment, which is consistent with Bhatii’s et al (2016) and Agustinningtyas et al.(2020)findings. When employees are committed to their jobs, they are more likely to remain with the organization. In other words, where the employees are committed to the organization and satisfied from their jobs then their intention to leave the organization will be reduced, thereby decreasing the intention to leave the business.

The sixteenth and final hypothesis, job satisfaction mediates the relationship between work-life balance and turnover intention in the academic sector, was supported (P-value <0.05). This implies that job satisfaction can serve as a mediator between work-life balance and turnover intention, reducing employee turnover intention. This study's findings corroborate the findings of Kumara & Fasana (2018) and Lu et al. (2017), which indicate that job satisfaction has a significant impact on work balance and the intention to leave. This indicates that the greater the level of work-life balance conflict experienced by academics, the lower academic job satisfaction and the greater the inclination of employees to quit their professions.

6.4 Adjusted Research Model

Based on the previously presented findings of this research, the following new adjusted model is suggested.

Figure 16. *The Adjusted Research Framework*



Source. *Own Elaboration*

6.5 Contribution and Research Implications

The current study has implications for both practical and theoretical areas. Those contributions will be described in the next section, beginning with the work's academic implications and moving on to the practical significance.

6.5.1 Academic implications.

The purpose of this research was to evaluate, through an in-depth literature review and extensive field study, if a framework could be offered to help universities identify factors impacting turnover intention. Overall, the study's findings lend credence to the use of behavioral theories in interpreting turnover intent. Additionally, the researcher was able to develop and validate a joint model with three types of approaches: organizational, reward, and individual, with a mediating variable, using a mixed method approach, which is the first attempt to do so in the Middle East to the researcher's knowledge, thus giving weight and value to the study. By incorporating multiple factors, the study provides a holistic understanding of the phenomenon, contributing to the existing body of knowledge on turnover intention. For this reason, it offers a significant theoretical perspective on why academics consider leaving their positions thus shedding light on the importance of this topic. Consequently, this study's fundamental significance lies in the fact that it extends the current knowledge of turnover intention to the private education sector in the Middle East, where there is currently a gap.

The use of a mixed-methods approach, specifically thematic analysis and structural equation modeling (SEM), adds academic value to the study. This approach allows for the exploration of both qualitative and quantitative data, providing a more comprehensive analysis of turnover intention. Moreover, the creation of a talent management scale talent in the academic sector which is significant as managing talent in the academic field is still an emerging topic. The scale can further be utilized in future research to assess and compare talent management strategies across different contexts, providing researchers with a valuable tool for examining the impact of talent management on turnover intention.

Furthermore, as the impact of job satisfaction as an intervening variable on employee turnover in the education sector has not yet been investigated in the private higher education sector, this study fills a critical gap in the literature. Finally, given the dearth of research among Egyptian academics and the fact that this would be the first study in Egypt to provide a framework for assessing faculty members' perceptions of turnover intention in private higher education, this research would be highly valuable and contribute significantly to the academic world and to future researchers.

6.5.2 Managerial implications.

The study's findings offer numerous new possibilities for reducing turnover intent and have several practical implications for private universities, human resource practitioners and managers. Private universities will have insight to what makes employees consider leaving which the first step to employee retention and to the current status of turnover intention as the average responses to turnover intention are within average (mean = 2.5081) indicating moderate levels of turnover intentions. This type of information hasn't been available before to administration of private universities in Egypt thus helping further to maintain a competitive advantage within the educational filed. To begin, this research should help human resource professionals and university administrators understand the connection between employees' well-being and retention, including work overload and job satisfaction and alert them to the current status of turnover intention to prevent actual turnover.

For instance, they could pay closer attention to the compensation appraisal and distribution process to guarantee that salaries are commensurate with experience and credentials and are allocated equitably. When it comes to talent management, the study's findings suggest that private university administration should place a greater emphasis on creating opportunities for professional growth. Therefore, employees who anticipate advancement and improvement in their professions will be more content with the organization and more likely to remain with the same employer for a longer period. This study also shows that having a work-life balance culture in the workplace is related to employee satisfaction; thus, it is important for management to prioritize a balanced lifestyle on campus.

The developed scale for talent management can be applied by private universities in Egypt to assess their talent management practices and identify areas for improvement. The scale can serve as a diagnostic tool to evaluate the effectiveness of talent management strategies in attracting, developing, and retaining talented individuals. Based on the scale results, universities can implement tailored talent management interventions to address any identified gaps.

To sum up, this research will provide critical information for private universities to be able to retain their academic staff, resulting in a higher quality of education for students, a lower student-to-faculty ratio, more valuable publications, increasing the importance and reputation of private universities, and, more importantly, the Egyptian economy, as it requires universities that can produce enough competent employees to meet the difficulties of the constantly evolving global economy, and this cannot be done with a stable workforce and a smooth learning process. As such, faculty retention is crucial to the university's ability to provide high-quality education and conduct cutting-edge research.

6.6 Research Limitations

Despite the fact that this study adds to knowledge and provides insight into an issue that has not been well explored in Egypt before, several challenges were faced. The following is a discussion of the researcher’s primary limitations; while these limitations provide a solid base for future studies, they in no way diminish the importance of the research's findings.

First, generalizability may be restricted due to the primary research’s focus on private universities in Egypt. Triangulation efforts were made to alleviate the adverse consequences of this constraint by incorporating two distinct research methods, empirical and academic data, as well as a wider survey sample. However, concentrating on a specific sector may limit an understanding of the problem's full magnitude, and the conclusions may not necessarily apply to other sectors and nations (Choong, 2013).

Second, the cross-sectional data ruled out any causal inference. The direction of causality cannot be determined in cross-sectional studies and must be studied using longitudinal data (Aryee et al., 2002). Given the dynamic nature of higher education settings, these perceptions are likely to evolve over time. Therefore, longitudinal research should be employed to determine the long-term turnover intentions of career academics.

Third, all variables of the research study were assessed based on employees' perceptions of their university; consequently, this study is limited to the use of perceptional measures.

Fourth, access to statistics in Egypt was one of the primary constraints, as not all data from government sources was genuine and reliable (Messner & Garrison, 2007). This conclusion was corroborated by Alhuntushi and Lugo-Ocando in 2020, who concurred that access to statistical sources in Egypt and Saudi Arabia is one of the greatest obstacles a researcher may encounter, as official sources in both nations impede the effective and critical data utilization. One way is by establishing bureaucratic procedures that must be undertaken to access a specific source. This might cause months-long delays in the statistics reporting, rendering the data obsolete. Due to problems in acquiring statistical information from official sources, their research found that statistical information may be unreliable. Consequently, the data collected from government sources may not be reliable, and the researcher had to rely on personal connections to gain certain statistics, such as the number of faculty members at certain universities, which were not published on governmental websites.

Finally, most of the research was conducted during the COVID-19 pandemic, when people were not sure about the future of their jobs and might not have had the luxury to think of leaving their universities during the lockdown. For so, this may have had an impact on their experiences and attitudes on these specific occasions.

6.7 Suggestions for Future Research

As a result of the constraints outlined above, several ideas and recommendations for future research on turnover intention have emerged. Based on the current study’s findings, only general outcomes of the interrelationships between organizational factors, reward factors, and individual factors on academics’ intention to leave have been sought out. Future research should investigate the correlations between these variables based on gender, age, tenure, and other demographic factors. To get a deeper understanding of the employment characteristics of the entire working faculty in Egypt, it is recommended to conduct similar research in public universities as well.

In addition, if data were collected from the entire educational sector, encompassing primary, secondary, intermediate, bachelor's, and higher education, the conclusions may be generalized to the entire Egyptian education system, not just higher education. Moreover, a comparative case study between private universities in the Middle East and the western community would be prudent to determine whether culture and society play a role in turnover intent using the big five personality dimensions.

Finally, future researchers can include the other predictors that contribute to turnover intention since independent variables in this study contribute 76% to explaining turnover intention, while the remaining 24% is explained by other predictors that have not been measured in this study. Hence, it would be interesting if future researchers could interview faculty members who have already left their university and explain why they departed (e.g., had work-life balance issues, lacked talent management strategies, received a higher financial job offer, etc.), thereby adding rigor to our proposed model or introducing additional variables.

6.8 Conclusion

The primary objective of this study is to establish a conceptual framework for turnover intent in Egyptian private universities. Data was collected using a mixed-methods approach, with qualitative data processed thematically approach and quantitative data analyzed using SPSS-AMOS software. Consequently, each variable was defined and dimensions were thoroughly discussed. The conclusions of this thesis will aid the Egyptian private university system in retaining its current faculty members and reducing their turnover intent, as this is the first step in ensuring a consistent and smooth learning process and a certain amount of stability within the Egyptian education system, which is much needed as Egypt rebuilds its education system.

As such, if universities can strengthen talent management programs and facilitate a reasonable workload among employees, job satisfaction can be effectively improved, leading to lower turnover. However, the leader-member exchange has no direct effect on turnover intentions or job satisfaction. Moreover, this study focused on two types of reward factors: financial reward and recognition, which both were found to have a significant negative relationship with turnover intent. The results show that higher salary levels and appreciation of faculty work will lead to higher levels of job satisfaction, leading to lower turnover intentions. When discussing individual factors affecting employee turnover intention, the study showed that EI, work-life balance, and organizational commitment are important factors influencing employee turnover intention through the mediation role of job satisfaction. Finally, the limitations and suggestions for future research were presented.

6.9 Conclusiones y Recomendaciones (español)

El presente estudio tiene implicaciones tanto prácticas como teóricas. Dichas contribuciones se describirán en la siguiente sección, comenzando por las implicaciones académicas del trabajo y pasando a la importancia práctica.

Implicaciones académicas.

El propósito de esta investigación era evaluar, mediante una revisión en profundidad de la literatura y un amplio estudio de campo, si se podía ofrecer un marco para ayudar a las universidades a identificar los factores que influyen en la intención de rotación de los empleados de las universidades privadas en Egipto. En general, los resultados del estudio dan credibilidad al uso de las teorías conductuales en la interpretación de la intención de rotación. Además, el investigador fue capaz de desarrollar y validar un modelo conjunto con tres tipos de enfoques: organizativo, de recompensa e individual, con una variable mediadora, utilizando un enfoque de método mixto, que es el primer intento de hacerlo en Oriente Medio según el conocimiento del investigador, lo que da peso y valor al estudio. Al incorporar múltiples factores, el estudio proporciona una comprensión holística del fenómeno, contribuyendo al cuerpo de conocimientos existente sobre la intención de rotación. Por este motivo, ofrece una perspectiva teórica significativa sobre los motivos por los que los académicos se plantean abandonar sus puestos, arrojando así luz sobre la importancia de este tema. En consecuencia, la importancia fundamental de este estudio radica en que amplía los conocimientos actuales sobre la intención de rotación al sector de la enseñanza privada en Oriente Medio, donde actualmente existe un vacío.

El uso de un enfoque de métodos mixtos, concretamente el análisis de casos y el modelo de ecuaciones estructurales (SEM), añade valor académico al estudio. Este enfoque permite la exploración de datos tanto cualitativos como cuantitativos, proporcionando un análisis más exhaustivo de la intención de rotación de los empleados de las universidades privadas en Egipto. Además, la creación de una escala de gestión del talento en el sector académico es significativa, ya que la gestión del talento en el ámbito académico sigue siendo un tema emergente. La escala puede utilizarse en futuras investigaciones para evaluar y comparar las estrategias de gestión del talento en diferentes contextos, proporcionando a los investigadores una valiosa herramienta para examinar el impacto de la gestión del talento en la intención de rotación.

Además, evaluar la satisfacción en el trabajo como variable mediadora que interviene en la rotación de los empleados en el sector de la educación es un tema que aún no se ha investigado en el sector de la enseñanza superior privada por lo que este análisis llena un vacío crítico en la literatura. Por último, dada la escasez de investigaciones entre los académicos egipcios y el hecho de que éste sería el primer estudio en Egipto que proporciona un marco para evaluar las percepciones de los miembros del profesorado sobre la intención de rotación en la enseñanza superior privada, esta investigación es muy valiosa y contribuye significativamente al mundo académico y a los futuros investigadores.

Implicaciones para la gestión.

Las conclusiones del estudio ofrecen numerosas posibilidades para reducir la intención de rotación y tiene varias implicaciones prácticas para las universidades privadas, los profesionales de recursos humanos y los directivos. Las universidades privadas tendrán una idea de qué se está haciendo o dejando de hacer para que los empleados consideren la posibilidad de marcharse de universidad. Este es el primer paso para retener a los empleados. La administración de las universidades privadas egipcias no disponía hasta ahora de este tipo de información, lo que contribuye a mantener una ventaja competitiva en el ámbito educativo. Para empezar, esta investigación debería ayudar a los profesionales de recursos humanos y a los administradores universitarios a comprender la conexión entre el bienestar y la retención de los empleados, incluyendo la sobrecarga de trabajo y la satisfacción laboral, y alertarles sobre el estado actual de la intención de rotación para prevenir la rotación real.

Por ejemplo, podrían prestar más atención al proceso de evaluación y distribución de las retribuciones para garantizar que los salarios se correspondan con la experiencia y las credenciales y se asignen equitativamente. En cuanto a la gestión del talento, las conclusiones del estudio sugieren que la administración de las universidades privadas debería hacer más hincapié en la creación de oportunidades de crecimiento profesional. Por lo tanto, los empleados que prevén avanzar y mejorar en su profesión estarán más contentos con la organización y es más probable que permanezcan más tiempo con el mismo empleador. Este estudio también muestra que tener una cultura de equilibrio entre la vida laboral y personal en el lugar de trabajo está relacionado con la satisfacción de los empleados, por lo tanto, es importante que la dirección dé prioridad a un estilo de vida equilibrado en el campus.

La escala desarrollada para la gestión del talento puede ser aplicada por las universidades privadas de Egipto para evaluar sus prácticas de gestión del talento e identificar áreas de mejora. La escala puede servir como herramienta de diagnóstico para evaluar la eficacia de las estrategias de gestión del talento a la hora de atraer, desarrollar y retener a las personas con talento. Basándose en los resultados de la escala, las universidades pueden implementar intervenciones de gestión del talento a medida para abordar cualquier carencia identificada.

En resumen, esta investigación proporcionará información fundamental para que las universidades privadas puedan retener a su personal académico, lo que redundará en una mayor calidad de la enseñanza para los estudiantes, una menor proporción de estudiantes por profesor, publicaciones más valiosas, un aumento de la importancia y la reputación de las universidades privadas y, lo que es más importante, de la economía egipcia, ya que ésta necesita universidades que puedan producir suficientes empleados competentes para hacer frente a las dificultades de la economía mundial en constante evolución, y esto no puede hacerse sin una plantilla estable y un proceso de aprendizaje sin problemas. Por ello, la retención del profesorado es crucial para que la universidad pueda ofrecer una educación de alta calidad y llevar a cabo una investigación puntera.

Limitaciones de la investigación

A pesar de que este estudio aporta conocimientos y profundiza en una cuestión que hasta ahora no se había explorado bien en Egipto, hubo que hacer frente a varios retos. A continuación se exponen las principales limitaciones del investigador; aunque estas limitaciones proporcionan una base sólida para futuros estudios, no disminuyen en absoluto la importancia de los resultados de la investigación.

En primer lugar, la generalidad de los datos puede verse limitada por el hecho de que la investigación principal se centre en las universidades privadas de Egipto. Se hicieron esfuerzos de triangulación para paliar las consecuencias adversas de esta limitación incorporando dos métodos de investigación distintos, datos empíricos y académicos, así como una muestra de encuesta más amplia. Sin embargo, concentrarse en un sector específico puede limitar la comprensión de toda la magnitud del problema, y las conclusiones pueden no aplicarse necesariamente a otros sectores y naciones (Choong, 2013).

En segundo lugar, los datos transversales descartan cualquier inferencia causal. La dirección de la causalidad no puede determinarse en estudios transversales y debe estudiarse utilizando datos longitudinales (Aryee et al., 2002). Dada la naturaleza dinámica de los entornos de enseñanza superior, es probable que estas percepciones evolucionen con el tiempo. Por lo tanto, debe emplearse la investigación longitudinal para determinar las intenciones de rotación a largo plazo de los académicos de carrera.

En tercer lugar, todas las variables del estudio de investigación se evaluaron a partir de las percepciones de los empleados sobre su universidad; en consecuencia, este estudio se limita al uso de medidas de percepción.

En cuarto lugar, el acceso a las estadísticas en Egipto fue una de las principales limitaciones, ya que no todos los datos procedentes de fuentes gubernamentales eran auténticos y fiables (Messner y Garrison, 2007). Esta conclusión fue corroborada por Alhuntushi y Lugo-Ocando en 2020, quienes coincidieron en que el acceso a las fuentes estadísticas en Egipto y Arabia Saudí es uno de los mayores obstáculos que puede encontrar un investigador, ya que las fuentes oficiales de ambas naciones impiden la utilización eficaz y crítica de los datos. Una de las formas es mediante el establecimiento de procedimientos burocráticos que deben realizarse para acceder a una fuente específica. Esto puede provocar retrasos de meses en la elaboración de las estadísticas, dejando los datos obsoletos. Debido a los problemas para obtener información estadística de fuentes oficiales, sus investigaciones revelaron que la información estadística puede ser poco fiable. En consecuencia, los datos recogidos de fuentes gubernamentales pueden no ser fiables, y el investigador tuvo que recurrir a conexiones personales para obtener determinadas estadísticas, como el número de profesores de ciertas universidades, que no se publicaban en los sitios web gubernamentales.

Por último, la mayor parte de la investigación se llevó a cabo durante la pandemia de COVID-19, cuando la gente no estaba segura del futuro de sus trabajos y quizá no se permitía el lujo de pensar en abandonar sus universidades durante el cierre patronal. Por tanto, esto puede haber influido en sus experiencias y actitudes en estas ocasiones concretas.

Sugerencias para futuras investigaciones

Como resultado de las limitaciones expuestas, han surgido varias ideas y recomendaciones para futuras investigaciones sobre la intención de rotación. Sobre la base de los resultados del presente estudio, sólo se han buscado resultados generales de las interrelaciones entre los factores organizativos, los factores de recompensa y los factores individuales sobre la intención de abandonar el trabajo de los académicos. Futuras investigaciones deberían estudiar las correlaciones entre estas variables en función del género, la edad, la permanencia en el puesto y otros factores demográficos. Para conocer en profundidad las características laborales de todo el profesorado en activo de Egipto, se recomienda llevar a cabo investigaciones similares también en las universidades públicas.

Además, si se recogieran datos de todo el sector educativo, abarcando la enseñanza primaria, secundaria, intermedia, bachillerato y superior, las conclusiones podrían generalizarse a todo el sistema educativo egipcio, no sólo a la enseñanza superior. Por otra parte, sería prudente realizar un estudio comparativo de casos entre universidades privadas de Oriente Medio y la comunidad occidental para determinar si la cultura y la sociedad desempeñan un papel en la intención de cambio de personal utilizando las cinco grandes dimensiones de la personalidad.

Por último, los futuros investigadores pueden incluir otros predictores que contribuyan a la intención de rotación, ya que las variables independientes de este estudio contribuyen en un 76% a explicar la intención de rotación, mientras que el 24% restante se explica por otros predictores que no se han medido en este estudio. Por lo tanto, sería interesante que futuros investigadores entrevistaran a profesores que ya han abandonado su universidad y explicaran por qué lo hicieron (por ejemplo, problemas de conciliación de la vida laboral y familiar, falta de estrategias de gestión del talento, ofertas de trabajo mejor remuneradas, etc.), añadiendo así rigor a nuestro modelo propuesto o introduciendo variables adicionales.

Conclusión

El objetivo principal de este estudio es establecer un marco conceptual para la intención de rotación en las universidades privadas egipcias. Los datos se recogieron utilizando un enfoque de métodos mixtos, con datos cualitativos procesados mediante un enfoque temático y datos cuantitativos analizados utilizando el software SPSS-AMOS. En consecuencia, se definió cada variable y se discutieron a fondo sus dimensiones. Las conclusiones de esta tesis ayudarán al sistema universitario privado egipcio a retener a su profesorado actual y a reducir su intención de rotación, ya que éste es el primer paso para garantizar un proceso de aprendizaje coherente y fluido y una cierta estabilidad dentro del sistema educativo egipcio, muy necesaria a medida que Egipto reconstruye su sistema educativo.

Así, si las universidades pueden reforzar los programas de gestión del talento y facilitar una carga de trabajo razonable entre los empleados, la satisfacción laboral puede mejorar eficazmente, lo que se traducirá en una menor rotación. Sin embargo, el intercambio líder-miembro no tiene un efecto directo en las intenciones de rotación ni en la satisfacción laboral. Además, este estudio se centró en dos tipos de factores de recompensa: la recompensa económica y el reconocimiento, y se descubrió que ambos tenían una relación negativa significativa con la intención de rotación. Los resultados muestran que unos niveles salariales más altos y el reconocimiento del trabajo del profesorado conducirán a unos niveles más altos de satisfacción laboral, lo que a su vez conducirá a una menor intención de rotación. En cuanto a los factores individuales que influyen en la intención de cambiar de trabajo, el estudio muestra que la IE, el equilibrio entre vida personal y profesional y el compromiso organizativo son factores importantes que influyen en la intención de cambiar de trabajo a través de la mediación de la satisfacción laboral. Por último, se presentan las limitaciones y sugerencias para futuras investigaciones.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1 – The Interview Guide

Ice Breaker

1. Please state your name, age and what is your highest level of education
2. Could you please state your current position at your university and how long you have worked there and your day-to-day responsibilities?
3. What words or feelings come to mind when you think about your job?
4. How would you describe your university to other people?

Body

5. How satisfied are you with your job on a scale of 1-10 with 10 representing the highest? What would have to happen for that number to become a 10?
6. What factors cause you to enjoy your current job and work situation? How have these factors contributed to you staying at the organization as long as you have?
7. Do you agree with this statement" I am able to balance my personal life with my current Job"? Why or why not?
8. What kinds of flexibility would be helpful to you in balancing your work and home life?
9. Do you feel that your talents, interests, or skills have been managed effectively? How So?
10. What type of factors do you think your university should focus on when implementing talent management strategies?
11. How is your work relationship with your supervisor?
12. Are you proud to work at your current university? Why or Why not?
13. Have you ever thought about leaving the company? If so, what caused you to consider leaving? Why did you decide to stay?
14. Please finish this sentence "I would consider leaving my university if _____. happens"

Ending

15. If you had to do it all over again, would you apply for this position? Why?
16. If you could wave a magic wand and change something about your university, what would it be?"
17. Is there anything you would like to add?

Appendix 2 – Letter of Cooperation

Letter of Cooperation

To fulfill the requirements for earning a doctoral degree, I am completing a qualitative research study. The focus of my research is to determine the factors influencing turnover intention of faculty members in private universities. I am requesting your permission to participate in the study. I will assign a code in place of your name, so the identity of the university and the participants will remain confidential and the names of the university and participants will not appear in the published study. Participation requires a 15-30-minute interview via telephone or online and will be recorded. The participants will confirm their willingness to participate, and I will send a consent form to review and sign prior to the interview. The participants' names will be coded for discussion of the findings in the published study. The university name will not appear in the published study.

Printed Name of Approver __________________________

Date of Consent ___________________________________

Approver's Signature ________________________________

Researcher's Signature ______________________________

Appendix 3 – The Questionnaire

Questionnaire Statements

Question One: The following statements measure ***the talent management***. Please from a scale of 1 to 5 (1 meaning strongly disagree and 5 meaning strongly agree) state your opinion about the statements.		***Strongly Disagree***	***Disagree***	***Neutral***	***Agree***	***Strongly Agree***
1	My university invests in its faculty members	1	2	3	4	5
2	My university focuses on maintaining its staff academically challenged in order to strengthen their capabilities.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Developing faculty members' talents is one of my university's main objectives.	1	2	3	4	5
4	My university has a development center available for employees to enhance professional growth.	1	2	3	4	5
5	My university identifies gaps in faculty members' skills	1	2	3	4	5
6	My university continually seeks various training methods to develop faculty members skills(coaching,seminars,,etc)	1	2	3	4	5
7	My university's management frequently communicates with us how we may advance our careers.	1	2	3	4	5

8	My university's training programs are geared on the development of specific competencies and abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
9	My university keeps us up-to date with latest academic developments in our field.	1	2	3	4	5
10	My university has leadership development programmes for academics with high potential.	1	2	3	4	5
11	My university provides us access to material to further advance our skills	1	2	3	4	5
12	Overall, I am satisfied with the talent initiatives implemented at my university	1	2	3	4	5

Question Two: The following statements measure ***Work overload***. Please on a scale of 1 to 5 (1 meaning strongly disagree and 5 meaning strongly agree) state your opinion about the statements.		***Strongly Disagree***	***Disagree***	***Neutral***	***Agree***	***Strongly Agree***
1	I do not have enough time to get everything done in my job	1	2	3	4	5
2	My workload is heavy on my job	1	2	3	4	5
3	I have to work very hard in my job	1	2	3	4	5
4	I have to work very fast in my job	1	2	3	4	5

Question Three: The following statements measure the ***Leader membership exchange dimensions.*** Please from a scale of 1 to 5 (1 meaning strongly disagree and 5 meaning strongly agree) state your opinion about the statements.		***Strongly Disagree***	***Disagree***	***Neutral***	***Agree***	***Strongly Agree***
1	I like my supervisor very much as a person.	1	2	3	4	5
2	My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend.	1	2	3	4	5
3	My supervisor is a lot of fun to work with.	1	2	3	4	5
4	My supervisor defends my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question.	1	2	3	4	5
5	My supervisor would come to my defense if I were "attacked" by others.	1	2	3	4	5
6	My supervisor would defend me to others in the university if I made an honest mistake.	1	2	3	4	5
7	| do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description.	1	2	3	4	5
8	I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required, to further the interests of my work group.	1	2	3	4	5
9	I am impressed with my supervisor's knowledge of	1	2	3	4	5

	his/her her job.					
10	I respect my supervisor's knowledge of and competence on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
11	I admire my supervisor's professional skills.	1	2	3	4	5

Question Four: The following statements measure ***reward***. Please from a scale of 1 to 5 (1 meaning strongly disagree and 5 meaning strongly agree) state your opinion about the statements. **Recognition and Appreciation (Intrinsic Reward)**		***Strongly Disagree***	***Disagree***	***Neutral***	***Agree***	***Strongly Agree***
1	In department, employees' suggestions are seriously taken into consideration	1	2	3	4	5
2	In my department, supervisors tangibly recognize employees' efforts in different ways (e.g., sports events; dinners at restaurants)	1	2	3	4	5
3	In my department, employees receive written recognition from their supervisors.	1	2	3	4	5
4	In my department, supervisors regularlycongratulate employees in recognition of their efforts.	1	2	3	4	5
5	In my work unit, employees' suggestions are followed up regularly	1	2	3	4	5

6	When an employee does good quality work. his colleagues regularly show him their appreciation	1	2	3	4	5
Pay (Extrinsic Reward)						
1	I estimate my salary as being fair internally	1	2	3	4	5
2	My salary is fair in comparison with what is offered for a similar job elsewhere	1	2	3	4	5
3	My compensation level adequately reflects the level of my responsibility in the organization	1	2	3	4	5
4	The pay increases and/or bonuses I received in the last 2 years adequately reflect my recent performance evaluations	1	2	3	4	5

Question Five: The following statements measure the ***Work Life Balance*** Please from a scale of 1 to 5 (1 meaning strongly disagree and 5 meaning strongly agree) state your opinion about the statements.		***Strongly Disagree***	***Disagree***	***Neutral***	***Agree***	***Strongly Agree***
1	My personal life suffers because of work	1	2	3	4	5
2	My job makes personal life difficult	1	2	3	4	5
3	I put personal life on hold for	1	2	3	4	5

	work					
4	I struggle to juggle work and non-work activates	1	2	3	4	5
5	I am unhappy with the amount of time for non-work activities	1	2	3	4	5
6	I am too tired to be effective at work	1	2	3	4	5
7	My work suffers because of my personal life	1	2	3	4	5
8	My job gives me energy to pursue personal activities	1	2	3	4	5
9	I have a better mood because of my job	1	2	3	4	5
10	My university facilitates work-life balance	1	2	3	4	5
11	There is enough time for recreation activities	1	2	3	4	5
12	I do not need to work overtime as I use to finish work within working hours	1	2	3	4	5
13	I have enough time for my family and friends	1	2	3	4	5
14	I value the social benefits that the company offers me	1	2	3	4	5
15	I have the necessary resources to do my job	1	2	3	4	5
16	My university trusts people to take work-related decisions without getting permission first	1	2	3	4	5
17	My university lets people make	1	2	3	4	5

	their own decisions much of the time					

Question Six: The following statements measure the ***Emotional Intelligence***. Please from a scale of 1 to 5 (1 meaning strongly disagree and 5 meaning strongly agree) state your opinion about the statements		***Strongly Disagree***	***Disagree***	***Neutral***	***Agree***	***Strongly Agree***
1	I can explain the emotions I feel to team member.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I have a good understanding of my own emotions	1	2	3	4	5
3	If I am feeling down I can tell other teams members what will make me feel better	1	2	3	4	5
4	I can talk to other members of the team about the emotions I experience	1	2	3	4	5
5	When I am frustrated with fellow team members, I can overcome my frustration.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I respect the opinion of team member even if I think they are wrong	1	2	3	4	5
7	When deciding on a dispute, I try to see all sides of a disagreement before I come to a conclusion	1	2	3	4	5
8	I give a fair hearing to fellow team members ideas	1	2	3	4	5
9	When I talk to a team member I	1	2	3	4	5

	can gauge their true feelings from their body language					
10	I can read fellow team members "true" feelings even if they try to hide them	1	2	3	4	5
11	I can deal when team members don't mean what they say	1	2	3	4	5
12	I am able to describe accurately the way others in the team are feeling.	1	2	3	4	5
13	I can able to cheer team member up when they are feeling down.	1	2	3	4	5
14	I can provide the "spark" to get fellow members enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5
15	My enthusiasm can be contagious for members of a team	1	2	3	4	5
16	I can get fellow team members to share my keenness for a project	1	2	3	4	5

Question Seven: The following statements measure ***Organizational Commitment***. Please from a scale of 1 to 5 (1 meaning strongly disagree and 5 meaning strongly agree) state your opinion about the statements.		***Strongly Disagree***	***Disagree***	***Neutral***	***Agree***	***Strongly Agree***
1	I speak highly of this university to my friends	1	2	3	4	5
2	I am not dedicated to this	1	2	3	4	5

	university (R)					
3	I am proud to tell others I am part of this university	1	2	3	4	5
4	This university inspires the very best job performance in me.	1	2	3	4	5
5	This university is the best of all possible place to work	1	2	3	4	5
6	I don't care about the fate of the university (R)	1	2	3	4	5
7	This university's values are not the same as mine (R)	1	2	3	4	5

Question Eight: The following statements measure ***Job Satisfaction*.** Please from a scale of 1 to 5 (1 meaning strongly disagree and 5 meaning strongly agree) state your opinion about the statements.		***Strongly Disagree***	***Disagree***	***Neutral***	***Agree***	***Strongly Agree***
1	The advantages of being a faculty member clearly outweigh the disadvantages	1	2	3	4	5

2	If I could decide again, I would still choose to work as a faculty member	1	2	3	4	5
3	I regret that I decided to become a faculty member *	1	2	3	4	5
4	I wonder whether it would have been better to choose another profession*	1	2	3	4	5
5	I would like to change to another university if that were possible *	1	2	3	4	5
6	I enjoy working at this university	1	2	3	4	5
7	I would recommend this university as a good place to work	1	2	3	4	5
8	All in all, I am satisfied with my job	1	2	3	4	5

Question Nine: The following statements measure ***Turnover Intention.*** Please from a scale of 1 to 5 (1 meaning strongly disagree and 5 meaning strongly agree) state your opinion about the statements.		***Strongly Disagree***	***Disagree***	***Neutral***	***Agree***	***Strongly Agree***
1	I often think about leaving this university.	1	2	3	4	5
2	It is very possible that I will look for a new job next year.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I often think of changing my job.	1	2	3	4	5

Q2. Age: ○ 20 – less than 35 ○ 35 – less than 50 ○ 50 – less than 65 ○ 65 and above **Q3. Highest Completed Level of Education:** ○ College Degree ○ Master's degree ○ PhD ○ Others ______________________ ______ **Q4. Gender:** ○ Female ○ Male **Q5. Marital status:** ○ Single ○ Engaged ○ Married ○ Divorced ○ Widowed **Q6. Number of children:** ○ None ○ One ○ Two ○ More than two children	**Q7. Current job status:** ○ Graduate teaching assistant ○ Teaching assistant ○ Assistant professor ○ Associate Professor ○ Professor ○ lecturer ○ Other: **Q8. Average Monthly Household income in Egyptian Pounds:** ○ 5,000 – less than 10,000 ○ 10,000 – less than 20,000 ○ Over 20,000 **Q9. City of Resisdance:** ○ Cairo ○ Alexandria ○ Other ________