



Faculty of Cognitive Sciences and Human Development

**Antecedents and Consequences of Boredom at Workplace among
Academicians of Private Higher Education Institutions in Sarawak**

Michael Teng Loong Ing

**Doctor of Philosophy
2018**

Antecedents and Consequences of Boredom at Workplace among
Academicians of Private Higher Education Institutions in Sarawak

Michael Teng Loong Ing

A thesis submitted

In fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

(Human Resource Development)

Faculty of Cognitive Sciences and Human Development
UNIVERSITI MALAYSIA SARAWAK
2018

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews literature on boredom at workplace and other selected constructs relevant to this research. It could be divided into five main sections. The first section begins with a brief chronology and importance of PHEIs followed by implications of boredom at workplace from the human resource perspective. The second section pointed the underpinning theory used to support this proposal with reviews of past studies to respective theory. The third section highlights gaps in the literature including an illustration of the theoretical framework of this research. The fourth section discusses hypotheses that are built based on former studies of related constructs. Lastly, a short summary concludes this chapter.

2.2 Chronology of PHEIs in Malaysia

Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE) was formed on 27 March 2004 and it regulates the higher education system and management within the country. Each department under the ministry are assigned for policies coordination, funding and activities that promote excellence higher education while the divisions monitor the quality of the education offered. Generally, MOHE monitor the movement of public and private higher educational institutions in the way that Malaysia turns to be the educational hub in Asia.

However, public higher education institutions are not able to cater the large pool of students within and outside of the country. Hence, the government took the initiative to introduce the Private Higher Educational Institutional Act (PHEIA). PHEIA enables the private sector to sell their higher educations to meet the market demand under the jurisdiction of MOHE. The latest report by the Department of Statistic Malaysia in year 2014 revealed that there were 500 private higher education institutions (PHEIs) to cater 675,135 students in Malaysia. The number of students is expected to continuously grow and reach 1.2 million in year 2025 (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2015). Apart from students, the numbers of adult learners are growing due to career development purposes. Notably, the PHEIA had led the private higher education institution to mushroom in Malaysia.

2.3 The importance of PHEIs in Malaysia

Globalisation gives raise to K-Economy (Knight, 2002) which is known as knowledge-based economy. Knowledge has become the important commodity to exchange throughout the world for national development. With unique knowledge, an organization can remain competitive in the fast changing market. Hence, there is a need to respond among public and private higher education institutions in that direction.

PHEIs are important in few ways. Firstly, public higher educations are slow in responding to the market demands. MOHE regulates the operations of public higher education institution and they are an giant complex organisation taking care of different interest from their stakeholders. Hence, they are more rigid and less flexible in resources allocation

(Wilkinson & Yussof, 2005) and bureaucracy procedure (Mintzberg, 1996). In contrast, private higher education institutions are fast in responding to the market demands due to their flexibility and sensitivity to the current trend in the society.

Secondly, public higher education institutions are more selective in terms of student recruitments. To date, Malaysia has more than 900,000 students hunting for their higher education. This causes overcrowding and some left with disappointment. This led them to enter private education institution (Oketch, 2004). Notably, not all students have the opportunity to get into public higher education institution. In that case, established private education institutions will gain more preference as being perceived of possessing higher quality than others.

On top of that, Lee (2004) where they found graduates from private higher education are able to get job easily with good pay. The high employment rate of graduates symbolised that private higher education are playing their role well in the country as they are able to produce quality graduates. They are not compromising in term of the quality of courses offered as it had been closely monitored by Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE). Besides, the rapid growth of private higher education is closely related to the drop in ranking among few top institution in Malaysia (Supplement, 2010). With the great progression, private higher education are an icon for knowledge business whereby it offers another channel for students to further their studies in Malaysia.

Fourthly, higher education is the key success to achieve better life where via education, skilled workers are produced to help the growth of a nation. In such realities, education is a

stepping stone in which leads the majority of students trying to achieve excellent result for brighter future.

Lastly, students possess mammoth opportunities to gain knowledge through globalisation. The influx of the international students to study in Malaysia has indirectly plays an important role in contributing to the nation income. For instance, it was reported that in year 2007, the higher education sector had contributed RM 1.5 billion to the government income (Muda, 2007). In recent report by Department of Statistic Malaysia (2015), the contribution has reached RM7.47 billion. Indirectly, higher education has started to play important role in generating income to the country.

In this globalisation era, organizations with skilled and knowledgeable human resources remain competitive in the market. Knowledge is a driven force that increases the growth of an organization as well as their opportunities in global market and vice versa (Tilak, 2001). Countries such as China, Korea and Japan placed higher education an important role in determining their economic plan (Martin, 2009). In Malaysia context, the government recognised the importance of developing human capital via higher education in the Tenth Malaysian Plan (2014). Therefore, academicians remain the critical point to produce competence and skilful human capital for the nation.

2.4 Boredom at workplace: Introduction, Antecedents and Consequences from Human Resource Perspectives

2.4.1 Definition of boredom

What is boredom? How does boredom affect an individual? Does boredom come with function? These simple questions had evoked quite a number of researches in the attempt to provide the answers. There are positive and negative views on boredom. At negative side, boredom serve no function, disrupting on-going activity, lead poor behaviour, and generally poor in logic, rationality and other cognitive processes (Mandler, 1984). While at positive side, some argue boredom do serve purpose and enable individual to adjust to fit the demands of the environment. Generally, boredom reflects individual's current status either being engaged or disengaged which determine their performance towards goal (Lench & Levine, 2005). Obviously, current status refers to the well being.

In the work of organizational development, it is crucial to identify the antecedents that hinder an organization from progressing. In this present study, boredom is a negative silent well being that bound to every individual regardless profession when the desire to stay engaged with current goals are weaken. In other words, boredom indicate that the current goal is no longer stimulating. It leads one to pursuit a temporary relief strategy for refreshment. From human resource development perspective, boredom is an negative experience in cognition, affection and behavioural that obstructing individual from allocating meaning to current activity resulting poor working performance (Barbelet, 1999).

The experience of boredom is series of negative influence of affection, cognition and lastly behavioral (Russell , 2003). The affection component refers to the experience of unpleasant and passiveness (Warr, 1990), cognitive component refers to characteristic of the work which include lacking of challenges and stimuli (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975) while behavioral such as engaging in distractions rather than the tasks at hand (Reijseger et al., 2013), lapse in attention (Cheyne *et al.*, 2006), daydreaming (Damrad-Frye & Laird, 1989; Fisher, 1998), slow passage of time, and slow and monotonous speech (Johnstone & Scherer, 2000).

Therefore, boredom at workplace can be describe as the feeling of bored incurred by employees towards their job and working environment. Loukidou, Loan-Clarke, & Daniels (2009) relate it to the employees' experience of under-challenged (unpleasant) and under-stimulated (low activation). Reijseger *et al.*, (2013) illustrate boredom as inability to concentrate and Pekrun *et al.*, (2010) associated it with absent of value in doing jobs. Obviously, it is the state of “disconnection” of an individual in terms of cognition, emotion and physical strength who is lack of interest, passion and attention towards a job under non-stimulating working environment (Teng *et al.*, 2016).

2.4.2 Antecedents of Boredom

Prior to any negative outcomes, it is wise to understand the roots of such consequences. According to Schaufeli & Salanova (2014), boredom arises due to work characteristics, mental unloaded, personality trait and absence of meaning. Despite scarce findings, (Fisher,1993; Mercer-Lynn, Bar, & Eastwood, 2014) categorized the antecedents at

individual and work level. Accordingly, Table 2.1 explicates the precursor events of boredom at workplace.

Table 2.1: Potential Antecedents of Boredom at Workplace

Antecedents

- Monotonous and repetitive work (Work level).
 - Mental unloaded (Work Level).
 - Absence of meaning (Work Level).
 - Personality traits (Individual Level).
-

a) Monotonous and repetitive work

The issue of boredom at workplace was first started by analysis of the blue collar employees in executing their daily repetition tasks. Job characteristic was found as a main determinant of boredom at workplace. Job characteristics such as monotony and work overload (Shackleton, 1981) are at the top of the list reason for boredom to exist at workplace. The finding is consistent as reported by Schaufeli & Salanova (2014) whereby the most straightforward cause for boredom is the monotonous and short-cycle repetitive works such as mechanical assembly and monitoring jobs.

In this present study, workload is selected as one of the variables fall under job demands. Academicians are specialist in their field and are being assigned to teach the same subject throughout the years. In worst scenario, throughout the entire employment. The repetitive tasks is synonym to routinization. Academicians are expected to deliver the same lecture across semester. In addition, academicians are facing heavy workload in the aspects of administration, publication, students supervision and examination. In such circumstances, it leads to the feeling of none challenging tasks because employees are performing the

same task every time despite the positive effect such as promote creativity through routinization (Parker and Ohly, 2006). In consensus, regardless of any occupation, employees that feel their jobs are monotonous tend to experience boredom (MacDonald & MacIntyre, 1997).

b) Mental unloaded

Many past studies were done on blue collar employees in respect to boredom at workplace due to the monotonous / repetitive task job characteristic. However, there are numbers of research that found boredom could be a serious problem among white collar employees too. For instance, Mann (2007) found that white collar employees in Britain with higher education qualification plus the technology implementation have made them over qualified in executing the task. A third of them are found bored for most of the day. Simply, highly educated employees accepting lower rank of jobs (Leonhardt, 2009). Empowered with knowledge and assisted by technology could make their routine job become much more easier. Initially, it may lead to great increment of productivity. Across time, they may work mindlessly as there is shortfall of stimulating agent to keep employees mentally loaded. Finally, employees feel bored with their job.

c) Personality Traits

Eventhough monotonous jobs lead to boredom at workplace, not every employee who work in monotonous mode will experience boredom (Shackleton, 1981). It is somehow reported that individual's perception towards the job will affect boredom reaction by

employees instead of monotonous job alone (Hills & Perkins, 1985). Simply, boredom is determined by employees' elucidation against the job in term of how well the employees take up the challenge and find interest in their jobs. For instance, when an individual's skill exceeds his or her job requirement, it will lead to non-challenging working environment (Kass *et al.*, 2001), or when a task exceeds an individual's ability to cope, it will lead to a behaviour withdrawal (Fisher, 1993). Hence, it can be seen that characteristics of an employee is the key to activate boredom.

This is fully supported by O'Hanlon (1981) where extroverts have a lower level of boredom at workplace as compared to introvert. In another separate study of boredom in the higher education context done by Mann & Robinson (2009), 211 university students were requested to fill up questionnaire about their boredom level during lecture. The result revealed that 30% of students are bored in most or all of lectures while 59% are bored in half of the lectures. They concluded that individual personality trait is the most important catalyst in leading boredom. However, it's not conclusive that individuals who score high level of boredom proneness are always bored while low level of boredom proneness are never bored. Ashkanasy & Daus (2002) argued that some employees may perform better in adverse situation which is contrary to the past researches. Similar job with similar requirement may generate different level of boredom among individuals (Farmer & Sundberg, 1986). Thus, it all depends to the personality trait.

d) Absence of meaning

Meaning is essential in social processes and lacking of it in life prompts boredom (Frankl, 1984; Barbalet, 2000). Boredom appears to be that current activity no longer stimulating and it propels the need to engaged with new goal (Bench & Lench, 2013). In the same condition, boredom at workplace prevail when employees find lacking of meaning in their task. This is the fundamental event for an individual to start experiencing boredom when there is no immediate actions taken for remedy (Barbalet, 1999). This is further supported by Gemmill & Oakley (1992) where they emphasized that the usage of technology in today's knowledge intensive working environment may easily shade off the true meaning of the work itself and accelerate boredom. In this situation, absence of meaning in task is found to be one of the antecedent events for boredom to occur at workplace.

2.4.3 Consequences of Boredom

Boredom at workplace has been recognized as part of the contributors to the negative outcomes for employees and organizations (Fisher, 1993). Below are the outcomes.

a) Health illness

The implication of boredom on employees' health can be divided into two parts namely physical and psychological. Firstly, physical health. There is evidence to show that employees who work monotonously for a long period of time will experience cardiovascular diseases and other stress related health problems (Fisher, 1993). In the

similar vein, Caplan *et al.*, (1975) conducted a study by using 23 different occupations in the United State to represent a wide range of monotonous jobs. Questionnaires were administered as well as physiological data among 2,010 men were collected. They found out that these employees believe that they do suffer from moderate illnesses such as cardiovascular diseases, gastrointestinal problems, ulcer and respiratory infection due to their jobs.

Similarly, Smith *et al.*, (1981) revealed that there is a big gap in health illness in their experiment against 2 groups of employees namely video display terminal (VDT) operators who work monotonously and non-operator control with 250 and 150 respondents respectively. Operators who work monotonously reported to suffer from more visual, musculoskeletal as well as emotional-health problems. Ferguson (1973) also carried out the same experiment on telegraphists in Australia. About 516 telegraphists participated and the research finding also pointed towards health problems. Illnesses such as asthma, bronchitis and hand tremors were reported by Ferguson.

Secondly, psychological health. Such illnesses were proven to arise due to the fact of boredom at workplace. In the study carried out by Colligan (1979), anxiety and stress are the two factors identified to catalyse the rapid spread of psychological illnesses affecting a number of employees in term of disturbance of excitement at workplace. Simply, motivated and excited employees will march on positively with greater anxiety while those struggle with stress will experience depression and neuroticism (Caplan *et al.*, 1975; Kornhauser, 1965). Interestingly apart from physical and psychological health, boredom is also associated with eating disorders (Ganley, 1989).

b) Poor Job Performance

Generally, it was found that boredom leads to reduction in task effectiveness, poor mental abilities in processing knowledge to make decision and physically weak (O'Hanlon, 1981). Many have argued that boredom will not completely diminish one's performance level but will affect one's performance if boredom stays on (Hopkin, 1990). For instance, studies done by Stave (1977) on pilots who are bored show signs of fatigue and increasing moment of inattention. These pilots manage to complete their simulation tasks on time. However boredom has interrupted their focus and concentration. It gives clear implication towards safety issues especially in aviation industry where small mistakes could lead to accident or injuries in any industrial settings (Drory, 1982).

In addition, Pekrun *et al.*, (2010) study also indicated that boredom is associated with attention problems, values reduction in achievement and affects performance. In the similar vein, study by Watt & Hargis (2010) against 110 employees in healthcare industry found out that employees with higher boredom proneness have lower job performances. Dyer-Smith & Wesson (1995) mentioned that boredom is an opposition element to the task and environment. Boredom negatively responded to an individual capability in responding to an event or information. In other words, individual is no longer competent after indulging in bored setting for a long period of time. In extreme situation, individuals may fall asleep (Grose, 1989). In contrary, individual with higher boredom coping skills are better in job performance than those who possess lower boredom coping skills. (Hamilton *et al.*, 1984)

c) Emotional Disturbance

From past literatures, not many researchers recognised the emotion elements as part of the implications to boredom at workplace. In conjunction to investigate emotion against boredom, Dahlen *et al.* (2004) seek 224 college students to complete measure on boredom proneness, anger expression and aggression. Their investigation found out that high boredom proneness individual is more easier to reveal their anger expression, stronger feeling of violent and poor anger control as compared to low boredom proneness individual. The findings are consistent with Rupp & Vodanovich (1997).

In another separate study by Dahlen *et al.* (2005), 316 undergraduate students were requested to respond to the boredom proneness scale and personality inventory. Again, the result showed that individuals with higher boredom proneness possess higher score for anger traits, illustrate lack of honesty, and prone to engage in risky situations. Both findings by Dahlen *et al.* gives a picture that boredom leads to the negative individuals' emotion especially anger and aggression. It also gave room to support the idea proposed by Culp (2006) whereby boredom proneness individual is undersocialized and prefers to act irresponsibly. In the worst case, it leads to sabotage and abuse (Spector *et al.*, 2006).

In short, employees who suffer from boredom at workplace are affected by negative emotion. They are individuals who get angry easily, tend to act violently at workplace and have poor anger control. From wider view, negative emotion is the consequence of boredom. Employees who are bored could hardly find value or meaning in their work. Employees emotion has been distorted upon the feeling of bored being induced into their

work. They transform their boredom in work into their facial expression and anger and thus affect others. This is known as emotion contagion.

Employees with emotion contagion face difficulty in putting up positive attitude and expression which make them look unfriendly and unsociable. Most likely they will experience alienation (Tolor & Siegel, 1989). Continuance of such default causes employees to fall into depression, hopelessness and loneliness as proven by Farmer & Sundberg (1986). However, it is proposed by Heijden *et al.*, (2012) to encourage employees to take temporary relief strategies of boredom to minimize the potential obstructions by emotion contagion such as violent and anger at workplace.

d) High Absenteeism

It has been suggested that boredom is potentially harming the employees' job outcomes such as attendance. Melamed *et al.*, (1995) highlighted that employees' working condition (i.e workload, repetitive work) has a significant relationship to their job output. About 1, 278 blue collar workers have joined in Melamed *et al.* investigation. The research found out that absenteeism is related to the working condition as in the more workload or more frequent the jobs is repeated, the higher the possibility of employees to absent from work. In extension to the findings, Kass *et al.* (2001) added that greater boredom in job promotes greater absenteeism.

e) Poor Wellbeing

To the best of the author's knowledge, researches on the implications of boredom at workplace have never neglect the aspect of employees' wellbeing. It is labeled as the long term reactions by Loukidou *et al.*, (2009). Bruursema *et al.*, (2011) found out that bored employees are more likely to misbehave. Recognizing employees' wellbeing as one of the implications of boredom is vital in understanding the employees reactions such as sabotage and stealing. Runcie (1980) spent 5 months observing how car manufacturing workers deal with their monotonous jobs. In common, Runcie found out that workers will opt for temporary boredom release strategies such as talking, smoking and etc to alleviate boredom at work. Significantly, Runcie also discovered workers with high boredom in long run tend to sabotage the production process, prefer to work in unsafe environment and steal. In a separate study by Charlton & Hertz (1989) against safety guards also found out negative wellbeing in which they regularly break the rules and regulation in coping with boredom. In addition, it is reported that individual with high boredom score are more likely to experience poor mental and physical well being (Sommers & Vodanovich, 2000).

f) Monetary Loss

Rothlin & Werder (2008) found out that around 15% of workforces are actually bored when they are working. All the negative outcomes of boredom are converging to bring implications towards organization (Gemmell & Oakley, 1992) and organizations are proven to suffer from monetary loss by having the bored employees. Malachowski (2005) found out that among 10,000 employees in United States (US), one third of these employees

spent 2 hours for their personal matters during working hours. The total loss of an organization is estimated to be \$750 billion per annum. In a more recent study by Rath & Conchie (2009), the total loss is estimated to be \$250 and \$350 billion a year. Hence, boredom indirectly caused monetary lost towards an organization.

2.5 Underpinning Theory: Job Demands-Resources Theory and Control Value Theory

2.5.1 JD-R Theory

Job Demands - Resources (JD-R) theory by Bakker et al., (2003a) is a flexible theory where it could be tailored to a specific profession particularly in forecasting job burnout (Demerouti *et al.*, 2001a) and work engagement (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006). There are two assumptions in JD-R theory. First, every occupation has its own specific risk factors that relate to change in employees' well-being known as job demands and resources. Such changes are initiated by the disparity of job demands and resources which lead to positive (work engagement) as well as negative antipode (job burnout). For instance, when the level of job demands is higher than job resources, employee is most likely to experience job burnout. In addition, consequences of those changes were also related to absenteeism (Wan *et al.*, 2014), health problem (Harju *et al.*, 2014), organizational commitment and work enjoyment (Bakker, Van Veldhoven, & Xanthopoulou, 2010).

Second, JD-R theory triggers two fairly independent psychological processes namely *health impairment and motivational process* (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Health impairment process is initiated by the chronic job demands such as work overload and emotional demands. It drives employee to utilize high physical and psychological efforts to get jobs done. Continuous exposure to chronic job demand without room for recovery (rest) may exhaust (depletion of energy) the employees and lead to overtaxing resulting exhaustion, psychosomatic, health complaints and repetitive strain injury (RSI) (Bakker *et al.*, 2003b; Hakanen *et al.*, 2006). This is particularly true when employees faced with condition where high job demands and lack of job resources (Xanthopoulou *et al.*, 2007).

Meanwhile, motivational process is initiated through job resources that motivate employees to work enjoyment, engagement and motivation (Bakker *et al.*, 2010). The ingredients for intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are to fulfil basic human needs and to fulfil work goals respectively through job resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Intrinsically, employees are motivated with autonomy, competence and relatedness (Bakker, 2011; Nahrgang *et al.*, 2011). Meanwhile, extrinsically employees are motivated through resources provided in the working environment (Meijman & Mulder, 1998). The combinations of the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation promote employees' growth, learning and development (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2010). For instance, working environments with many resources energize the willingness to put efforts and work harder. In that case, task will be completed more successfully and attaining work goals. In general, it is a series of motivational process through job resources that commenced from employees themselves towards working environment which nurture work engagement.

2.5.2 Previous studies on JD-R Theory

A number of western studies had argued that the dual psychological processes in JD-R model not only influence personal behaviour, it also predicts organizational outcomes. One of it was Bakker *et al.*, (2003b) who applied JD-R model to 477 employees in the call centre of a Dutch telecom company. Their results reveal that high job demands (i.e: work pressure, computer problems, emotional demands and changes in tasks) are the most important predictors of health problems which lead employees to sickness absence (duration and long-term absence) meanwhile, high job resources (i.e: social support, supervisory coaching, performance feedback and time control) are the only predictors of work involvement (engagement) which negatively related to turnover intentions.

In similar vein, Hakanen, Bakker & Schaufeli (2006) also confirmed the existence of both processes in their among 2,038 Finnish teachers. They found out that high job demands will exposed employees to ill health in which mediated by burnout and job resources will lead to organizational commitment mediated by work engagement. Additionally, they erected the concept that job resources is negatively related to burnout and that burnout is inversely related to work engagement and organization commitment.

In another separate study by Bakker, Demerouti & Verbeke (2004) used JD-R model to examine the relationship between job characteristic, burnout and performance. They claimed that job demands (e.g: work pressure and emotional demands) lead to burnout and would predict in-role performance. In contrast, job resources (e.g: autonomy, social support) would predict extra-role performance through their relationship with work

engagement. Their findings support the existence of the dual processes in affecting employees and organization. Taken together, previous findings established clearly that job demands and job resources have influence towards personal behavior through two independent psychological processes which eventually affect organizational outcomes.

Moreover, JD-R model also specifically used to predict employees' absenteeism. In Bakker *et al.*, (2003a) study among 214 nutrition production employees in the Netherlands, they found that high job demands boost longer absence duration through burnout while high job resources foster work engagement and indirectly lower absence spells (frequency). Their outcome shows a unique pattern whereby employees that are stress out shows longer absent duration while employees who unable to achieve job satisfaction and display low organization commitment are more frequently absent.

In addition, Demerouti *et al.*, (2001a) analysed 374 respondents in 21 different jobs from northern part of Germany and found that when job demands are high, employees tends to experienced burnout. Meanwhile, when there is lack of job resources, employees tends to disengaged from their job. More than that, when both high job demands meet with lacking of job resources, employees will develop both burnout and disengagament. Another study among information technology organization in Western United State by Hoonakker, Carayon & Korunka (2013) shows that high job demands promotes turnover intention mediated by burnout while high job resources demoted turnover intention through job satisfaction.

Meanwhile, there are few limited attempt done in eastern countries in examining the applicability of JD-R model with consistent findings as per western. Duraisingam & Dollard, (2006) who believe JD-R model could be administed apart from industrialized nation exploited 194 Indian rural development workers in their investigation. Participants are required to complete questionnaires measuring job demands, job resources, burnout, psychological distress and job satisfaction. Job demands and job resources (i.e; control, rewards) were found to be significantly related to burnout and job satisfaction respectively. On top of that, they erected the significant interaction between job demands and job resources. Lastly, they pointed that greater focus be placed on women and older workers by increasing job resources in the aspect of control and rewards because they are more susceptible to job burnout.

Researchers from China also deploy JD-R model in determining the factors that influence work engagement. Li & Mao (2014) gathered 477 employees from airports in eastern China to take part in their research discussing the moderating effects of proactive personality towards social support and work-family conflict (WFC). The investigation reveals that social support is positively associated on work engagement whereas WFC is negatively related to work engagement. Both affiliation were found to be moderated by proactive personality of the individual. This study contribute new expansion of JD-R model who have neglected the personal characteristic on work engagement.

JD-R model is widely applied across industry inclusive oil production. A study by Lia *et al.*, (2013) using 670 crude oil production workers in China intending to assess the effectiveness of JD-R model in explaining the relationship of job demands and job

resources with safety outcomes was carried out. Using structural equation modelling, they found out the occurrence of injuries is closely related to job demands (i.e; psychological and physical demands) and job resources (i.e; decision latitude, supervisor support and coworker support) where these two constructs boost job burnout and safety compliance respectively.

Another separate study in Taiwan by Chena & Chenab (2012) applied JD-R model to derive the possible antecedents and consequences of job burnout and work engagement among 305 Taiwanese flight attendants who play vital role in ensuring cabin safety and provide excellent services to passengers on board. Generally, the relationship between job demands and job burnout was found to be positive. Same goes to job resources and work engagement. The remarkable finding of this study was the turnover intention become significant when flight attendants bear heavy workload under specific working environments that develop job burnout symptoms. It is worth noting that health problems mediated the relationship between job burnout and turnover intention. Chena & Chenab suggested that aviation companies shall intensively lift up job resources to boost work engagement and therefore potentially reducing the turnover intention among flight attendants.

Nonetheless, there are few JD-R research in non western countries with contradict outcomes from western perspective. One of it was Yeh (2015) who question how job demands and job resources may influence job satisfaction and job insecurity among employees in Taiwan, Japan and Korea (East Asia countries) who possessed stronger collectivism culture (team based cooperation) than individualism. The end result reveals

that job satisfaction among employees in East Asia countries do largely influenced by the collectivism culture. Firstly, employees tends to build relationship with kin, friends and people from same origin. Therefore when it involved work domain, this sort of relationalism prevail where they prioritizes team work, collaboration and achieve satisfaction. Secondly, Yeh found out that the non-financial aspects of job have greater influence towards job satisfaction than financial aspects. Lastly, job resources increases job satisfaction more than job demands decreases job satisfaction. Those findings are contradict to the individualism culture which prevail in western countries.

Another one is by Inoue *et al.*, (2013) who deployed JD-R model into 1,104 Japanese employees from a manufacturing company in Japan. Unexpectedly, they unveiled that job demands (i.e; decision latitude, psychological demands) may nurture work engagement. They described that when Japanese employees having greater decision latitude, they may take initiative to make themselves work pleasantly, participate more on decision making in order to expand their involvement and hence increase work commitment. Meantime, appropriate level of psychological demand may create a feeling to contribute more in the workplace which strengthen work engagement. All of this findings are inconsistent with JD-R model findings from western countries which do not expect such association between job demands and work engagement.

In Malaysia context, JD-R model is further receive expansion by integrating antecedent events. Idris, Dollard & Winefield (2011a) claimed that the integration of psychosocial safety climate (PSC) into JD-R model is only tested in Western context which lead them to propose that psychosocial safety climate (PSC) is a precursor event to job demands and job

resources that may influence work performance through job burnout and work engagement via health erosion and motivational pathway respectively. Using structural equation modelling to analyse 291 employees from Selangor, Malaysia, they found support for the expansion of JD-R model. They concluded that JD-R model is largely valid in Eastern countries.

In the similar attempt, JD-R model was applied to determine the effect of globalisation on employee psychological health and job satisfaction by Idris, Dollard & Winefield (2011b). Questionnaires were being disseminated to 308 employees in Selangor, Malaysia who are at their homes during the weekend and off-work days. The outcome provide evidence that globalization is the antecedent that alter job demands and resources which in turn affect job burnout and influences employees' job satisfaction respectively. Malaysian employees reported that they are expected to work hard (increase job demands) to cope with globalisation and indirectly increases job burnout. At the same time, globalisation reduces job resources relating to support and decision authority which in turn reduces job satisfaction. From the research, Idris, Dollard & Winefield deduced that JD-R framework is fit to be used in Eastern setting.

Lately, there is effort in proposing the concept of JD-R model in teaching field by Malaysian research namely Khan, Yusoff, & Khan (2014). Conceptually they build up the model based on a non-systematic literature review and they agreed that there is a complex multifold connection exist among the constructs. They highlighted that organization play important key in regulating burnout and work engagement. They shall proactively provide sufficient job resources to counterbalance the effect of job demands. Organization is

therefore encouraged to give trainings in dealing with job demands to hinder job burnout and furnish opportunities for optimal usage of job resources in lifting work engagement.

JD-R model has been modified across time and being applied to various occupations across countries to investigate the dimension of job burnout and work engagement as mediator that link job demands and job resources respectively to the organizational outcomes. Across literature, it is noted that there are only two investigations of boredom at workplace using JD-R theory by Reijseger *et al.*, (2013) and Van Wyk *et al.*, (2016). Reijseger *et al.*, investigation focuses on boredom at workplace as a different concepts of job burnout and work engagement that arises in due to the unchallenging and passive job where subsequently resultant job dissatisfaction. Meanwhile Van Wyk *et al.*, investigation emphasized that work underload is positively related to boredom and leading to poor work engagement and organizational commitment. Clearly, both studies recognised that existence of boredom at workplace when job is unchallenging and employees are underloaded. With such limited investigation, the present study aims to apply *health impairment and motivational process* to investigate the dimension of boredom in mediating job demands and job resources to job burnout and turnover intention respectively.

2.5.3 Previous study on boredom at workplace

At the heart of emotion, the experience of boredom influence affective and cognitive components which in turn affects behavioral (Russell, 2003) such as engaging in distractions rather than the tasks at hand (Reijseger *et al.*, 2013), lapse in attention (Cheyne *et al.*, 2006), daydreaming (Damrad-Frye & Laird, 1989; Fisher, 1998), slow passage of

time, and slow and monotonous speech (Johnstone & Scherer, 2000). The affective components refers to the experience of unpleasant and passiveness (Warr, 1990) while cognitive components refers to characteristic of the work which include lacking of challenge and stimuli (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975). Boredom at workplace is commonly seen as an personal affective state that are low in term of low arousal (Zuckerman, 1979), physiologically and psychologically (Mikulas & Vodanovich, 1993), unpleasant deactivated mode (Fisher, 1993), meaning (Barbalet, 2000) and lacking of value (Pekrun *et al.*, 2010) that reveals the status of current goals (Van Tilburg & Igou, 2012; Van Tilburg, Igou, & Sedikides, 2013) under inadequate stimulating working environment (Mikulas & Vodanovich, 1993). As per control value theory by Pekrun & Stephens (2010), boredom at workplace is classified as a emotional state of unpleasant and deactivated (refer Table 2.2).

Table 2.2: A Three-Dimensional Taxonomy of Achievement Emotion

Object focus	Pleasant		Unpleasant	
	Activating	Deactivating	Activating	Deactivating
Activity	Enjoyment	Relaxation	Anxiety Anger Frustration	Boredom
Outcome	Hope Joy Pride Gratitude	Relief Contentment	Anxiety Anger Shame	Hopelessness Sadness Disappointment

Recognizing the strong impact of boredom at workplace on employees and organization, researchers begin to probe the applicability of boredom across profession in various countries. Kass, Vodanovich & Callender (2001) starts off by investigating the relationship of job outcomes (i.e; satisfaction, absenteeism and tenure) with state (environment) and trait (individual) boredom respectively. 292 employees from a manufacturing plant in southeast United States were taken part in the study. Results uncovered the fact that high

job boredom and boredom proneness individuals obtain low job satisfaction. They are unable to get satisfaction through pay, promotion opportunities, work itself, supervision and co-workers. Moreover, high level of job boredom invigorate longer organizational tenure and greater absenteeism.

At the same region in the United States, military and undergraduate students were also being studied about implication of boredom towards their cognitive level. Wallace, Vodanovich, & Restino (2003) investigation reveal that boredom proneness is one of the predictor for cognitive failures. Meaning, students who tend to be bored are unable to attend classes attentively and incline to commit cognitively-based mistakes. The outcome deemed to be vital and useful for the industry in term of selection, placement and job design where not to hire individual with high boredom proneness for monotony and repetition jobs as it will increase mistakes or accidents.

Eddy, D'Abate & Thurston Jr (2010) conducted an investigation among 121 working adults who work eight hours per day with clear defined lunch hour from various background and organization in United State. They found out that respondents spend nearly five hours per week executing their personal activities while working where 90 per cent of time used to surf Internet, email, phone or chatting mainly because of boredom. This research conceptually allow Skowronski (2012) to suggest that employees may find ways to stimulated themselves (i.e; coping bahavior) when they are bored. Among the strategies used, it may have both harmful and helpful effects on organization.

Another interesting study (Watt & Hargis, 2010) analysed employees' boredom proneness against underemployment, perceived organizational support and job performance where 110 employees from healthcare industry in Southeastern United States were participated. They found that boredom prone employees have the perception of underemployment (i.e; under pay), possessed the mentality that their organization is less supportive and concern about their well being and lastly, under perform. Watt & Hargis (2010) emphasized that level of employees' boredom proneness is closely related to their perception on underemployment and organizational support. Simply, employees who perceived that they are underemployment and received lower support is more susceptible to boredom.

More than health and work related consequences, bored employees will misbehave at workplace. Sample of 211 employees range from education, finance, arts, healthcare, human resources, management and sales from North America were used to participate in Bruursema, Kessler & Spector (2011) study in exhibiting the linkage of job boredom and counterproductive work behaviour. They divulged that boredom proneness and job boredom propel various types of counterproductive work behaviour, for instance abuse, sabotage, withdrawal, theft and horseplay. In fact, boredom proneness moderated the relationship between job boredom and counterproductive work behaviour. Nevertheless, it is important to note that bored employees did not abuse colleagues. Most probably they believe that organization is the one to be blamed for allocating boring job instead colleagues.

In education field, Sohail *et al.*, (2012) manipulated 215 university members such as professors, assistant professors, associate professors and lecturers to seek the correlation

between demographic factors (i.e; age and gender) against boredom at workplace in Pakistan. Their findings disclosed that age is an important factor that contributed to boredom apart from working environment. They proposed that organization shall group them into different age groups and provide them appropriate tasks as they have different expectation towards themselves. In contrast, gender has no effect on boredom be it male or female have the same feelings towards their tasks where interesting tasks will make them motivated and vice versa. Recently, Reijseger *et al.*, (2013) made an interesting exploratory research among employees across health care industry, public administration, commercial services, education and information and communications technology in two large Dutch companies. The respondents are requested to fill up the Dutch Boredom Scale (DUBS) questionnaire online. The results indicate that boredom at workplace was negatively related with job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Meaning, job satisfaction and commitment will tickle as boredom at workplace gets intense. In addition, it also boost turnover intention.

In another similar attempt, Harju *et al.*, (2014) explored 87 workplaces in Finland aim to discover the association between boredom, health outcomes and attitudes. They applied DUBS to measure boredom. They unveil that male employees who are at the age of 36 and working in transportation, manufacturing arts, recreation and entertainment experiencing boredom the most. More than that, boredom multiply the possibility for turnover intention, early retirement intention, poor health, poor workability and stress symptoms. Harju *et al.*, (2014) concluded that boredom is an occurrence that bother a wide range industries and they have indicated boredom lead to negative end results concerning health and work-related.

2.6 Gaps in the literature

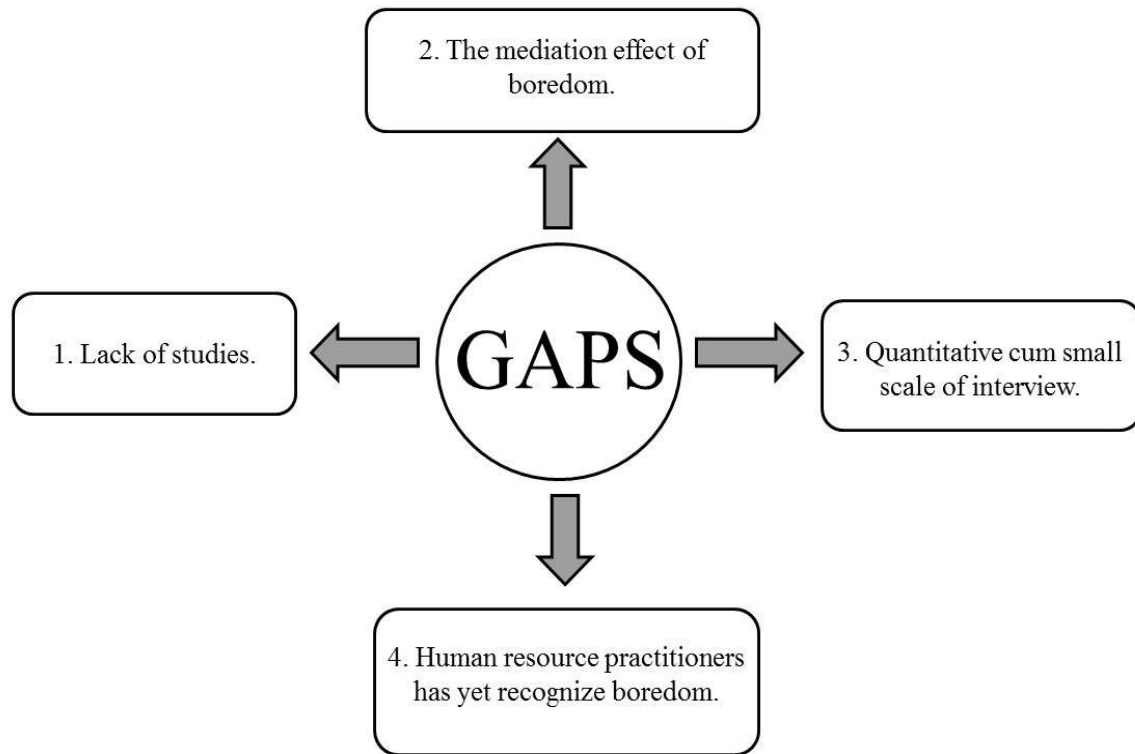


Figure 2.1: Summary of Gaps in the Literature

2.6.1 Lack of studies on boredom

After reviewing the literature pertaining to boredom at workplace as well as JD-R theory, four main gaps were identified as illustrated in Figure 2.1. First, realising that almost all studies on boredom at workplace were carried out in western-countries, this research moves the frontier to investigate boredom in an eastern country, namely, Malaysia. All previous studies on boredom at workplace had been done in western contexts (Watt & Hargis, 2010; LePera, 2011; Bruursema *et al.*, 2011; Sohail *et al.*, 2012; Reijseger *et al.*, 2013; Harju *et al.*, 2014; Mercer-Lynn *et al.*, 2014; Harju & Hakanen, 2015) such as United States, Pakistan, Netherlands and Germany. There are difficulties in allocating any

studies related to boredom at workplace within the eastern context specifically Malaysia, a collectivistic country with high power distance and normative culture (Hofstede, 2016). Therefore, it is reasonable to note that previous findings may reflect western values and opinions. Hence, this research is expected to bring about exceptional findings from an eastern country perspective.

2.6.2 The mediation effect of boredom in JD-R theory

Second, former western and eastern studies have been largely discussing about the impact of job demands and resources relating to negative work performance via job burnout. However in Malaysia, with the exception of Idris, Dollard, & Winefield (2011a; 2011b) and Khan, Yusoff & Khan (2014), there is limited studies using JD-R theory. Idris, Dollard, & Winefield (2011a; 2011b) both studies had focuses in ascertaining the precursor events to job demands and job resources namely psychosocial safety climate (PSC) and globalization respectively. Meanwhile Khan, Yusoff, & Khan (2014) had conceptually review JD-R theory through non systematic literature review to support that organization shall actively scrutinize job demands and job resources for positive organizational outcome. However, most of the studies remain using the default mediator namely job burnout and work engagement.

Meanwhile, boredom investigation using JD-R theory was initiated by Reijseger *et al.*, (2013) and Van Wyk *et al.*, (2016) at Netherland and South Africa. They attempted to seek the distinctive feature of boredom and the antecedents (job demands, job resource) and consequences (work engagement and organizational commitment) of boredom at

workplace respectively. Their research postulated that job demands and job resources are closely linked to the experience of boredom. At one hand, when there is too much to do, employees may get meaningless job as there is no ending towards what has to be done. On the other hand, when there is too little resources, it leaves the employees doing nothing at workplace which elevate the boredom experiences. At the end, it impacted the organization negatively. It gives an understanding that for boredom to take place, there are antecedents and consequence based on JD-R theory. As boredom is a negative wellbeing, it is believed that boredom connects job demands and resources to the negative organizational performance, in particular turnover intention. Thus, there is a theoretical gap in the aspect of antecedent and mediation to be filled in boredom investigation using JD-R theory. Motivated by that, this research intends to expand JD-R theory by introducing personality trait as antecedent to boredom at workplace and turnover intention as another consequence apart from job burnout. However, both scholars have not investigated the mediation effect of boredom.

2.6.3 Quantitative cum interview

Quantitative method are frequently used in former boredom investigations. Quantitative method seems to be more applicable because boredom is a hidden negative facade of normative behaviour that strike employees and they may have higher tendency of not admit to experience it when they are approached qualitatively (Harju, Hakanen, & Schaufeli, 2014). Although Podsakoff *et al.*, (2003) reported that there will be an issue of bias using questionnaire, the level of bias is less significant as compared to qualitative

method. Dutch Boredom Scale (DUBS) was used as the instrument for data collection as DUBS was validated and proven to be reliable instrument in Netherlands and South Africa. To the best knowledge of the author, there is no known attempt in investigating boredom via interview. Researcher believe that by integrating a small scale of interview, quantitative data can be further elaborated using the collected information from the interview as evidence to support findings. Mindful of this, boredom at workplace will be explored quantitatively cum with small scale of interview as part of data collection among Malaysian workforce using JD-R theory.

2.6.4 Boredom is not recognise by human resource practitioner

Boredom exists across occupation and experienced by most of the employees (Fisher, 1993). As boredom has not been heavily investigated, there are less practical suggestion offered to assist human resource practitioners in dealing with boredom. This explains why boredom was being labelled as “silent” contagious bacteria that kill an organization (Fisher, 1993). Even so, those suggestions are only applicable to the current employees. Nothing has been recommended in addressing boredom at the initial stage of employment such as recruitment and selection. In such circumstances, there is a need for this research to draw closer such gap in the way that practical solution could be proposed to identify boredom as early as possible among the potential employees.

2.7 Theoretical Framework

Figure 2.2 illustrates the theoretical framework for this research. In this present study, theoretical framework is developed based on Reijseger *et al.*, (2013) model which was supported by JD-R theory. The current framework identifies job demands, resources and personality as antecedents that give rise to negative wellbeing at workplace, boredom. The framework links boredom to negative outcomes, specifically turnover intention. Finally, boredom at workplace is also predicted to be mediator. In order to account for any confounding effects on the hypothesized relationships, gender, race, marital status, age, education level, academic position, salary and length of service as academicians are treated as control variables.

The selection of variables in this framework is based on the JD-R theory. This theory proposes that employees' wellbeing is determined by the level of job demands and job resources. Chronic job demands will drive employees to encounter job burnout through health impairment process while high level of job resources will lead employees to experience work engagement through motivational process. Following this theory, two antecedent variables are selected namely job demands and job resources. However, those construct covers work aspect only. In fact, Fisher (1993) and Mercer-Lynn, Bar & Eastwood (2014) emphasized that boredom occurs at workplace because of individual factor as well, specifically personality traits. Therefore, personality trait was included.

Boredom at workplace has been found negatively affecting organizations various countries especially turnover intention. In Malaysia context, there is no known boredom

investigation prior to this current research but the turnover intention is closely correlated to job stress, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and work family conflict. Boredom at workplace has yet come to the attention among Malaysian researchers. As per JD-R theory, negative wellbeing should be positively related to negative outcome.

The theoretical framework consists of fifteen main hypotheses. Hypotheses (H₁ – H₃) test the antecedents of boredom at workplace. The direct relationships between boredom at workplace and job burnout and turnover intention is tested by hypotheses H₄ and H₅. The mediator relationship of boredom at workplace against antecedents and turnover intention are tested through hypotheses (H₆) and the moderator effect of age on the relationship of boredom at workplace and turnover intention is tested through hypotheses (H₇). For analysis purposes, job demands, job resources and personality traits are treated as independent constructs. On the other hand, boredom at workplace, job burnout, and turnover intention is considered as dependent constructs.

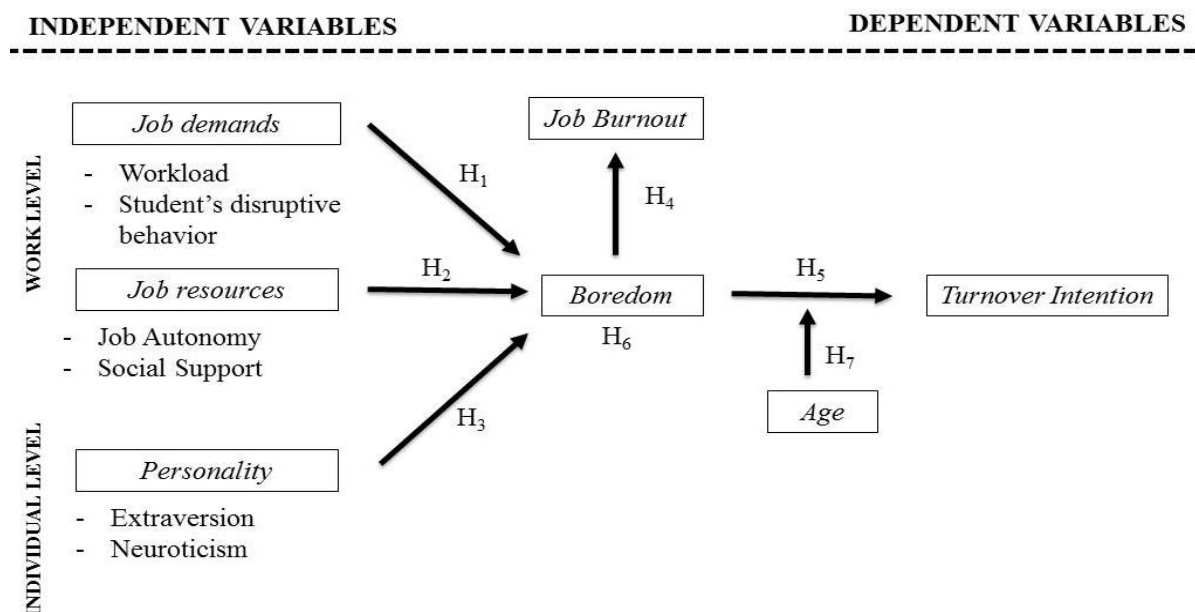


Figure 2.2: Theoretical Framework

2.8 Overview of the Functions of Job Demands, Job Resources and Personality Traits as Antecedents to predict Boredom

2.8.1 The Concept of Job Demands

Job demands are the physical and psychological effort invested by an individual in executing the physical, psychological, social or organisational aspect of the job (Demerouti *et al.*, 2001). In other words, it focuses on ‘getting things to be done’ (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) and the effort invested are associated with physiological and psychological cost (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004). In ordinary layman term, job demands are the physical and psychological energy invested by employee in executing a task. In order to tap physical and psychological aspect, current study uses workload and students disruptive behaviour.

a) Workload and Boredom

Workload is the amount of work that need to be done within a specific duration of time (Chen & Spector, 1992). Initially, academicians profession was associated with low stress occupation (Fisher, 1994), less workload and greater opportunities (Gillespie *et al.*, 2001). Academicians are assumed to work freely with flexible hours accompanied with less workload. However, such privillages no longer applicable. Via globalisation, knowledge differentiates countries and has led the growth of the knowledge-based economy (K-Economy). It also promotes the active move of the higher education to produce the “best

brain” to meet the market demand (Knight, 2002). With more expectation, academicians are now considered as a tough occupation as it is more demanding (Winefield *et al.*, 2003).

They are expected to do teaching, generate research, sourcing grant, publishing papers for conferences and journals, student consultation and supervision, and assist in administrative work such as exam invigilation, attending meeting, syllabus enhancement (Levin, 1991); (Jaschik, 2013). This is true among western countries such as England (Harrison, 1997), United States (Gmelch & Burns, 1994); (Smith, Anderson, & Lovrich, 1995); (Shuster & Finkelstein, 2006), United Kingdom (Philips *et al.*, 2007), Australia (Gmelch *et al.*, 1999); (Nobile & McCormick, 2007), New Zealand (Chalmers, 1998) as well as eastern countries such as Saudi Arabia (Jdaitawi *et al.*, 2014), Iran (Ziaei *et al.*, 2015), Sudan (Shikieri & Musa, 2012) and Malaysia (Ahsan, Abdullah, Fie, & Alam, 2009; Makhbul & Khairuddin, 2013; Mustapha & Wee, 2013; Hamjah *et al.*, 2015; Zakaria, Omar, & Asmawi, 2015). Literally, academicians around the globe are enduring heavy workload.

From past studies, there are two perceptions of workload against boredom namely higher workload and underload. Firstly, boredom is negatively related with higher workload (Daniels, 2000). Higher workload mean employees are entrusted by organization to do more within a specific time frame. In such activating environment, they may find their job to be reversed “passive jobs” (Karasek, 1979) and hence, avoiding boredom. Secondly, Van Wyk *et al.*, (2016) publicized that boredom is positively related to work underload. Work underload can be defined as having little things to do within a time frame (Larson, 2004) and such work does not match to the employees’ competence, skills and knowledge (Spector & Jex, 1998). As a result, employees may find the job unchallenging and thus,

experience boredom. Such findings are consistent with control value theory where it parks boredom as an achievement emotion arises from unpleasant and deactivating activity in due to the loss of control and value of the work (Pekrun, 2006). Therefore, as academicians received greater workload, they are stimulated instead of getting bored. Thus, based on the review of existing literature, the following hypothese is proposed:

H_{1a}: Academician workload is negatively associated to boredom.

b) Students Disruptive Behavior and Boredom

Students disruptive behavior is defined as repeated behavior with intention to interrupt the normal education process such as lecturing by the students (Ali & Gracey, 2013). Among the common disruptive behavior found are sleeping, talking, messaging, playing video games and cell phones in the class (Hubbell & Hubbell, 2010). According to Seidman (2005), academicians are good at their respective specialty but not in managing classroom. Academicians are found to be fear in making correction on disruptive students and tend to get involvement at surface level in class (Carbone, 1999). If they are over reacted, students may lose interest in the class (Johnson, 2012). At the end, knowledge is not being transferred to the students yet academicians are intellectually and emotionally drained (Chang & Davis, 2009).

Unfortunately, there is lacking of studies of boredom in this area. Chang (2009) argued that academicians' judgement about students behavior contribute significantly to the experience of emotions. The more they care about the students, the higher degree of relevance would be appraised resulting challenging job in solving the behavior issue among disruptive

students. In contrast, the less they care about the students, the lower degree of relevance appraised. Meaning, academicians tend to ignore disruptive students. Across time, academicians may find the job unchallenging as they are not able to create meaning out of their profession. Thus, experience boredom. Based on the limited literature, the following hypothese is proposed:

H_{1b}: Students disruptive behavior is negatively associated with boredom.

2.8.2 The Concept of Job Resources

Job resources possessed different entity from job demands. Job resources refers to the physical, psychological, social or organisational aspects of the job that functional in achieving work goals, reducing the impact of job demands and the associated physiological and psychological cost (Bakker *et al.*, 2005) and stimulate personal learning and motivational role in achieving work goals (Demerouti *et al.*, 2001). In ordinary layman term, job resources are the resources available in assisting employees to get their job done as per expected parallel with personal learning, growth, and goals achievement. In this present study, author believes that job autonomy and social support are the relevant resources that help academicians to learn and grow.

a) Job Autonomy and Boredom

Job autonomy is a job characteristic that measure “the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out” (Hackman & Lawler,

1971, p.265). Moreover, Ganster (1989) underlined that job autonomy help employees to make the job more rewarding and less threatening. Therefore, job autonomy enable employees to make decision in executing the work by utilizing their related skills to fulfill job demands without superior interference.

As employees are empowered, they possessed greater flexibility in deciding (Troyer, Mueller, & Osinsky, 2000) which leads to persistent investment of attention and efforts to derive best solution (Shalleva & Gilson, 2004) towards more complex and demanding job. Thus, such employees may find their job challenging and avoiding boredom. Contrally, employees without empowerment are followers that prefer simple, rigid and routinized jobs that potentially leading to boredom.

In this present study, job autonomy among academicians refer to the freedom in research, publication and academic responsibilities in which they have access for information from libraries, online database, research tools and facilities (Fish, 2008). Moreover, such empowerment promotes the creation of new knowledge. As a consequence, they are able to express and share their ideas and thoughts through researches and lectures. In this context, job autonomy can be described as providing academicians with opportunities to learn, grow and lead (Manz & Sims, 2001). In such circumstances, academicians may experience challenging job, thus impede boredom.

However, Bashir (2011) disclosed that some may dislike job autonomy as it requires more commitment, trust and responsibility to be deployed into the job with little support (Langfred, 2004). In such circumstances, academicians may experience unchallenging job,

thus boredom is experienced. Therefore, academicians with job autonomy are expected to have lower chances in encountering boredom. Thus, based on the review of existing literature, the following hypothese is proposed:

H_{2a}: Job autonomy is negatively associated with boredom.

b) Social Support and Boredom

Social support is regarded as the availability of helping relationship between colleagues (Leavy, 1983). Such relationship exist in term of encouragement towards job participation, guidance and attention (Rodriguez & Cohen, 1998). Practically, the occasion whereby two or more employees exchanging resources with the aim to help another employees who demanding support (Van Daalen, Willemsen, & Sanders, 2006) to improve performance without forsaking the availability of the other existing resources (Seiger & Wiese, 2009). Hence, social support is a positive relationship made available by co-workers or superiors (Christian, Garza, & Slaughter, 2011) in which generates positive effect in the supportive employees and increases the quality of work in the supported employees (Grzywacs & Marks, 2000; Wayne, Randel, & Stevens, 2006).

According to Fisher (1993), the feeling of bored started to arouse in employees when they get unfriendly and uncommunicative coworkers or superiors. In such social climate, employees are not supported pertaining their issues. Othman, Ahmad, & Ghazali (2015) found heavy workload and responsibilities had restricted coworkers or superiors from offering support among themselves. Due to lack of support, they may find their job unpleasant and unchallenging, and thus experience boredom (Reijseger *et al.*, 2013).

In this present study, social support refer to the availability of co-workers or superiors who are friendly and communicative in solving problems encountered by academicians. In this context, academicians are loaded with quantitative (i.e; researching, lecturing, marking, and recruiting) and qualitative (i.e; administrator, invigilator, and student consultant) workload. Hence, it is believed that academicians may experience lacking of support. Thus, based on the review of existing literature, the following hypothese is proposed:

H_{2b}: Social support is negatively associated to boredom.

2.8.3 The Concept of Personality Traits

Personality traits refer to the individual differences in the way of thinking, feeling and behave that commonly can be categorized under “Big Five” (Goldberg, 1990) which composing of the dimensions of neuroticism, extroversion, openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness. In ordinary layman term, personality traits are the individual characteristic that will determine his preference, way of thinking and wellbeing. In this present study, neuroticism and extroversion are the two distinct traits that can fully expressed the manifestation of boredom on employees at workplace.

a) Neuroticism and Boredom

Neuroticism is a negative personality trait with high stress sensitivity (Suls, 2001). Employees with high neuroticism are those who are associated with negative affect, inability to cope with stress, pressure and emotionally unstable (Costa & McCrae, 1992) while those with low level of neuroticism tends to behave positively in term of being more

engaged (Warr & Inceoglu, 2012), less bored (Hill & Perkins, 1985) and less burnout (Alarcon, Eschleman, & Bowling, 2009). In addition, Spector *et al.*, (2000) reported that individual with high neuroticism perceived challenging work as threatening and tends to view the world negatively. Such characteristic has predetermined that neuroticism are correlated with negative performance outcomes such as in psychological distress (Hart, Wearing, & Headey, 1995), job satisfaction (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002) and health impairment (Bakker *et al.*, 2010).

In this present study, neuroticism is referred to the tendency of an academician experiencing distress with negative affect personality. Due to low tolerance towards challenging job with negative affect, academician with neuroticism is most likely to encounter boredom at workplace. Accordingly;

H_{3a}: Academician with neuroticism is positively associated to boredom.

b) Extroversion and Boredom

Extroversion is a positive personality trait. Employees with high extroversion are those who are associated with positive affect, sociability, optimism and personal energy (Costa & McCrae, 1992). They tend to demonstrate high enthusiasm and most of the time, being active resulting greater tendency to experience positive emotions. In addition, extroverts perceived challenging work positively and rewarding in due to more favorable working conditions (Bakker *et al.*, 2010) coupled with energized and fun-loving characteristic (McCrae & Costa, 2003). Empirically, extroversion are linked to the positive performance outcomes such as job satisfaction (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002), organizational

commitment (Bakker *et al.*, 2010) and work engagement (Langelaan *et al.*, 2006). Thus, extrovert is less likely to experience burnout and boredom (Bakker *et al.*, 2006).

In this present study, extroversion is referred to the tendency of an academician experiencing positive emotion with positive affect personality. Due to the high acceptance of challenging job with positive characteristic, academician with extroversion is most unlikely to encounter boredom at workplace. Accordingly;

H_{3b}: Academician with extroversion is negatively associated to boredom.

2.9 Overview of the Functions of Job Burnout as Consequences related to Boredom

2.9.1 The Concept of Job Burnout

Job burnout is described as “....a psychological syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individual who work with other people in some capacity (Maslach, 1993)”. It is a series of causation syndrome initiated by emotional exhaustion as a result of overworking. Employees with high level of emotional depletion are expected to be psychologically drained because they are actively investing their emotional resources into the job without any act for recovery. As a result, depersonalization takes place. They tend to be isolated, detached, uncaring, and emotionally hardened towards clients, colleagues and organization (Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

From there onwards, personal achievement decreases. Employees no longer achieve job satisfaction due to the emotion exhaustion and strong development of depersonalization. In such environment, employee is unable to perform. The reduction of personal achievement symbolized the ineffectiveness and inefficiency of employee in fulfilling job responsibilities together with negative evaluation (Togia, 2005). Thus, in ordinary layman term, burnout is a natural negative syndrome among employees which inclusive of feeling exhausted, isolated and reduction of professional efficacy as a result of the inequality of job demands and job resources. Employees who fail to recover adequately from the syndrome may not be able to perform and therefore, it implies that organization perform poorly.

a) Boredom and Job Burnout

In this present study, boredom is an negative well-being arises from unpleasant and deactivating activity due to the loss of control and value in poor stimulating working environment (Pekrun, 2006). Meaning, as academicians failed to allocate value and loss their control over their profession, they are most likely to confront with boredom. Meanwhile, job burnout is a series of causation negative syndrome precipitated by the chronic job demands which lead employees to emotional exhausted, depersonalized and diminished personal achievement. Clearly, boredom and job burnout are both negative constructs and wellbeing at workplace respectively.

As far as the boredom literature is concern, there is single attempt by Reijseger *et al.*, (2013) who found both constructs to be positively interacted among each other. They

pointed that as boredom strike, employees are emotionally disturbed (unpleasant) and have low arousal (deactivated) with their work. This combination produces none stimulating working environment. Across time, boredom will continue to influence employees' negatively at workplace such as refusal to invest effort in their work. As boredom is a negative emotion, it is most likely to expect that employee will experience job burnout if the situation persists. Accordingly;

H4: Boredom among academicians is positively associated to job burnout.

2.10 Turnover Intention and Boredom

2.10.1 The Concept of Turnover Intention

Turnover intention is a behavior manifested by employees' with the intention to exit (Brigham, Castro, & Shepherd, 2007) or intention to leave (Noor & Maad, 2008). This particular behaviour occurs when employees' are having poor job satisfaction (Feng & Angeline, 2010; Yin-Fah *et al.*, 2010; Choong *et al.*, 2012; Hassan *et al.*, 2015) and organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Bergmann *et al.*, 2000; Lew, 2009; Yin-Fah *et al.*, 2010). In organization context, job satisfaction derived from employees' evaluation towards their job (Glinow & Von, 2008) in term of pay, supervision, co-workers, benefits, appreciation, promotion and organization's policies or procedures (Spector, 1997). Positive evaluation leads to satisfaction while negative leads to dissatisfaction.

Across cultures, the satisfied employees reported lower probability to leave (McCulloch & Turban, 2007; Yang, 2008; Duraisingam, Pidd, & Roche, 2009; Jiang, Baker, & Frazier, 2009). Meanwhile, organizational commitment derived from employees' evaluation towards their organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Positive evaluation creates committed employees and vice versa. Those committed are willing to invest effort such as creativeness and innovativeness (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) in getting their job done leading to more positive behavior and performance (Handy, 1976). Therefore, committed employees have lower turnover intention (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Bergmann *et al.*, 2000; James *et al.*, 2007).

a) Boredom and Turnover Intention

In this present study, boredom is regarded as a negative state of affection, cognition and behaviour illustrated by academicians due to deactivated and unpleasant job. As far as the boredom literature is concerned, (Reijseger *et al.*, 2013; Kass, Vodanovich, & Callender, 2001) found both constructs to be positively interacted. Boredom as a negative wellbeing (Whiteoak, 2014) are driving employees to perform negatively such as ill health (Ferguson, 1973; Caplan *et al.*, 1975; Smith *et al.*, 1981; Harju, Hakanen, & Schaufeli, 2014), job dissatisfaction (Kass *et al.*, 2001; Spector & Fox, 2010), poor job performance (Pekrun *et al.*, 2010; Watt & Hargis, 2010), high absenteeism (Melamed *et al.*, 1995; Kass, Vodanovich, & Callender, 2001; Wan, Downey, & Stough, 2014), and poor organizational commitment (Van Wyk *et al.*, 2016). As boredom is a negative well-being, it is most likely to expect that employee will experience turnover intention across time as they constantly performance negative outcomes. Accordingly;

H₅: Boredom among academicians is positively associated to turnover intention.

2.11 Overview of the Functions of Boredom at Workplace as Mediator

a) Workload, Boredom and Turnover Intention

The direct relationship of workload and job burnout had been long established in the literature among scholars around the globe such as Finland (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006), Netherlands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), Nigeria (Olorunsola, 2013), South Africa (Reddy & Poornima, 2012), Saudi Arabia (Jdaitawi, Al-Mutawa, Musallam, & Talafha, 2014), Japan (Kitaoka & Masuda, 2013; Nishimura *et al.*, 2014), Taiwan (Lin, 2013; Xiaoming *et al.*, 2014), China (Wu *et al.*, 2013; Wen *et al.*, 2016), Hong Kong (Siu, Yuen, & Cheung, 2012), Thailand (Chalatharawat, 2007), and Malaysia (Mukundan & Khandehroo, 2010; Mukundan & Ahour, 2011; Chen *et al.*, 2014).

Interestingly, Olorunsola (2013) pointed that employees will experience job burnout regardless how passionate and loved they are against their job because there will still be a moment of giving up throughout their career life span especially when they are encumbered with workload. Therefore, workload is positively correlated with turnover intention. However, past studies mainly emphasized job burnout as mediator in predicting performance outcomes. There is little evidence to investigate boredom as one of the possible construct that mediates the direct relationship of workload and turnover intention.

In this present study, boredom at workplace will be introduced as a mediator that mediates the positive direct relationship between workload and turnover intention. Based on control value theory, it is argued that as employees loss their ability to control and value their current activity, they will experience changes in term of well-being. At one hand, when academicians regard heavy workload as challenge, they may have lesser tendency to experience boredom and be most likely to engage with their job. On another hand, when academicians perceived underload as unchallenging, they are prone to experience boredom and possessed greater turnover intention. Accordingly:

H_{6a}: Boredom at workplace mediates the relationship between academicians workload and turnover intention.

b) Students disruptive behavior, Boredom and Turnover Intention

Academicians are students friend, protector, mentor, disciplinarian and gatekeeper in the pathway to success in academia (Davis, 2001). In teaching, academicians are required to invest their intellectual and emotional resources (Day *et al.*, 2007). Intellectual refers to academicians' expertise while emotional refers to the closeness and intimacy with students which lead academicians to many pleasant and unpleasant experiences range from joy to rage (Liljestrom, Roulston, & deMarrais, 2007). Academicians are expected to juggle well in order to impart knowledge to the students effectively. However, due to the complexity of the work nature, teaching is known as emotional drain profession rather than intellectual (Sutton, 2007).

The root for emotional drain is due to student disruptive behaviour. It is a negative job demand that require psychologically effort to be invested by academicians onto students. Couple with heavy workload, academicians may prefer to care less about their students and possessed lower degree of relevance. At certain point, the job turns ease and unchallenging as they are not able to create meaning which ultimately leading to leave the job. Based on the limited literature, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H_{6b}: Boredom at workplace mediates the relationship between students disruptive behavior and turnover intention.

c) Job Autonomy, Boredom and Turnover Intention

Job autonomy has probably received the most attention (Ford & Kleiner, 1987) and frequently associated as determinant for intrinsic motivation (Hackman & Oldham, 1975) that significantly related to work engagement (Demerouti *et al.*, 2001a). According to Meyer (1987), job autonomy is a weapon to minimize employees' negative wellbeing. As employees are empowered, it engender greater responsibility and trust in executing work which allow employees to learn, grow and lead (Manz & Sims, 2001) through challenging task and flee from boredom. This was largely proven by former investigation which found job autonomy to be positively associated with job performance (Marchese & Ryan, 2001; Cekmecelioglu & Günsel, 2011) which ultimately lead employees to engage to their work (Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Xanthopoulou *et al.*, 2007; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Lin *et al.*, 2009; Buys & Rothmann, 2010; Nahrgang, Morgeson, & Hofmann, 2011; SheeMun *et al.*, 2013; Gozukaraa & Simsek, 2015) resulting lower turnover intention.

Yet, there are still former investigations that reveal that job autonomy to be negatively associated with job performance. Some employees prefer to be followers (Bashir, 2011) instead of being authorized as it requires more commitment, trust and responsibility to be deployed into the job with little support (Langfred, 2004). Meaning, they prefer simple, rigid and routinized jobs that potentially increasing the occurrence of boredom at workplace.

However, JD-R past studies mainly emphasized work engagement as mediator that leads to positive work outcome. There is little evidence to investigate boredom as one of the possible construct that mediates the direct relationship of job autonomy and turnover intention. In this present study, boredom at workplace will be introduced as a mediator that mediates the positive direct relationship between job autonomy and turnover intention. As per accordance to Guglielmi *et al.*, (2013), boredom mediates low learning opportunities to general dysphoria and job satisfaction.

On the positive side, job autonomy increases learning opportunities and promote employees' enthusiasm and motivation to invest effort in getting their work done. Due to that, employees are hindering boredom at workplace and receive job satisfaction which may minimize turnover intention. While negative side, employees may view job autonomy as "extra work" which increase their responsibilities and commitment which eventually reduce their learning opportunities making the job unchallenging and bored. Therefore, employees receive greater job dissatisfaction. In such circumstance, initiate turnover intention. Accordingly:

H_{6c}: Boredom at workplace mediates the relationship between academicians' job autonomy and turnover intention.

d) Social Support, Boredom and Turnover Intention

Social support is an important element of job resources and found to be crucial determinant for employees' turnover intention. Whenever employees are having strong social support, they are eager to work and may find their work interesting instead of getting bored which explains the well establishment of direct relationship between social support and work engagement in various occupations across countries such as Netherlands (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), Finland (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006), Greece (Xanthopoulou *et al.*, 2009), South Africa (Buys & Rothmann, 2010); (Rothmann & Jordaan, 2006), Turkey (Gozukaraa & Simsek, 2015), Jordan (Alzyoud, Othman, & Isa, 2015), China (Li *et al.* , 2014), Japan (Inoue *et al.*, 2013), Taiwan (Wu *et al.*, 2013), and Malaysia (Othman, Ahmad, & Ghazali, 2015).

Emprically, they found social support promote work engagement and lowered turnover intention. Interestingly, Othman, Ahmad & Ghazali (2015) found there is no relationship between co-worker support and work engagement in due to the complicated workload resultant restriction in offering support among Malaysian workforce.

However, past studies mainly focuses on the direct relationship of the social support and work engagement. There is little evidence to investigate boredom as one of the possible mediator. In this present study, boredom at workplace was introduced as a mediator that

mediates the relationship between social support and turnover intention. As the academicians are overloaded, it is possible that they may have poor social support. Under such circumstance, academicians who need support are most likely to be demotivated and get bored easily as they are working alone without support. Across time, it may initiate turnover intention.

On other hand, greater social support generate challenging task in which motivate academicians to progress and invest effort by seeking assistance from co-workers or superiors. Across time, they are motivated and engaged to the work and therefore, lowered turnover intention. Thus, based on the review of existing literature, the following hypothese is proposed:

H_{6d}: Boredom at workplace mediates the relationship between academicians social support and turnover intention.

e) Neuroticism, Boredom and Turnover Intention

Past studies had documented employees with neuroticism are closely related to negative outcome such as psychological distress (Hart, Wearing, & Headey, 1995), job dissatisfaction (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002) and health impairment (Bakker *et al.*, 2010). In fact, Burisch (2002), De Vries & Van Heck (2002) and Langelaan *et al.*, (2006) reported neuroticism is positively related to burnout. Such findings deduced that neuroticism personality are more susceptible to boredom at workplace as it is a negative well-being.

According to Pekrun (2006), well-being is a response shown by employees after appraising an event and situation in term of control and value. Employee with neuroticism personality prefers to interpret events negatively and have lower tolerance towards challenging event (Spector *et al.*, 2000). Hence, academicians with such personality is most likely experiencing boredom at workplace as compare to others. Across time, initiate turnover intention. Accordingly, the following hypothese is proposed:

H_{6e}: Boredom at workplace mediates the relationship between academicians neuroticism personality and turnover intention.

f) Extroversion, Boredom and Turnover Intention

Past studies had documented employees with extroversion are closely related to positive outcome such as job satisfaction (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002) and organizational commitment (Bakker *et al.*, 2010). In fact, Langelaan *et al.*, (2006) reported extroversion is positively related to work engagement (Brief & Weiss, 2002). Such findings inferred that extroversion personality are less susceptible to boredom at workplace.

According to Pekrun (2006), well-being is a response shown by employees after appraising an event and situation in term of control and value. Employee with extroversion personality are positive, energized, active and fun-loving (McCrae & Costa, 2003). It nurtures optimal positive wellbeing (Keyes, Shmotkin, & Ryff, 2002) in dealing with challenging task. Due to such personality, boredom is most unlikely to occur. This is supported by O'Hanlon (1981) who found extroverts have a lower level of boredom at workplace as compared to introvert. Across time, employees are more enthused and

motivated. It lowered turnover intention. Accordingly, the following hypothes is proposed:

H_{6f}: Boredom at workplace mediates the relationship between academicians extroversion personality and turnover intention.

2.12 Overview of the Functions of Age as Moderator

There can be many reasons for an employee to have turnover intention. According to Foreman (2009), one of it was individual factors. Former studies provide empirical evidences to support the existence of the relationship between demographic factor and turnover intention. In specific, it was found that age is determinant factor on turnover intention (Emiroglu, Akova, & Tanriverdi, 2015). Some revealed that age and turnover intention were negatively associated (Carbery *et al.*, 2003; Karatepe *et al.*, 2006; Kim & Jogaratnam, 2010). Meaning, younger employees have greater turnover intention. According to McShane & VonGlinow (2000), these young employees are in the range of thirty five years old and below. Younger employees are more collaborative, educated, more skillful in term of technology and more entrepreneurial which increase their mobility (Burke, 1994). They are also more comfortable with psychological contract of employment as compared to the older employees (Ferres, Traveglione, & Firms, 2002). In addition, they have different goal orientations in life (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004) such as seeking for greater pay and promotion to be successful. Younger employees strive for growth while middle-aged and older employees strive for family and longer-standing relationship. This is supported by Choudhury & Gupta (2011) where they pointed that age possessed different impact in between job satisfaction and pay satisfaction against turnover intention.

Those employees below the age of 25 put greater emphasis on job satisfaction as the determinant for turnover intention while those above the age of 25, their turnover intention is driven by pay satisfaction.

In another perspective, turnover intention is generally low among the older employees as they have lower job opportunities (Wren, Berkowitz, & Grant, 2014), possessed stonger organizational commitment (Eberhardt, Pooyan, & Moser, 1995), presumed to decrease in work performance, learning ability and increased health problems (von Hippel, Kalokerinos, & Henry, 2013) and experienced age-related psychosocial changes (Ng & Feldman, 2007). These explain why older employees choose to remain in the current organization. In term of well-being regulation, it was found that older employees are better in managing well-being (Charles & Carstensen, 2007). They hold high level of positive affect and therefore assumed to cope better in dealing with unpleasant and deactivated working situations.

The outcome of research among scholars on age as determinant for turnover intention is conclusive where younger employees have greater turnover intention (Wren, Berkowitz, & Grant, 2014). As boredom is not broadly investigated, the factor of age in influencing their turnover intention remains debatable. Does the level of boredom is affected by age which encourage employees to quit the job? In this research, it is believe that younger employees may have greater productivity with the help of technology. At the same time, it makes them over qualified to certain jobs especially related to the repeatable task. In that context, productivity becomes stagnant, at the same time increases the boredom experience at workplace. This social situation may results greater turnover intention among younger

employees as they constantly seeking stimuli to stay engaged and motivated towards their job. Motivated by that, the demographic factor of age captured in this present study is assumed would interact significantly as moderator with boredom in predicting turnover intention. The arguments lead to the hypothesis below:

H₇: Age moderate the relationship between boredom at workplace and turnover intention such that the relationship is weaker for older academicians.

2.13 Summary of Hypothesis Development

The following part lists all the hypotheses that have been developed for the present study:

H _{1a}	: Academician workload is negatively associated to boredom.
H _{1b}	: Students' disruptive behavior is negatively associated with boredom.
H _{2a}	: Job autonomy is negatively associated with boredom.
H _{2b}	: Social support is negatively associated to boredom.
H _{3a}	: Academician with neuroticism trait is positively associated to boredom.
H _{3b}	: Academician with extroversion trait is negatively associated to boredom.
H ₄	: Boredom among academician is positively associated to job burnout.
H ₅	: Boredom among academician is positively associated to turnover intention.
H _{6a}	: Boredom at workplace mediates the relationship between academicians workload and turnover intention.
H _{6b}	: Boredom at workplace mediates the relationship between students disruptive behavior and turnover intention.
H _{6c}	: Boredom at workplace mediates the relationship between academicians' job autonomy and turnover intention.
H _{6d}	: Boredom at workplace mediates the relationship between academicians social support and turnover intention.
H _{6e}	: Boredom at workplace mediates the relationship between academicians neuroticism personality and turnover intention.
H _{6f}	: Boredom at workplace mediates the relationship between academicians extroversion personality and turnover intention.
H ₇	: Age moderate the relationship between boredom at workplace and turnover intention such that the relationship is weaker for older/senior academicians.

2.14 Chapter Summary

Based on the review of literature, several gaps were identified in the field of boredom at workplace as per Figure 2.1. Applying JD-R and control value theory, this proposal is carried out with the aim to fill the gaps and seeks to make a significant contribution to the literature coupled with detailed explanation of the theoretical framework and development of hypotheses.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the methodology used in this research. This chapter is divided into eleven major sections. The chapter begins with the explanation of research paradigms. Following this section, a description on the research process is presented. Next section, details out explanation on research design employed in this research, followed by a description of the process used to develop the survey questionnaire. Section five describes the items in the questionnaire with measurement scale. The purpose of having a pilot study is explained in section six. Further, the next two sections provide explanation regarding the sampling frame, sample size and the justification of the selected sample. Section ten describes the data collection procedure while the following section elaborates the technique used in data analysis. The chapter ends with a summary.

3.2 Research Paradigm

Research is a systematic investigation initiated by problems or knowledge gaps (Burns, 1997). It is therefore, encourage researchers to conduct investigation which has to be guided by a research paradigm. A research paradigm is a set of theoretical framework plotted by researchers (assumptions) that influences the way knowledge is being studied and interpreted (Mertens, 2005). According to Burrell & Morgan (2005, p.3), it covers ontology, epistemology, human nature and methodology assumptions (see Figure 3.1).

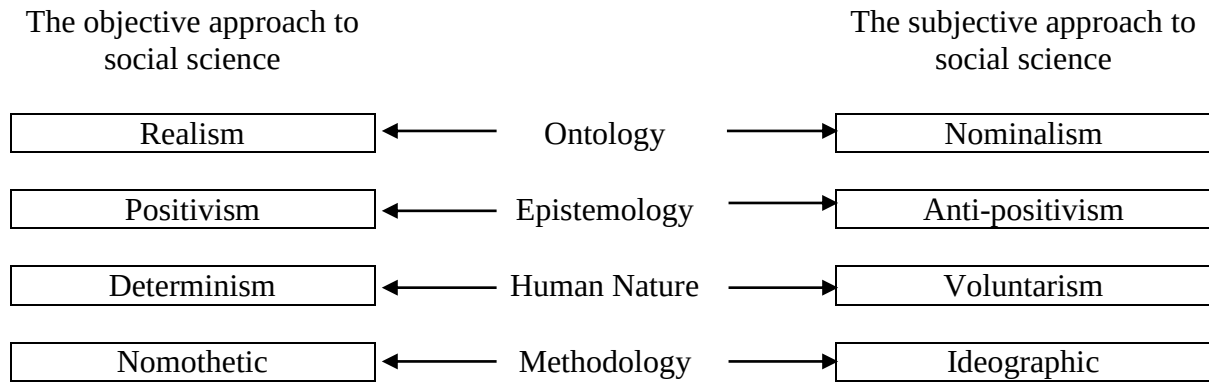


Figure 3.1: A Scheme for Analysing Assumptions About the Nature of Social Science
Source: Burrell & Morgan, (2005, p.3)

3.2.1 Ontology

The first assumption of a research is ontology assumption. Ontology is defined as a philosophy about the reality that deals with the question of “what is the nature of reality?” (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). According to Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill (2003), there are two types nature of reality (realism) namely objectivism and subjectivism. Reality that exists in a single truth and could be quantitatively investigated are categorised as objectivism while reality exist in more than a single truth and could be explained through qualitative investigation falls under subjectivism. The classification of reality is important in determining the direction of research, either knowledge contribution or problem solving which in line with question of “how things really are” and “how things really work” (Guba & Lincoln 1994, p.108).

In this present study, the focal point of investigation is whether the relationship of boredom at workplace and turnover intention really exists (how things really are) and how does it occur (how things really work). Accordingly, the purpose of this study is to find the nature of the relationship in answering the basic ontological questions of “what is the nature of

reality?’. The researcher treated the reality of the boredom and turnover intention relationship to exist in a single truth. The previous findings with regards to the issue of boredom at workplace allow prediction instead of constructing new findings. In certain circumstances, they are inconclusive and remain debatable for knowledge contribution. Moreover, the occurrence of boredom at workplace is independent to social actors. Therefore, researcher investigated the boredom phenomenon from the objective point of view.

3.2.2 Epistemology

The second assumption of a research is epistemology. It is defined as the grounds of knowledge on the way one understands and communicates the knowledge as human being (Burrell & Morgan, 2005). Further to their opinions, it’s about how one can sort out knowledge to be true or false. If it is false, it prompts more investigation to be carried out in various ways to discover underlying meaning of a phenomenon and vice versa. Burrell & Morgan (2005) classified knowledge whether it is hard, real and capable of being transmitted in tangible form or it is softer, more subjective, spiritual or even transcendental kind, based on experience and insight of a unique and essentially personal nature.

In relation to present research, JD-R theory provides the theoretical base to view the relationship of boredom at workplace and turnover intention. JD-R theory had been largely used in various cultures and organizational settings, particularly in predicting employees’ performance outcomes via positive and negative well-being. Consequently, a great volume of studies had been generated and it is universally accepted. A research supported with

theory gives a true picture of the phenomenon instead of individual perception since it had been rigorously tested by many researchers. Based on this ground, this research attempted to investigate boredom from the antecedents to consequences in a single model via JD-R theory. In researcher's opinion, boredom is governed by universal laws and not personal, hence objective ontology prevailed. Therefore, epistemologically the current research is based of positivism where it is guided by a theory.

3.2.3 Human Nature

The third assumption of a research is human nature. In accordance to Burrell & Morgan (2005), they classified human nature as the relationship of human beings with their environments. In social science, human beings had been the subject and the object in any interaction with their environment. The way how researcher view the human nature contribute significantly towards the strategy and methods used for the investigation. Human beings interacted with their environments in a voluntarism or deterministic fashion. The determinism refers to men that are under controlled by the environment while voluntarism refers to man that act as a controller (autonomous and free willed) to the environment.

In this current study, the human nature is set along with determinism view. Reasoning behind is the degree of boredom experience among academicians is completely determined by the product of the environment they engaged with. Positive environment engender positive outcomes and vice versa. Clearly in boredom, academicians are being controlled instead of controlling the environment. The greater boredom experiences by academicians,

the higher possibility of negative outcomes could be expected. Therefore, the human nature for current research is determinism.

3.2.4 Methodology

The fourth assumption of a research is methodology assumption. The previous three assumptions have direct implications on methodology. Each assumption plays important role in the attempt to investigate and obtain new knowledge about social world. As per Figure 3.1, there are two types of methodology assumptions known as ideographic and nomothetic. For ideographic, it is a methodology whereby it generates full descriptions of a phenomenon as it uses less structured method such as interviews while nomothetic methodology produces a generalized understanding of a phenomenon via highly structured methods such as questionnaires (Crowther & Lancaster, 2009).

Burrell & Morgan (2005) mentioned it is important to analyse how researchers' viewed the phenomenon against the social world that he or she find himself in. Do they viewed it as being hard, real and objective in reality or are they soft, personal and subjective in reality? If researchers stress on the importance of subjective experience, then the search of the phenomenon shall involved different issues and approaches to understand what is unique about the phenomenon rather than what is general and universal. In relation to the present research, nomothetic methodology is applied.

3.3 Research Process

Generally, the heart of this research is centred on boredom at workplace illustrated using JD-R theory. Scientific based investigations are deployed to study this issue which kicks off with problem statements, hypothesis, research design, measurement, data collection, data analysis and generalization as per Figure 3.1. According to Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias (1992), such scientific based investigation allows theory to be improvised as they are linked by reciprocal causation across time.

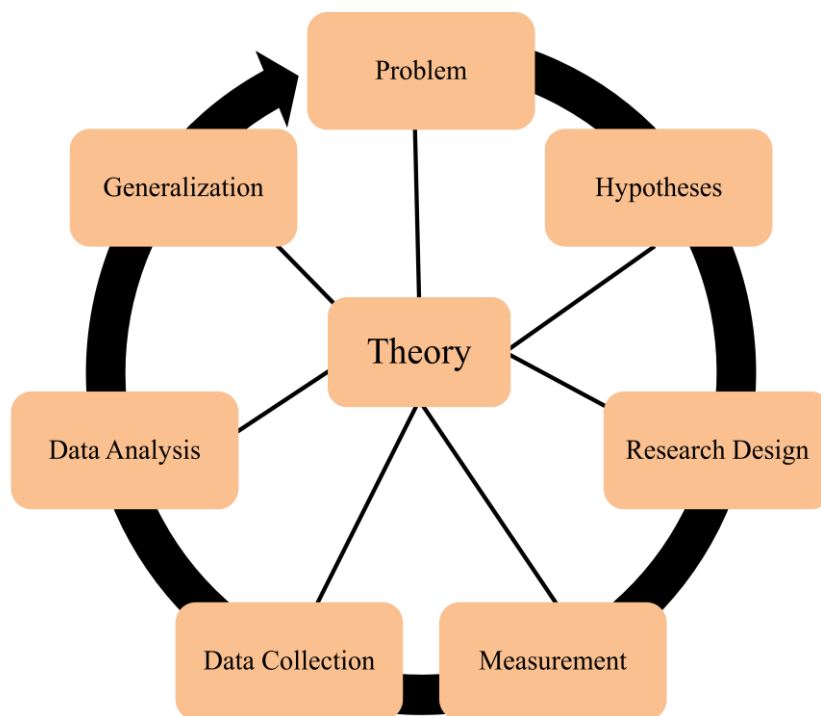


Figure 3.2: The Main Stages of the Research Process

Source: Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias (1992)

The whole investigation process started by reviewing the related journals, researches, reports and books on boredom at workplace which available at Chapter Two. This process is important for researchers to identify the problems arise of boredom as well to develop research questions listed in Chapter 1.

Literature review alone is insufficient to support the investigation. A good investigation shall be backed with relevant theories which act as a foundation to provide a feasible theoretical framework and relevant hypotheses in the study which is made available in Chapter Two. In order to execute the investigation, appropriate research design must be employed. Research design either quantitative or qualitative always begins by detailed analysis of the research paradigm with references to the past studies as well as the suitability of the method in capturing boredom.

Upon decision made on research paradigm, the measurement instrument is developed. In the measurement phase, questionnaire was adapted from past studies. Pre-test was carried out to check on the suitability and the understanding level of the items in the questionnaire. The result reflects the necessary adjustments to be made in the questionnaire. After revision, the finalised instrument was used for data collection. In data analysis stage, it involved two stages namely preliminary data analysis and Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS Process Macro). Preliminary data analysis were used to get the overall view of the respondents' demographic while SPSS Process to prove the relationship as per hypothesized. Such statistical analyses are illustrated in Chapter Four. Lastly, the thesis ended with findings and discussions. All justifications of related findings were explained in Chapter Five together with former findings as well as to the relevant theories that is against the existing results.

3.4 Research Design

Research design is a framework or blueprint guidelines for data to be collected, measured and analysed in providing meaningful findings. In this present study, a cross-sectional sample survey field study was employed. There are few advantages using field study, Firstly, this approach enables the researcher to gather a sizeable amount of information from a relatively large sample (Kerlinger, 1992). Secondly, this approach could maximize the representative sampling of population units studied and thus help to improve the generalised ability of the results (Scandura & Williams., 2000). Finally, literature suggests that information obtained in sample survey research is often very accurate, because the instrument is designed specifically to address the research questions (Slater, 1995).

3.4.1 Procedure of Data Collection

Investigating respondents on their tendency to be bored at workplace, their job demands, job resources, and disclosing their job burnout and work engagement are issues that most likely to be sensitive for respondents. To certain extend, boredom is a hidden negative facade of normative behaviour that strike employees and they may not admit experiencing it (Harju, Hakanen, & Schaufeli, 2014). As a result, applying survey methodology was found to be the most appropriate method.

Data collected from survey is considered as an accurate assessment on sample where the result could be generalized to represent the population (Creswell, 1994). Besides, a survey is quick, inexpensive and efficient to be administered in a large sample size (Hair, Bush, &

Ortinau., 2003; Sekaran, 2003; Zikmund, 1994). Finally, a survey is suitable when asking about respondents' thoughts, opinions and feelings (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1997) as well as collecting data relating to beliefs, attitudes and motives (Burns & Bush., 2000).

3.4.2 Measurement

Combinations of existing validated measurements based on the extensive review of literatures were used to develop the instrument for this research. The selected measurements were then tailored slightly to accommodate the sample of this research. This is a common approach used in developing a survey instrument as it would bring two major advantages such as the existing instruments have already been assessed for validity and reliability and also by using the existing instruments, it enables comparison to be made between the new results with the previous results from other studies (Kitchenham & Pfleeger, 2002).

The items in questionnaire are modified of past questionnaire. It were designed to be simple, straight forward in term of the sequence and wording and understandable using high school level language (Frazer & Lawley, 2000). The important questions are placed upfront than the less important questions (demographic) to enable respondents to concentrate to the key elements of this research (Alreck & Settle, 1995). The instrument used in pre-test was to detect any ambiguity or unclear words for further correction before officially distributed to the targeted respondents. This process also could help in improving validity and reliability of the questionnaire (Frazer & Lawley, 2000). On top of that, the

questionnaire was designed with easy to follow instructions in order to increase response rate (Babbie, 1990) and to minimise measurement error (Sanchez, 1992).

a) Constructs

The development of constructs in the instrument is based on theoretical guidance from previous literatures. It were used as references in making the final selection of items that best meet the domain of the specific construct as defined in this research. For example, job demands of academicians were represented by workload and student disruptive behaviour. Such items were chosen because it fits the definition of job demands where it covers physical and mental effort in executing their role in the PHEIs. Meanwhile, job resources were represented by social support and job autonomy in which those resources were made available in any workplace environment. In addition, the personality trait of extroversion and neuroticism were chosen because it is the most relevant and distinctive traits to the subject matter of current study, boredom at workplace. Job burnout was represented by emotional exhaustion only because burned-out individuals distance themselves emotionally and cognitively from their work activities (Bakker & Costac, 2014). These characteristics are closely related to the experience of boredom at workplace.

As there were many scholars who developed their own unique items to measure a construct, present study used the instrument that had been validated. Validation refers to the ability to reach the minimum acceptable reliability score. According to Fraenkel & Wallen (1993), items that had Cronbach Alpha value nearer to +1 is more reliable. Moreover, items have to show the positive construct validity (convergent validity) and measured using most

optimum measurement ratio. According to Baron & Kenny (1986), it shall be 5 items per construct. In this present study, all the items fulfilled those requirements except for boredom at workplace and job burnout with 8 and 9 items respectively. Table 3.1 is the summary of the adopted and adapted items used to measure constructs. A simple modification was made on the items on social support by replacing the terms of “Dean” to suit the present study as “My supervisor”. The questionnaire was then validated in the pre-test.

Table 3.1: Summary of Items in Questionnaire

Construct	Adopted / Adapted from:	Scale
Boredom	8 items, Reijseger <i>et al.</i> , (2013)	Never (1) to always (7)
Turnover Intention	5 items, (Wayne, Liden, & Shore, 1997)	
Job Burnout	9 items, Maslach burnout inventory (1986)	
Personality Traits		
- Neuroticism	5 items, John & Srivastava (1999)	Strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5)
- Extroversion	5 items, John & Srivastava (1999)	
Job Demands		
- Workload	5 items, Gillespie <i>et al.</i> , (2001) and Houston, Meyer & Paewai, (2006)	Strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5)
- Students' disruptive behaviour	5 items, Kyriacou & Sutcliffe, (1978)	
Job Resources		
- Job Autonomy	5 items, Karasek (1985)	
- Social Support	5 items, Karasek (1985)	

Table 3.2: Social Support

Construct	Original Version	Adapted Version
Job Resources		
- Social Support	1. My Dean is concerned about the welfare of those under them. 2. My Dean pays attention to what I am saying. 3. My Dean is helpful in getting the job done. 4. My Dean is successful in getting people to work together. 5. People I work with are competent in doing their jobs. 6. People I work with take a personal interest in me. 7. People I work with are friendly. 8. When needed, my colleagues will help me.	1. My superior is concerned about the welfare of those under them. 2. My superior pays attention to what I am saying. 3. My superior is helpful in getting the job done. 4. My superior is successful in getting people to work together. 5. My colleagues are friendly.

b) Measurement Scale - Likert Scale

Constructs were measured using Likert scales. The Likert type scale is a common approach used to measure a wide variety of latent constructs (Kent, 2001). In this present study, there are two rating scale used namely seven-point and five-point scale. Seven-point was used to overcome the central tendency errors (Cooper & Schindler, 2003) which commonly occur among respondents especially in the Asian countries who ended up ranked their priority in the neutrality dimension (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1997). According to them, neutrality is the inability of respondents to reflect their actual response and ought to choose the middle respond to ease them in completing the questionnaire. Such feedback does not help researcher in seeking the new findings but perhaps meaningless research. As more central tendency errors are found in a research, the results are less reliable. Thus, by using seven point scale, the middle response namely *neutral* or *neither agree nor disagree* was excluded.

In addition, present study also used five-point scale. As questionnaire was developed via adapted and adopted method from previous studies, thus, certain scale had received psychometric test on its reliability in measuring certain constructs. Those with strong Cronbach's alpha coefficient were remained. For instance, boredom at workplace was assessed using a scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always) in which Reijseger *et al.*, (2013) reported to be 0.80. Moreover, both scales were placed in an alternate way. This is to minimize the common method variance issue through instrument design (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003). Lastly, each construct was represented with numerous items to ensure a comprehensive evaluation.

c) Questionnaire Design

Questionnaire is a research instrument consisting of a series of questions with related constructs for the purpose of gathering information from respondents through scaling. Formally, it is defined as ‘a reformulated written set of questions to which respondents record their answers usually, within rather closely defined alternatives’ (Sekaran, 2003, p.233). In this present study, questionnaire was deployed as an instrument for data collection. This method has been an effective means of gathering data from large samples (McCelland, 1994) and could be considered as the most common method applied in collecting data (Clarke, 1999).

The questionnaire comprises of four sections. The first three sections consist of items relating to the constructs while the last part consists of demographic questions. It was anticipated that each respondent would require about 20 minutes in completing the questionnaire. Following is a detailed discussion of each section.

Section A: This section includes 20 statements about respondents’ job demands and resources at workplace.

Section B: This section includes 22 statements about respondents’ experience and how they feel about their workplace inclusive boredom at workplace and turnover intention.

Section C: This section includes 10 statements about respondents’ personality. These phrases reflected the personality of neuroticism and extroversion.

Section D: This section contains ten questions asking respondents about their gender, age, ethnicity, marital status, highest education qualification, academic position, salary, length of service as academicians, length of service in current organization and self-generated identification codes.

A cover letter containing ethics approval, purpose of the study and researcher contact information was included on the front page of the instrument. A covering letter is essential as it is the only opportunity to anticipate and answer respondents' questions and it helps to improve the response rate (Dillman, 2007; Singleton & Straits., 2005; Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias., 1992). The covering letter was personalised by having a hand-signed signature of the researcher and an appeal to the respondents by highlighting the importance of their participation in this research and the assurance of anonymity. Respondent participation is completely voluntarily. Further, in exchange for their participation, a summary of the findings were sent to them upon their request. These were done with the aim to induce the response rate (Church, 1993).

d) Population

The population of this research is drawn from MOHE official directory for private higher education institutions (PHEIs) in Malaysia regardless of the status. Based on the statistical data provided, the total numbers of academicians are 33, 576 (MOHE, 2014). Table 3.10 shows the total number of academicians available among PHEIs in Malaysia.

Table 3.3: Total Number of Academicians in Malaysian PHEIs

Status	Number of academic staffs
PHEIs With University Status	17,893
PHEIs With University Status (Branch Campus Of Foreign University)	335
PHEIs With University College Status	3,565
PHEIs With College Status	11,783
Total	33,576

Source: (MOHE, 2014)

*PHEIs – Private Higher Education Institutions

The scope of this study is PHEIs in Sarawak. This is justified with the introduction of Sarawak Corridor of Renewable Energy (SCORE) development plan, human capital become vital to support the creation of 1.6 million new job in Sarawak with expectation of fivefold growth in term of gross domestic product (GDP) to RM118 billion by year 2030 (SCORE, 2016). PHEIs in Sarawak are expected to respond to the new vacancies by producing competent and knowledgeable human capital by the academicians. Hence, any aspect which could jeopardise PHEIs such as the turnover intention among academicians should be seriously investigated.

From the official directory of Malaysia Qualification Register (MQR), there are 32 PHEIs in Sarawak. However, 12 PHEIs are excluded in this present study as 5 PHEIs had been terminated while 7 PHEIs had rejected their participation. Thus, the total population for this study is 1,017 (See Table 3.4).

Table 3.4: Distribution of Private Universities in Sarawak

Private Institutions	Name	Number of academicians
Colleges	Executive College	17
	Fajar International College	30
	IBS College	10
	Institut I-Systems Kuching	Unknown
	Institut Teknologi Maklumat Nusantara (NIIT Kuching)	12
	International College of Advanced Technology Sarawak	112
	I-Systems College Miri	9
	ITA College	25
	Kolej Laila Taib	21
	Kolej SEDAMAI	Unknown
	Kolej Teknologi Antarabangsa Cosmopoint Cawangan Kuching	12
	Limkokwing Institute of Creative Technology Sarawak Branch	30
	Asia Metropolitan College, Kuching	25
	Methodist Pilley Institute	33
	MSU College Sarawak	20
	Riam Institute of Technology	49
	SATT College	17
	SEGi College Sarawak	10
	SIDMA College Sarawak	30
	Sunway College Kuching	8
	Technology College Sarawak	50
	Fame International College	10
University College	University College of Technology Sarawak	100
University	Curtin University, Sarawak Malaysia	171
	Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak Campus	203
	UCSI University, Sarawak Campus	15
TOTAL		1,017

e) Sample Size and Sampling Technique

Although the population is not large, it is suggested not to collect data from the whole population (Zikmund, 2003). Hence, minimum respondents (sample) shall be determined. As aforementioned, the total population is 1,017 academicians. Therefore, the sample size for this current study is 278 (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970). Meaning, the respond given by 278 academicians shall be able to represent the whole study population. Moreover, it is

advisable to distribute more questionnaires to maintain the relevancy of the findings when the sample size is small (Hair *et al.*, 2006).

In this present study, a convenience sampling technique was applied. As the sample size is small, it is not necessary to calculate the proportion questionnaires to distribute among the universities as commonly used in proportionate stratified random sampling. By using convenience sampling, every academician in the population is given the equal opportunities to respond to the issue of boredom at workplace.

f) Sample Justification

There are three primary reasons to support the selection of academician as sample. First, based on literature, there is absent of boredom investigation among academicians. Most of the investigation are related to the profession such as blue collars employees (Kass, Vodanovich, & Callender, 2001), white collars employees (Harju, Hakanen, & Schaufeli, 2014), teachers (Daschmann, Goetz, & Stupnisky, 2014), students (Yazdanparast, Joseph, & Qureshi, 2015) and drivers (Heslop, 2014). There is only one attempt by (Sohail *et al.*, 2012) that extended the investigation to the university lecturers in seeking the association of boredom against demographic factors. Hence, expanding the boredom study using JD-R theory in relation to turnover intention, particularly beyond the western countries was warranted especially to test the hypotheses in the Malaysian context.

Secondly, the reason for selecting PHEIs was due to the fact that private university is growing in popularity among the community. They are the biggest tertiary education

providers and they are fast in responding to the current demands of the economy and society. Therefore, private universities are obviously acting to support the obligation of shaping the future human capital for Malaysia and it is being upheld by the academicians in the respective PHEIs. Any aspect, which could jeopardise the working spirit or mood among academicians, should be seriously investigated. Hence, investigating boredom at workplace among academicians in private universities could be one of the positive steps in securing the profession.

Finally, boredom at workplace has been found to negatively affect the profit of an organisation as well as the employees' morale. Individuals who experience boredom are more likely to encounter negative outcomes, particularly greater intention to leave (Yin-Fah *et al.*, 2010; Feng & Angeline, 2010; Lew, 2011; Noor, 2011; Reijseger *et al.*, 2013; Hassan, *et al.*, 2015; Azalea & Mei-Hua, 2015). As for Malaysia, the Ministry of Human Resources does take initiative in recognizing the negative impacts of boredom by offering several effective prevention responses to lower the occurrence of boredom at workplace despite the absence of official statistical report. Thus, investigating boredom at workplace deemed to be fit in Malaysia. Besides, this is also in line with the suggestion made by Bruursema *et al.*, (2011), Shane & Heather (2013) and Harju & Hakanen (2015) for more boredom related research.

g) Pre-test

A pre-test was conducted to identify consistency of the questions and an understanding of the respondents to the questionnaire. Pre-test play an important role in detecting confusion,

awkward, or offensive items in questionnaire which may alter the influence of independent variable against dependent variable (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). Pre-test was conducted through face and content validity. Face validity is defined as the judgement from respondents towards the appropriateness of the questionnaire items in measuring the targeted construct (Allen & Yen, 1979; Nevo, 1985; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994) while content validity is defined as the judgement from respondents towards the questionnaire items in representing the construct that is supported theoretically (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

In this present study, questionnaire was disseminated to 7 academicians from PHEIs in Sarawak for face validity and 2 academicians (field expert) each from public and private university for content validity. Their comments (see Table 3.5) were incorporated into the finalized questionnaire.

Table 3.5: Findings of Face and Content Validity

Face Validity

Name	Section	Comment	Suggestion
Academician 1	A	- Problems with scaling.	- Provide definition to the scale.
	C	- Inappropriate scale in measuring items.	- Change the existing scale.
Academician 2	A	- Problems with scaling.	- Provide definition to the scale.
	B	- Personally not familiar with scale more than 5 and no description given to the scale.	- Provide definition to the scale.
	C	- The items seem confusing because of jumbling.	- Group related items together.
Academician 3	A	- Some items are ambiguous.	- Provide synonym for better understanding.

Table 3.5 continued
Content Validity

Name	Section	Comment	Suggestion
Academician 3	D	- Facing problem in interpreting the meaning of irked.	- Provide synonym for better understanding.
Academician 4	A	- Some statements are hard to understand.	- Provide synonym for better understanding.
Academician 4	B	- Some grammatical errors.	- Make amendment.
Academician 4	D	- Facing problem in interpreting the meaning of irked.	- Provide synonym for better understanding.
Academician 5	D	- Facing problem in interpreting the meaning of irked.	- Provide synonym for better understanding.
Academician 6	E	- Limited choices for academic position. Different organization may have different hierarchy.	- Allow more options for respondents to choose.
Academician 7	A	- Some items are ambiguous.	- Provide synonym for better understanding.
	C	- Some items are unclear.	- Provide synonym for better understanding.
-			
Academician 8	Overall	- The real title and instructions shall not appear in the questionnaire to avoid bias.	- Remove the title and replace it with “The Job Demands – Resources at Workplace”.
Academician 9	Overall	- Good.	

Through face validity, those seven academicians commented that they were facing difficulty to understand the measurement scale as it was indicate with numbering (1 to 5) and simple instruction only. They suggested that measurement scale shall be well explained by providing its definition so that respondents are aware with the significant of each scale (i.e: 1 – Strongly Disagree). In addition, some vocabulary such as irked was ambiguous to certain academicians. They suggested that synonym shall be included to ease respondents in understanding the meaning in the sentence. In addition, they also suggested

for more options in choosing the academic position. This is because different PHEIs may have different hierarchy. Thus, by providing more options, it can illustrate better demographic factor in seeking its relationship with boredom at workplace. In this present study, all the suggestion was included in the questionnaire.

Meanwhile for content validity, the selected 2 academicians (field expert) had not much comment except to amend the title of the questionnaire. Generally, they were satisfied with the questionnaire and it is easy to understand. In this present study, the comment was included in the questionnaire.

3.5 Data Collection for Actual Study

This present study applied self-administered questionnaire in collecting the data. Self-administered questionnaire refers to a technique used to collect information about the subject matter from the respondents who read the statements and recorded their responses in the absence of a trained interviewer (Hair, Bush, & Ortinau, 2003). This technique recorded advantages as argued by (Dillman, 2007) in where respondents are more likely to respond honestly as compared to interview and it minimise the tendency of social desirability bias to take place whenever sensitive data are requested.

A drop-off and collect method was applied in this research. This method involves the researcher travelling to the respondents' location and a representative of the researcher hand-delivering survey questionnaires to respondents. Then, the completed surveys were collected by the representative after the respondents finished. This method also ensures the

availability of a person to answer questions as questionnaire was hand delivered by the representative who is working in the same company with the respondents. It may help to stimulate interest of the respondents in completing the questionnaire through interaction between the representative and respondents (Hair, Bush, & Ortinau, 2003).

But, those PHEIs with larger number of academicians are participating through on-line, Google survey form. According to the respective PHEIs management, it would much easier for them to disseminate the questionnaire in a short period of time. In addition, it allows respondents to complete the questionnaire at their own time and convenience. Thus, respondents can take time to think and answer the questions and look for further information when necessary (Emory & Cooper, 1991).

3.6 Technique of Data Analysis

3.6.1 Data Screening and Cleaning

Upon the returning of the questionnaires, data were screened. The screening process requires researcher to go through all the questionnaires to check for missing value, straight lining and outliers before analysing the data. Data screening is vital in maintaining the originality of the data that is free from manipulation or distortion. Those questionnaires that are found to have missing data shall be replaced (Hair *et al.*, 2006). In this present study, it was replaced by using Expected Maximization (EM).

Meanwhile, straight-lining can be identified through eyes screening. Straight lining may disturb the statistical result and may consider to be removed if any. From there onwards, the data were cleaned using SPSS (Version 22) program to search for any outliers and normality. Those found to be consistent outliers throughout the questionnaire had been removed from further analysis while for normality test, it was assessed through skewness and kurtosis.

3.6.2 Descriptive Analysis

Academicians' profile such as gender, age, ethnicity, marital status, highest education qualification, academic position, salary, length of service as academicians, and length of service in current organization were descriptively analysed using SPSS (Version 22) program in term of frequency, percentage, means and standard deviations.

3.6.3 Measurement Model

a) Reliability

In this present study, the secondary analysis was done using Smart PLS 3.0. The initial step is to check the reliability of the indicators used in measuring a construct that appear in the Measurement Model (outer model). The indicators shall be reliable in measuring the construct and produce meaningful findings. In previous study, Cronbach Alpha (CA) and Composite Reliability (CR) were deployed to check the indicators reliability. Indicators reporting CA value greater than 0.5 (Nunnally, 1978) and CR value greater than 0.7

(Segars, 1997) were deemed to be reliable. In this present study, CR was assessed instead of CA because CR acts to provide greater internal consistency reliability than CA. In addition, CA is sensitive to the numbers of items resulting underestimates of the true reliability (Peterson & Kim, 2013).

b) Validity

This present study is supported by theories with predefined constructs driven to confirm hypotheses developed from previous literature. Questionnaire are adapted and adopted from previous studies with minor modification in the indicators and response options. Hence, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was deployed by using software package Smart PLS 3.0 because it is able to automatically correct measurement errors and examine measurement and structural model simultaneously. Therefore, SmartPLS is deemed to be appropriate to conduct CFA. CFA is conducted to evaluate convergent and discriminant validity of constructs in the Measurement Model. Convergent validity refers to the degree of correlation between two constructs that is theoretically related while discriminant validity refers to the degree of distinction between two constructs that is theoretically unrelated.

To assess convergent validity, it shall begin with indicators because each construct is measured by multiple indicators in the Measurement Model. Each indicator is assessed through their factor loadings and those greater than 0.70 would mean indicator is measuring a construct (Nunnally, 1978; Chin, 1998). However, (Hair *et al.*, 2010) and Hulland (1999) proposed that indicators with loadings of 0.5 and 0.4 respectively should

be considered reliable as well. Hair *et al.* argued that with loading 0.5 the indicator may still be reliable just that the reliability is not as high as indicators with loading 0.7. As well, Hulland argued that indicators with loading 0.4 shall be reviewed instead of deleting them instantly.

Next, constructs shall be assessed for their convergent validity as well using Average Variance Extracted (AVE). Those constructs reporting AVE value to be more than 0.5 is deemed to pass convergent validity (Hair *et al.*, 2006). To assess discriminant validity, it can be done through by comparing square root of AVE for each construct with its correlations with other constructs (Chin, 1998). In order to get valid discriminant validity, the square root of AVE shall be greater than inter-correlation constructs to indicate that the variance explained by construct is stronger than measurement errors (Fornell & Bookstein, 1982).

3.6.4 Structural Model

Upon the process of reliability and validity, the Measurement Model is now known as Structural Model. The Structural Model was tested using Smart PLS 3.0 for predictive power among the constructs and hypotheses testing. The R-square value of the dependent constructs determines the predictive power of dependent constructs towards the research model and the path coefficients evaluate the strength of every hypothesized relationship that answered the research objectives. The standard errors were taken care by executing bootstrapping.

3.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter justified the need to employ a positivist paradigm in gathering answers to the research questions with the aim of and testing the hypotheses in the model. In addition, the chapter has detailed the methods used in this research, including the research design, constructing, instruments administrating and data analysing.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS, FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This research predicted the direct and indirect effect of boredom at workplace among academicians. Prior to hypotheses testing, several preliminary analyses were conducted including data screening, Composite Reliability (CR), Average Variance Extracted (AVE), cross loading to ensure the reliability and validity of measurement used. The researcher uses Smart PLS 3.0 software to do confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).

4.2 Participants

Overall, from 27 organizations approached, only 20 organizations willing to participate in the study (see Chapter 3 for details). For those organizational were participated, the researcher distributed 799 set of questionnaires by using hand and Google survey form (online) method in the month of November and December 2016. The reason for using online method is due to ease in dissemination and returning of questionnaires among large organizations. From 799 questionnaires distributed, only 289 returned (36.2% response rate). However, from initial screening, four questionnaires were omitted from further analysis due to incompleteness.

4.3 Data Screening

Data screening was conducted by examining basic descriptive statistics and frequency distribution. Firstly, the data were carefully examined for missing information. Descriptive data results showed that out of 285 returned questionnaires, 48 had missing information in a random manner. For this study, the missing values were replaced by Expected Maximization (EM) (Graham, 2012). This statistical model (algorithm) is claimed to be the most suitable way to formulate and replace the missing value in a dataset. Secondly, it was noted that there is one case (83) with straight lining (monotone) characteristic. Therefore, it was refrained from further analysis.

Thirdly, the data was assessed for outliers. The range of ± 3 zscore was applied (George & Mallery, 2010). 11 cases were found to be outliers at univariate level and the number reduced to 8 cases when it were analysed at the multivariate level. As Likert scales were used as measuring scale for the entire present study, respondents were expected to response according to their experience and feeling towards the workplace. With a floor (1) and ceiling (5 or 7) rated scale, not all cases of outliers will be removed in this current study. Respondents who responded towards a statement at the extreme end are not really representative of outlier behaviour. It is just merely their personal opinion.

Gardner & Altman, (1994) suggested that such extreme value should remain to be further analysed to produce meaningful findings instead of removing it. In fact, outliers are detected based on investigator's experience, pilot studies, evidence in the literature, or just common sense. It is a hidden act of bias among researchers (Broeck *et al.*, 2005). In this

present study, 5 cases (147, 154, 185, 263, 269) that constantly appeared as outlier were removed.

Following, the data went for normality test. Two type of normality assessment were used, namely univariate and multivariate. For univariate normality test, the skewness and kurtosis values that fall in between -2 and +2 were used, as suggested by (George & Mallery, 2010). In the study, since the value is within this range, so it was concluded that the data appeared to have a normal distribution.

For multivariate normality test, the skewness values that appeared to be less than 3 and kurtosis value fall in between -2 and +2 were used as per suggested (Chemingui & Lallouna, 2013). In the present study, the value was found to be within the range and hence it fulfils the multivariate normality test.

4.4 Descriptive Statistics

4.4.1 Respondent Demographic Profile

This section provides an analysis of the demographic characteristics of the respondents which includes the gender, age, ethnicity, marital status, highest educational qualification, academic position, salary, number of years in the current organization, and number of years as academician based on one-way frequencies analysis. It is noted that 70.6% of the 279 respondents in this survey were females. The largest group of respondents are with the age range from 26-30 (38.0%) and 31-35 (28.0%), followed by

those with age range of 36-40 (12.9%), 20-25 (9.3%), > 46 (6.8%), and 41-45 (5.0%). The average age of the participants was 32.72 years old. Out of 279 participants, 48.7% were married, 49.8% were single while the remaining were divorced / separated / widowed. Most of the respondents in this survey had higher academic qualifications of degree and master degree with 48.7% and 38.4% respectively. Lecturer made up 82.4% of the total participants. The rest consisted of professor, associate professor, senior lecturer and others (tutor, instructor, junior lecturer). Majority of the respondents (54.8%) had a monthly income less than RM2, 999. Most of the respondents (31.5%) had been in academia field for more than 7 years and served the institutions (30.5%) between 1 to 3 years. Detailed descriptive statistics of the respondents' demographic characteristics are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Demographic characteristics of the participants (n=279)

Demographic Variables	Description	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	82	29.4
	Female	197	70.6
Age	20-25 years old	26	9.3
	26-30 years old	106	38.0
	31-35 years old	78	28.0
	36-40 years old	36	12.9
	41-45 years old	14	5.0
	> 46 years old	19	6.8
Marital Status	Single	139	49.8
	Married	136	48.7
	Divorced / Separated / Widowed	4	1.4
Highest Education Qualification	Degree	136	48.7
	Master Degree	107	38.4
	Doctorate Degree	19	6.8
	Others	17	6.1

Table 4.1 continued

Academic Positions	Professor	1	0.4
	Associate Professor	2	0.7
	Senior Lecturer	24	8.6
	Lecturer	230	82.4
	Others	22	7.9
Salary	Less than RM2,999	153	54.8
	From RM3,000 to RM4,999	87	31.2
	From RM5,000 to RM6,999	25	9.0
	More than RM7,000	14	5.0
Length of Service as Academician	Less than a year	57	20.4
	1 - 3 years	60	21.5
	4 - 7 years	74	26.5
	More than 7 years	88	31.5
Length of Service in Current Organization	Less than a year	82	29.4
	1 - 3 years	85	30.5
	4 - 7 years	70	25.1
	More than 7 years	42	15.1

4.4.2 Descriptive Analysis of Variables

Mean (M), standard deviation (SD), maximum and minimum scores of the key variables in the study were summarised in Table 4.2. The composite scores for every construct are obtained by averaging respective item scores representing each particular construct. In this current study, except for boredom scale that uses 1 (Never) to 7 (Always), all other variables were measured by using Likert Scale range from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree).

Table 4.2: Summary of Descriptive Statistic for Variables in the Study

No.	Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
	IV - Job Demands[#]	3.25	0.57		
1.	Workload	3.07	0.46	1.60	4.70
2.	Students Disruptive Behaviour	3.41	0.67	1.00	5.00
	IV - Job Resources[#]	3.32	0.43		
3.	Social Support	3.74	0.52	2.25	5.00
4.	Job Autonomy	2.90	0.33	2.13	3.88
	IV - Personality Traits[#]	2.93	0.54		
5.	Neuroticism	2.78	0.56	1.38	4.75
6.	Extroversion	3.08	0.52	1.71	4.57
	DV – Boredom*				
7.	Boredom at workplace	3.13	0.96	1.00	5.88
	DV – Job Burnout*				
8.	Emotional Exhaustion	3.49	1.53	1.00	7.00
	DV – Turnover Intention*				
8.	Turnover Intention	3.35	1.35	1.00	7.00

Source: Survey data, N=279

Scale:

[#]1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree

*: 1=never; 2=almost never; 3=rarely; 4=sometimes; 5=often; 6=very often; 7=always

From the summary, the mean score for job demands indicated slightly high job demands among academicians from PHEIs in this current study. They are encountering job demands (M=3.25, S=0.57) in the aspects of workload (M=3.07, S=0.46) and students disruptive behaviour (M=3.41, S= 0.67) in class. Apart from job demands, academicians are supplied with resources (M=3.32, S=0.43) at workplace. It was noted that they are socially supported (M=3.74, S=0.52) by their colleagues at workplace. However, they are not empowered with job autonomy (M=2.90, S=0.33) by their organization. Meanwhile, the mean score for personality traits is (M=2.93, S=0.54) indicating that academicians are taking the neutral position in judging their personality neither neurotic nor extrovert. In

detail, it appears that majority of academicians see themselves as extrovert ($M=3.08$, $S=0.52$) rather than having neuroticism ($M=2.78$, $S=0.56$) personality. In addition, from the summary, it illustrated that sometimes academicians are bored at workplace ($M=3.13$, $S=0.96$), burnout ($M=3.49$, $S=1.53$) and have the intention to quit ($M=3.35$, $S=1.35$) their current job.

However, analysing all the variables based on mean score and standard deviation are rather at surface and does not reveal the reality of the working conditions among academicians of PHEIs. Simply, the different aspects of the dependent and independent variables are yet to be revealed. Therefore, Table 4.3 provides the descriptive statistics for all the items that made up the survey instruments.

Table 4.3: Means and Standard Deviations for all Items

Variable	Items	M	SD
Workload	I do not have enough time to perform quality research (knowledge contribution).	2.516	0.985
	The number of hours I am expected to teach has increased in recent years.	2.538	0.924
	The amount of administration I am expected to do is manageable, given my other responsibilities.	3.493	0.881
	The amount of administration I am expected to do is reasonable.	3.419	0.881
	The number of students I am expected to teach and / or supervise is reasonable.	3.731	0.841
Students' Disruptive Behaviour	I have students with general misbehaviour.	3.541	0.928
	I have students who produce high noise level.	3.308	1.102
	In my class, I have students with impolite behaviour.	3.301	0.994
	I have students who continually misbehave in class.	3.047	1.070
	I need to deal with difficult students' behaviour problems	3.462	0.939
Social Support	My superior is concerned about the welfare of those under them.	3.703	0.840
	My superior pays attention to what I am saying.	3.774	0.806
	My superior is helpful in getting the job done.	3.762	0.880
	My superior is successful in getting people to work together.	3.677	0.833
	My colleagues are friendly.	4.251	0.680

Table 4.3 continued

Variable	Items	M	SD
Job	I can determine (decide) when to work.	3.200	1.155
Autonomy	I set break times myself.	3.477	0.975
	I can determine my own work pace.	3.486	0.864
	I can set the time when I start and finish my work.	3.333	1.066
	My work includes some repetitive tasks.	2.029	0.699
Neuroticism	I am someone who is depressed (blue).	2.275	1.076
	I see myself as someone who is relaxed (handle stress well).	2.377	0.839
	I can be tense.	3.401	0.863
	I worry a lot.	3.129	1.024
	I can be moody.	3.204	0.977
Extroversion	I am talkative.	3.262	0.963
	I am someone who is reserved (keep thoughts and emotions to yourself).	2.563	1.033
	I am a person who is full of energy.	3.637	0.800
	I am sometimes shy.	2.591	0.959
	I tend to be quiet.	2.689	0.971
Boredom at workplace	At work, time goes by very slowly.	3.477	1.673
	I feel bored at my job.	3.111	1.454
	At work, I spend my time aimlessly.	3.054	1.656
	At my job, I feel restless.	3.514	1.588
	During work time, I daydream.	2.491	1.370
	It seems as if my working day never ends.	3.720	1.757
	I tend to do other things during my work.	3.212	1.450
	At my work, there is not so much to do.	2.439	1.420
Job Burnout	I feel emotionally drained from my work.	3.691	1.429
	I feel used up at the end of the workday.	4.364	1.616
	I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	3.414	1.579
	Working with people all day is really a strain for me.	3.191	1.457
	I feel burned out from my work.	3.374	1.513
	I feel frustrated by my job.	2.903	1.455
	I feel I'm working too hard on my job.	4.212	1.592
	Working directly with people puts too much stress on me.	3.101	1.473
Turnover Intention	I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.	3.153	1.599
	I am actively looking for a job outside my current organization.	3.221	1.716
	As soon as I can find a better job, I'll leave the current organization.	3.818	1.862
	I am seriously thinking about quitting my job.	2.905	1.701
	I think I will be working at current organization five years from now.	3.824	1.728
	I often think about quitting my current job.	2.977	1.740

4.4.3 Measurement Model - Reliability and Validity

Measurement model is the overall framework comprising all the items measuring constructs and the relationship among the constructs itself. Therefore, the level of reliability and validity is crucial to make sure the measurement model is relevant. In this present study, Smart PLS 3.0 was used for the test. Reliability was determined by the standardised loading carried by each items measuring a constructs (Gotz, Liehr-Gobbers, & Krafft, 2010). While some scholars such as (Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009; Gotz, Liehr-Gobbers, & Krafft, 2010) suggested to use loading value to be more than 0.7, the other scholars use more conventional cutoff value such as 0.5 (Hair *et al.*, 2010).

As the exact cut off value for loading remains debatable, current study used the value of 0.4 (Hulland, 1999). He argued that indicators with loading 0.4 can also be accepted and shall be reviewed instead of deleting them instantly. The decision to delete or to maintain an indicator is made upon the value of the composite reliability (CR). When deleting the indicator increases CR, then deletion is permitted, otherwise maintain the indicator in the Measurement Model. Such condition is applicable to those indicators with loading of 0.4 to 0.7. In this present study, 11 items were deleted to ensure reliable model after few iterations. (See Table 4.4)

In addition, Cronbach Alpha (CA) and Composite Reliability (CR) were used to evaluate reliability of measurement. This approach gives greater reliability in determining its influential power of constructs towards a relationship instead of rely on loading value alone. However, Fornell & Larcker, (1981) asserted that CR provides better measurement

in due to the internal consistency (greater reliability) because it involves standardized loadings among the construct as compared to CA. Thus in this present study, CR will be used to assess the construct reliability by using the cut off value of 0.7 as per suggested by (Litwin, 1995).

Apart from reliability, data collected has to be valid. The validity was done via convergent and discriminant validity by using SMART PLS 3.0 software. Fornell & Larcker (1981) suggested to use Average Variance Extracted (AVE) indices for convergent while cross-loading for discriminant validity . For AVE, the value represent the amount of variance captured by the dependant construct in a single relationship with the independent construct due to measurement errors. The minimum AVE value shall be greater than 0.5 which explains 50% or greater variance from independent construct shall be captured by dependent construct to establish the existence of relationship (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011). Meanwhile for discriminant validity, the cross-loading value of item should be higher than in any other constructs (Chin, 1998). Those indicators that are unable to fulfill the benchmark will be discarded after few iterations. (See Table 4.4)

In the first iteration, three constructs SDB, SS and TI had value above the cut off for AVE and CR which confirms that they reliable and valid. The other 3 constructs WL, E, N havd achieved satisfactory internal consistency but their AVE value was below 0.50 meanwhile JA was far below the standard value for composite reliability and AVE. It was noted that there were 5 items with poor loading which were unable to reach the benchmark of 0.4 which has to be removed.

In the second iteration, those with poor loadings (WL1Re, WL2Re, and JA5) were being removed from the model. Upon bootstrapping, every constructs were showing improvement in terms of their CR and AVE which supports the deletion of those items. However, some constructs were still having value below the cut off value which initiates the third iteration. Again, indicators with poor loading (E2Re, E4Re, E5Re, N2Re, B1, B6, B7, B8) were being removed.

Table 4.4: Results of Measurement Model Evaluation

Indicators	First Iteration			Final Iteration		
	Loading	AVE	CR	Loading	AVE	CR
WL1Re	0.405	0.387	0.744	Removed	0.580	0.805
WL2Re	0.368			Removed		
WL3	0.769			0.796		
WL4	0.778			0.800		
WL5	0.663			0.682		
SDB1	0.712	0.618	0.890	0.734	0.620	0.890
SDB2	0.752			0.748		
SDB3	0.857			0.860		
SDB4	0.840			0.835		
SDB5	0.760			0.751		
JA1	0.677	0.316	0.667	0.766	0.509	0.800
JA2	0.464			0.473		
JA3	0.662			0.725		
JA4	0.666			0.835		
JA5Re	0.152			Removed		
SS1	0.791	0.582	0.872	0.796	0.582	0.872
SS2	0.844			0.839		
SS3	0.828			0.822		
SS4	0.781			0.784		
SS5	0.526			0.533		
E1	0.523	0.368	0.741	0.456	0.594	0.720
E2Re	0.661			Removed		
E3	0.685			0.989		
E4Re	0.492			Removed		
E5Re	0.638			Removed		
N1	0.789	0.466	0.812	0.799	0.518	0.810
N2Re	0.564			Removed		

Table 4.4 continued

Indicators	First Iteration			Final Iteration		
	Loading	AVE	CR	Loading	AVE	CR
N3	0.635			0.665		
N4	0.718			0.722		
N5	0.686			0.685		
B1	0.531	0.386	0.831	Removed	0.536	0.821
B2	0.769			0.826		
B3	0.698			0.726		
B4	0.666			0.718		
B5	0.646			0.661		
B6	0.490			Removed		
B7	0.604			Removed		
B8	0.509			Removed		
TI1	0.858	0.613	0.879	0.855	0.613	0.880
TI2	0.828			0.824		
TI3	0.884			0.887		
TI4Re	0.310			0.319		
TI5	0.874			0.877		
EX1	0.782	0.528	0.909	0.791	0.527	0.908
EX2	0.617			0.615		
EX3	0.787			0.794		
EX4	0.705			0.697		
EX5	0.820			0.820		
EX6	0.820			0.825		
EX7	0.613			0.601		
EX8	0.722			0.716		
EX9	0.635			0.632		

WL - Workload; SDB - Students Disruptive Behaviour; JA - Job Autonomy; SS - Social Support; E - Extroversion; N - Neuroticism; B - Boredom At Workplace; EX – Emotional Exhaustion

Upon completion of iteration process, the final model was assess in term of validity through discriminant validity based on cross loading values as shown in Table 4.5. In this present study, indicators for a construct have higher values as compare to others construct which fulfils the requirement (Chin, 1998). This verified that the items were measuring a construct instead of other with a valid relationship through discriminant validity.

Table 4.5: Results of Cross Loading

	B	E	JA	EX	N	SS	SDB	TI	WL
B2	0.815	-0.378	-0.100	0.594	0.450	-0.293	0.226	0.555	-0.372
B3	0.726	-0.185	-0.040	0.460	0.315	-0.168	0.188	0.433	-0.237
B4	0.718	-0.261	-0.065	0.739	0.463	-0.289	0.216	0.527	-0.371
B5	0.661	-0.221	-0.086	0.425	0.317	-0.243	0.165	0.374	-0.215
E1	-0.062	0.456	0.133	-0.143	0.018	0.116	0.031	-0.014	0.123
E3	-0.380	0.989	0.171	-0.329	-0.262	0.272	-0.041	-0.259	0.314
JA1	-0.076	0.152	0.766	-0.079	-0.035	0.305	0.036	-0.074	0.255
JA2	-0.015	-0.017	0.473	-0.039	0.111	0.129	0.141	-0.042	0.179
JA3	-0.078	0.099	0.725	-0.170	-0.003	0.391	0.121	-0.082	0.342
JA4	-0.085	0.187	0.835	-0.079	-0.087	0.225	0.120	-0.060	0.205
EX1	0.671	-0.299	-0.221	0.791	0.484	-0.349	0.242	0.496	-0.378
EX2	0.400	-0.149	-0.126	0.615	0.359	-0.176	0.062	0.343	-0.231
EX3	0.688	-0.299	-0.098	0.794	0.518	-0.260	0.260	0.596	-0.329
EX4	0.544	-0.211	-0.045	0.697	0.380	-0.260	0.219	0.443	-0.300
EX5	0.548	-0.273	-0.084	0.820	0.503	-0.353	0.217	0.590	-0.374
EX6	0.708	-0.333	-0.103	0.825	0.539	-0.421	0.282	0.646	-0.447
EX7	0.279	0.011	-0.134	0.601	0.353	-0.189	0.189	0.409	-0.301
EX8	0.558	-0.231	-0.127	0.716	0.453	-0.326	0.220	0.526	-0.338
EX9	0.526	-0.216	0.034	0.632	0.441	-0.237	0.182	0.571	-0.297
N1	0.539	-0.234	-0.043	0.561	0.799	-0.230	0.345	0.472	-0.295
N3	0.308	-0.052	0.002	0.388	0.665	-0.097	0.218	0.264	-0.160
N4	0.332	-0.236	-0.017	0.407	0.722	-0.132	0.212	0.289	-0.232
N5	0.300	-0.141	-0.066	0.395	0.685	-0.100	0.256	0.313	-0.154
SS1	-0.296	0.133	0.275	-0.339	-0.152	0.796	-0.011	-0.367	0.351
SS2	-0.315	0.305	0.298	-0.393	-0.228	0.839	0.037	-0.377	0.442
SS3	-0.279	0.245	0.416	-0.307	-0.160	0.822	0.099	-0.345	0.456
SS4	-0.221	0.192	0.292	-0.281	-0.103	0.784	0.059	-0.302	0.343
SS5	-0.183	0.146	0.170	-0.186	-0.147	0.533	0.038	-0.182	0.150
SDB1	0.155	0.027	0.115	0.174	0.244	0.143	0.734	0.133	0.058
SDB2	0.145	0.007	0.145	0.186	0.291	0.123	0.748	0.168	-0.020
SDB3	0.277	-0.082	0.083	0.291	0.314	-0.040	0.860	0.287	-0.104
SDB4	0.244	-0.035	0.118	0.247	0.315	0.022	0.835	0.199	-0.135
SDB5	0.214	-0.009	0.067	0.230	0.289	0.056	0.751	0.244	0.002
TI1	0.552	-0.144	0.021	0.551	0.367	-0.310	0.247	0.855	-0.219
TI2	0.481	-0.126	-0.078	0.588	0.405	-0.301	0.280	0.824	-0.284
TI3	0.641	-0.274	-0.147	0.658	0.463	-0.406	0.213	0.887	-0.387
TI4Re	0.078	-0.098	0.010	0.113	0.098	-0.131	0.047	0.319	-0.182
TI5	0.593	-0.275	-0.106	0.682	0.442	-0.427	0.219	0.877	-0.396
WL3	-0.346	0.327	0.254	-0.369	-0.260	0.361	-0.068	-0.268	0.796
WL4	-0.285	0.159	0.390	-0.322	-0.186	0.439	0.008	-0.252	0.800
WL5	-0.328	0.212	0.152	-0.359	-0.245	0.288	-0.085	-0.343	0.682

B - Boredom At Workplace; E - Extroversion; JA - Job Autonomy; EX – Emotional Exhaustion;

N - Neuroticism; SS - Social Support; SDB - Students Disruptive Behaviour; TI – Turnover Intention; WL – Workload.

4.4.4 Structural Model

After completion all above analysis, the researcher proceeds with bootstrapping. This method was adopted to test the model. A total of 5,000 bootstrapped samples as per suggested by Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt (2011) were used to identify the path coefficient (t-Statistic) and level of significance (95% interval) for the construct in the model. In this present study, bootstrapping was done based on one-tailed test, therefore any path with *t*-value that falls in between ± 1.645 consider insignificant. Table 4.6 presents the t-Statistic and significance for the Structural Model. There is only one relationships were found to be insignificant (Job autonomy --> Boredom).

Table 4.6: Path Coefficients for Inner Model

Path	Path Coefficient	Standard Deviation	t-Statistics
Workload --> Boredom	-0.190*	0.058	3.342
Students Disruptive Behaviour --> Boredom	0.132*	0.052	2.400
Job autonomy --> Boredom	0.034 ^{ns}	0.055	1.068
Social Support --> Boredom	-0.153*	0.055	2.917
Neuroticism --> Boredom	0.359*	0.054	6.599
Extroversion --> Boredom	-0.183*	0.050	3.634
Boredom --> Job Burnout	0.787*	0.026	29.771
Boredom --> Turnover Intention	0.460*	0.059	7.869

*Significant level at $p < 0.025$; ^{ns} not significant

The strength of the significant relationship is being determined by the R^2 coefficients. As shown in Table 4.7, the R^2 coefficient for Boredom at Workplace, Job Burnout and Turnover Intention is 0.447, 0.620, and 0.524 respectively. Therefore, 5 independent variables are explaining 44.7% of the variance in boredom at workplace while 62.0% and

52.4% variance in job burnout and turnover intention respectively are explained by boredom at workplace.

The inner model suggest that neuroticism has the strongest effect (0.359) on boredom at workplace followed by workload (-0.190), extroversion (-0.183), social support (-0.153) and students' disruptive behaviour (0.132). All the hypothesized path relationships are statistically significant except for job autonomy. Thus, it can be concluded that the remaining independent variables are predicting boredom at workplace in a descending strength pattern.

From all the significant paths, it clearly suggests that the boredom at workplace predict academicians' job burnout and turnover intention. The more academicians are bored, the greater they experience job burnout and stronger intention to change their job. From Table 4.6, it confirms that the factors contributing to the experience of boredom at workplace among academicians are due to job demands, job resources and personality traits. However, it can be differentiated to promoting and demoting factors. The path coefficient illustrated that student's disruptive behaviour and neuroticism falls under promoting factors while workload, social support and extroversion are considered as demoting factors towards boredom at workplace.

Variables that are categorised under promoting factors will boost the boredom experience at workplace while those under demoting factors will reduce the occurrence of boredom at workplace. At one hand, the more academicians encounter promoting factors, the more academicians will experience boredom at workplace. On other hand, the more

academicians indulge in the demoting factors, the lesser they will encounter boredom at workplace.

Table 4.7: R² for Inner Model

Path	R ² Coefficient	Standard Deviation	<i>t</i> -Statistics
Boredom	0.447*	0.043	9.325
Job Burnout	0.620*	0.040	15.212
Turnover Intention	0.524*	0.052	8.341

*Significant level at $p < 0.025$

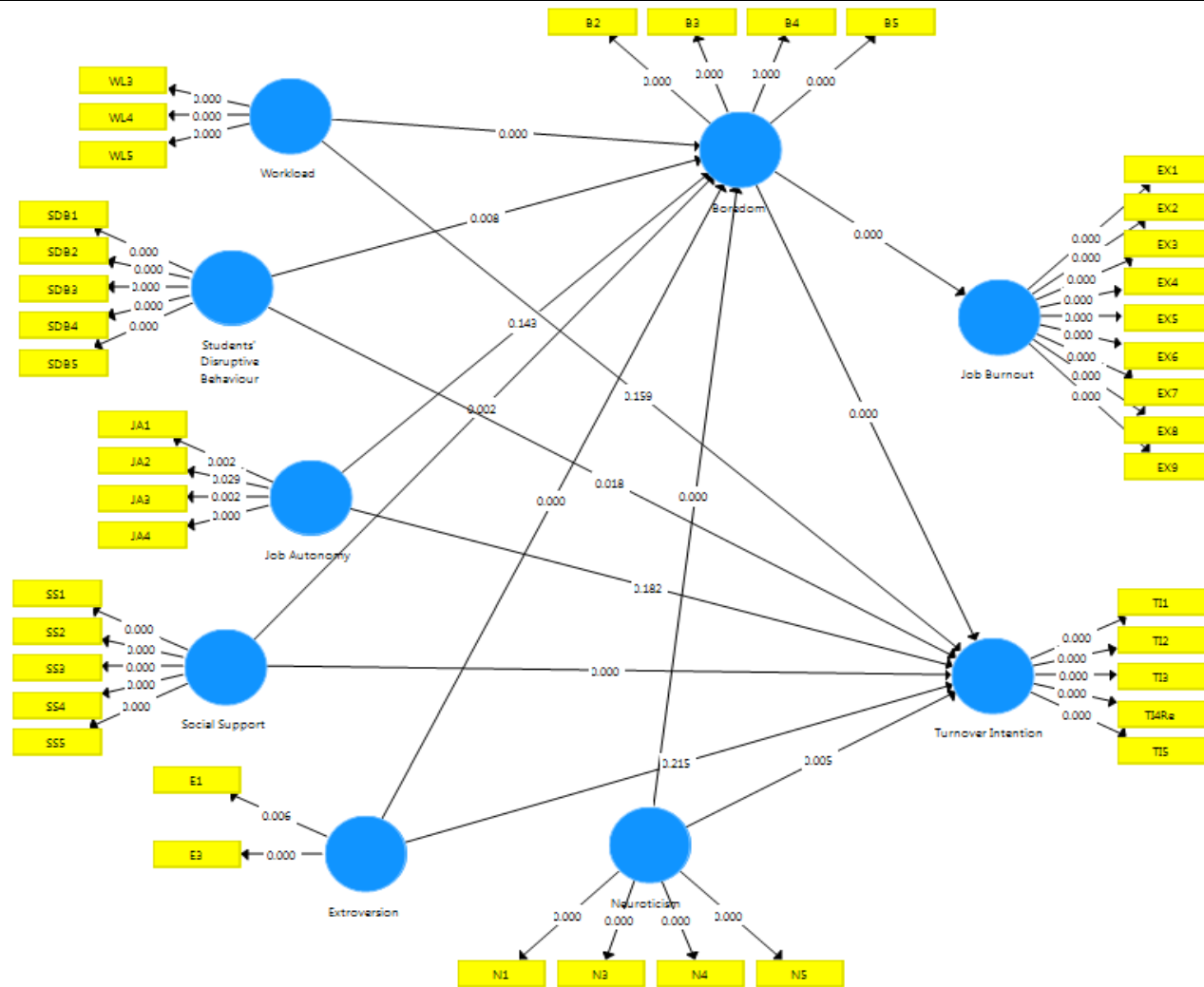


Figure 4.1: Structural Model

4.5 Findings and Discussion

From Figure 4.1, the Structural Model demonstrates the linear relationship between the job demands (workload and students disruptive behaviour), job resources (job autonomy and social support) and personality traits (extroversion and neuroticism) with boredom at workplace and how it influence academicians' job burnout and turnover intention. The following discussion will tie the findings from the Smart PLS analysis to each of the proposed hypothesis as applicable.

Table 4.8: Results of Hypothesis Testing

Hypotheses	Results
H _{1a} : Academician workload is negatively associated to boredom.	Supported.
H _{1b} : Students' disruptive behavior is negatively associated with boredom.	Not supported.
H _{2a} : Job autonomy is negatively associated with boredom.	Not supported.
H _{2b} : Social support is negatively associated to boredom.	Supported.
H _{3a} : Academician with neuroticism trait is positively associated to boredom.	Supported.
H _{3b} : Academician with extroversion trait is negatively associated to boredom.	Supported.
H ₄ : Boredom among academician is positively associated to job burnout.	Supported.
H ₅ : Boredom among academician is positively associated to turnover intention.	Supported.

4.5.1 Antecedents and Consequences of Boredom at Workplace

In this present study, there are 3 predefined antecedent factors leading academician to experience boredom and how does boredom related to job burnout and turnover intention. The antecedents are job demands, job resources and personality traits which put forward the hypothesis as per Table 4.8.

As per Table 4.6, workload is found to be correlated negatively to the boredom at workplace. The relationship is significant ($\beta=-0.190$, $p<0.025$) which supports H_{1a} . It indicates that workload carried by academicians is a significant factor determining the experience of boredom at workplace.

In another construct of job demands, students disruptive behaviour is found to be positively correlated to the boredom at workplace. Meaning, the more students perform disruptive behaviour in class, more often academician will experience boredom. Although the relationship is significant ($\beta=0.132$, $p<0.025$), it has rejected H_{1b} .

For job resources, it is represented by job autonomy and social support. It was predicted that both of the constructs will negatively associated with boredom at workplace. However, the current result only support one of the construct, that is social support ($\beta=-0.153$, $p<0.025$). Meaning, the more academicians received support from colleagues and head of department, the lesser they will feel bored towards their profession. Contrary, job autonomy ($\beta=0.034$, ns) was found positively insignificant to the boredom at workplace. The result tells that boredom at workplace is not related to the job autonomy given to the academicians. Therefore, it has rejected H_{2a} .

For personality traits, the current study investigated neuroticism and extroversion. The path coefficient reveals that neuroticism and extroversion, both acting as promoting and demoting factor against boredom at workplace respectively. Neuroticism is positively ($\beta=0.359$, $p<0.025$) related to boredom at workplace while extroversion ($\beta=-0.186$, $p<0.025$) is negatively related to boredom at workplace which supports H_{3a} and H_{3b} . Such

results indicate that personality traits have certain level of influence towards confronting boredom at workplace despite the job demands and job resources alone. With positive personality traits, it lowered chances of getting bored at workplace.

Ultimately, boredom is predicted to have a positive impact on academicians' job burnout and turnover intention. Indeed, the present study revealed that boredom has positive relationship to the academicians' job burnout and turnover intention. The more academicians encounter boredom at workplace, the greater possibility to suffer job burnout and the stronger their turnover intention. The relationship is significant which supports H₄ ($\beta=0.787$, $p<0.025$) and H₅ ($\beta=0.460$, $p<0.025$) respectively.

a) Relationship between Workload (Job Demands) and Boredom at workplace

Result from the present study indicates that workload was negatively related to boredom at workplace which is consistent with previous studies conducted by Van Wyk *et al.*, (2016). They found that boredom experience elevated among employees from manufacturing and logistic organizations in South Africa when they have less work to do at workplace. Meaning to say, the amount of workload may determine boredom experiences at workplace. As Malaysian academicians are enduring heavy workload, it explains the negative relationship. Academicians who are constantly loaded may find their job challenging as they are actively engaged with the job instead of doing nothing or nothing to do. The meaning of engagement refers to the positive attitude in playing active role to solve problems for their organizations. They are stimulated to get their job done within the

stipulated time frame resulting full utilisation of energy for productivity. As a result, they are less prone to get bored with their job.

In reality, interviewees mentioned that they are exerting heavy workload as they are required to teach new subjects every semester, prepare teaching materials, design two sets of examination papers, student consultation as well as marketing (roadshow). They revealed that they started to struggle especially when they are required to teach a new subject. Academicians need to revamp the subject, at the same time actively engaged with reading to enhance knowledge in order to deliver quality lecture. In addition, they need to prepare more examination papers and commonly associated with more questions with detail marking scheme. Indirectly, it creates a series of burden linkages.

Interviewee 1

“I carry heavy workload. I was expected to teach 21 hours per week. Sometimes, more than that. Sometimes I need to conduct night classes and even weekend classes from 12pm until 930pm for part time students. In addition, I need to prepare more examination questions and detailed marking scheme for every subjects as per requested by the management. Besides, I am frustrated with teaching plan preparation. On top of that, I need to take care of counter for students recruitment.”

(College lecturer, 30 years old)

Interviewee 2

“Currently I have been with this organization for 5 years and my workload is heavy. I am expected to prepare teaching plan, design examination paper complete with marking

scheme, provide student consultation to the international students and etc. The most ridiculous job is to join the road show programme in promoting new courses. I feel most burdened and weary when the organization expected us to do paper publication”.

(University lecturer, 30 years old)

On top of the roles and responsibilities, academicians are expected to participate in roadshow in giving courses explanation to the potential students or parents and it is happening to PHEIs from university to college level. They are dealing with various types of work apart from teaching. This left academicians not to have nothing to do but increase in workload which explains the probability to experience boredom is lowered. Academicians are actively engaged with their work. It is therefore continuously motivate academicians to work more. In the case of overloading without recovery, academicians may tends to experience high feelings of exhaustion and develop negative attitude (cynicism) which was popularly known as job burnout (Maslach, 1993; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) instead of boredom.

b) Relationship between Students’ Disruptive Behaviour (Job Demands) and Boredom at workplace

The current finding shows that students’ disruptive behaviour is positively related to boredom at workplace which has rejected H1_b. The common disruptive behaviors found in class are sleeping, talking, messaging, playing video games and cell phones in the class (Hubbell & Hubbell, 2010). Academicians are likely to experience boredom when they are more students demonstrating disruptive behaviour in class. This particularly supports

Seidman's (2005) statement mentioning academicians are only expert in their specialty but not in managing class. As academicians failed to control the class, they tend to interact with students at the surface level (Johnson, 2012). An interaction that exists with the aim to deliver what is expected by academicians. There is an absence of a high degree of relevance and interaction among academicians and students resulting in an unchallenging job.

In reality, interviewees mentioned that they do not bother about those students with disruptive behavior. They prefer to have a surface interaction with such students. In their opinion, it is not worth paying attention to those students (5-10%) because they are not in the class to learn. They played games using handphones, chatting, doing other subject assignment, and revising other subjects if there is any examination. The real excerpt is as follows:

Interviewee 1:

“ In a class, normally I get 1/3 student who disobedient and misbehave in class. They misbehave in a way such as making noise (chit chatting) at the back of the class, doing other subject assignment in the class, and frequently enter and exit the class. Students are not even bother to listen to my instruction in the class. I can't control them ”.

(College lecturer, 30 years old)

Interviewee 4:

“It is common for me to encounter disruptive students in a college. They tend to challenge my knowledge and ability to conduct a class. I remembered once where there was a

disruptive student who put the blame on me for his poor result and not supervising his final year project”.

(College lecturer, 37 years old)

Interviewee 5:

“At the university level, it is quite common to get disruptive students in the class. For my engineering classes, I noted that almost 50% students in my class are sleeping, playing phones and games”.

(University lecturer, 37 years old)

On top of that, they consider their students as adult learners and have the ability to distinguish right or wrong, good or bad. Three interviewees responded that it is useless to control those students because if students insisted to behave disruptively, it is their choice. The more academicians attempt to control the class, the more they were emotionally drained.

In addition, all interviewees agreed that the presence of disruptive students in the class do make them get bored easily. This is because they are unable to find excitement and meaning when they carry out their duty. With disruptive students, classes are not properly conducted as what has been planned whereby academicians need to spend time correcting their attitude and mentality. Even worst, some might strongly against it. From academicians perspective, it is a waste of effort and none stimulating. As an adult learner, students should be keen and ready to learn from the expert. Unfortunately, PHEIs students remain to behave like secondary students where more correction need to be done, not once but quite frequent. The repetition of correcting session is where academicians feel not

stimulated and bored because that is not their main responsibility. Academicians are to share and impart knowledge to students. Unfortunately, this does not seem to be feasible among PHEIs' academicians. Below are two examples of the participants' statements to support this view.

Interviewee 1:

"Quite often I need to correct disruptive students' attitude and mentality. I am tired with them. These students do not take advice easily. So, I let them do what they wish to do so long as they didn't interrupt those who are keen to learning. I don't feel excited at all in teaching a class when these disruptive students are in the class".

(College lecturer, 30 years old)

Interviewee 4:

"I get bored especially in teaching when I find the common disruptive students appear in my class. I am aware they are not listening to me through eye contact. As the matter of fact, I am emotionally disturbed while conducting the class which limits my sharing session".

(College head of department, 37 years old)

In fact, Johnson (2012) mentioned by focusing on the students who are keen to learn is the best way to deal with disruptive students, at least academicians can still retain the interest of the disruptive students in the class. Ultimately, knowledge can still be transferred. But, academicians are more susceptible to boredom when they encountered disruptive students throughout their courses as the overall class environment remains non-stimulating. Hence,

the presence of student disruptive behaviour is positively related with academicians boredom experience at workplace.

c) Relationship between Job Autonomy (Job Resources) and Boredom at Workplace

Job autonomy is the empowerment given to the employees to make decision in executing the work by utilizing their related skills to fulfill job demands with minimum superior interference. In this present study, job autonomy was found to be positively related to boredom at workplace which has rejected H_{2a} . Meaning to say, increases of job autonomy among academicians raise the opportunities of academicians experiencing boredom at workplace. This is consistent with what was reported by Langfred (2004) and Bashir (2011) that to the certain extent, some employees dislike job autonomy as it requires more commitment, trust and responsibility to be deployed into the job with little support. In this present context, academicians are entrusted to make decision within their boundaries such as classes or department. It increases their original scope of work such as lecturing and researching and at the same time, there is no complementary reward given to normalise the job autonomy. Hence, they are more susceptible to experience boredom.

From interview, it was noted that academicians are not familiar with the term “job autonomy”. They informed that they are allow to make decision in class related issues, setting and marking examination paper, lecture content and activities in class. For head of department, they are slightly empowered in managerial issue. Although they are empowered, job autonomy does not fully utilised by academicians. The management remains the main decision maker in the organization rather than discussing among the

academicians who are empowered which give rise to boredom at workplace. Below are the captions for illustration.

Interviewee 1:

“Sometimes, although I am empowered, the management will still interrupt how I conducted my class especially matter related with students. That’s why I prefer not to comment anything about students because at the end, students will lodge complaint to the management and most of the time, the management will rather defend students instead of lecturer. I’m getting bored with this sort called resources.”

(College lecturer, 30 years old)

Some academicians are in a passive mode. They have never been empowered and it is common for them to receive instruction without questioning. This supports the Malaysian culture where power distance was found to be high (Hofstede, 2017). In line with Hofstede’s cultural theory, academicians accept the inequality of power distribution in centralized organizations resulting one-way communication.

Interviewee 3:

“As far as my class is concerned, I don’t bother about job autonomy or empowerment, so long as it does not increase my workload, I will just follow. Otherwise I may get bored with my job.”

(College lecturer, 32 years old)

On the other hand, some do feel comfortable with the autonomy given by their respective PHEIs. It helps in giving clear scope of work and responsibilities at workplace. When it is required, they can use the empowerment without any prejudice. However, in their opinion, those empowerment increases their workload to the extend of getting bored and unmotivated at workplace. They have so much to do yet with little time. Such finding deduces that Malaysian academicians does not value job autonomy as argued by Manz & Sims (2001) for them to learn, grow and lead (work engagement). In fact, job autonomy leads to boredom at workplace.

Interviewee 4:

“I recognised the importance of job autonomy among academicians in conducting, planning and delivering lecture to a class as a head of department. However, it also increases my workload which makes me feel tired and unmotivated. Sometimes I do feel bored being a head of department and I wish to be a normal academicians who just do lecturing.”

(College head of department, 37 years old)

d) Relationship between Social Support (Job Resources) and Boredom at Workplace

Social support is regarded as the availability of helping relationship between colleagues and leaders (Leavy, 1983). In this present study, social support was found to be negatively related to the boredom at workplace. Meaning to say, employees have greater chances of encountering boredom at workplace when they have poor social support. Such finding is consistent with Grzywacs & Marks, (2000) and Wayne, Randel, & Stevens (2006) where

strong social support will hamper negative effect and increases quality of work. It can be inferred that boredom is possible to be avoided with the presence of strong social support.

In the current study, this finding is contradict with Othman, Ahmad, & Ghazali (2015) who claimed that employees are unable to offer up themselves to help others when they are over loaded. 82.4% respondents of this study are lecturer who reported to incur moderate high workload, but they are still socially active. As the matter of fact, most of the academicians are not working alone. As they are working in a team, they are able to retrieve the internal rewards of the job across time. Moreover, the job turns to be challenging when the academicians have more ability to solve tasks together with co-workers. There is present of reference point made available for them due to strong social support among themselves. Under such circumstances, academicians are stimulated and willing to invest effort to the profession. Hence, this situation lead academicians to avoid boredom at workplace.

Via interview, academicians strongly agreed that social support is an important determinant of their attitude towards jobs. One of them who are attached with college mentioned that the presence of social support creates a less stressful working environment as they spare time to care each other at workplace especially issue dealing with students and subject content and found encouragement as they shared.

Interviewee 3:

“In the college, I have good support, encouraging and helping team who always have time to listen to my problem encountered in class. We have the sharing culture among ourselves.”

(College lecturer, 32 years old)

Another mentioned that she was socially supported when she encountered troubles in carry out her duties prior to any early notice. She emphasized that it is essential to have rapport relationship among colleagues so that helping hand can come easily without creating a mess.

Interviewee 1:

“Overall, I have good social support among colleagues as well as from my head. The helping hand is always available such as for invigilation or class replacement. We understand each other very well. Actions speak louder than words.”

(College lecturer, 30 years old)

At the university level, the social support come in structured form. Whenever an academicians encounter with any problems (i.e; student or teaching), the management will form a discussion group which comprises of other academicians. This method is known as ‘moderator mechanism’. The academicians with problems will share and chair the discussion. The group members will brain storm to help and the moderator will make the final decision to solve the problems.

Interviewee 2:

“I am having a good structured social support. In the case of having special issues and cannot be solved internally, there will be a protocol to create a group consists of lecturers to discuss the matters and solved within the group. At my university, it is known as moderator mechanism. However, we will try our best to solve it internally unless we can’t.”

(University lecturer, 30 years old)

Reality, academicians are still socially engaged among co-workers. This is in line with Malaysia collectivism culture where academicians emphasized the “we” rather than “I” concept (Hofstede, 2017). In fact, this is the point where the academicians pick up the motivation and encouragement from others during their sharing session. At the end of the day, practical solutions and professional attitude are being developed in academicians. As they move on, they can create meaning in their profession instead of taking it as a routine. Therefore, boredom are being hindered.

e) Relationship between Neuroticism (Personality Traits) and Boredom at Workplace

Neuroticism is a negative personality trait with high stress sensitivity (Suls, 2001). In this present study, academicians with neuroticism traits are found to be significant and positively associated to boredom at workplace. In other words, academicians with such negative personality are more prone to feel bored with their job. It has been predetermined as such characteristic are highly correlated to the negative outcome as reported by Hart, Wearing, & Headey (1995), Judge, Heller, & Mount (2002) and Bakker *et al.*, (2010).

Academicians with neuroticism traits are those who are associated with negative affect, inability to cope with stress, pressure and emotionally unstable (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Such academicians viewed the world negatively and regard challenging task as a threat instead of an opportunity to unleash their skills and potential. They have low tolerance in dealing with challenging job which makes them get bored easily. Present study witnesses such characteristic falls among 66% of the respondents who are young academicians with age range of 26-35 years old and 48.7% of them are degree holder. This infers that young academicians are less tolerate towards challenging job.

In all interviewees point of view, they have no problem in digesting heavy workload provided given sufficient time. The most they will grumble with each other's for the sake of releasing stress and dissatisfaction prior resuming their work. On top of that, they avoided complaining or backstabbing problematic students. In fact, discussion is on-going from time to time on the ways to help these students. Via discussion, academicians brainstorm ways to make their classes more attractive, fun and less bored especially the theoretical classes. Therefore, in their opinion, they do not possess neuroticism personality. Below are the real excerpts during interview.

Interviewee 2:

"I don't see myself having the neuroticism personality trait as I am willing to do my job regularly and diligently. I am able to accept heavy workload given a reasonable time frame."

(University lecturer, 30 years old)

Interviewee 3:

“I am a talkative person and I handle my job well. I see myself as extrovert. However, as a human there is always up and down session. I am down when the management does not explain well certain changes in policy within the organization.”

(College lecturer, 32 years old)

In addition, previous evidence such as strong social support deduced that academicians are having positive personality trait and attitude at workplace. However, one of the interviewee who is attached with university for more than 5 years revealed that neuroticism do not develop at the early but later stage of employment. He personally encounters such personality after his second years working as academician. Generally, academicians agreed that by having neuroticism personality trait, they possessed higher tendency of experiencing boredom at workplace.

f) Relationship between Extroversion (Personality Traits) and Boredom at Workplace

Extroversion is a positive personality trait that closely associated with positive affect, sociability, optimism and personal energy (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Result from the present study indicates that extroversion is negatively related to boredom at workplace. In other words, academicians with extroversion traits have lower chances of getting bored with the job. This is because they tend to demonstrate high enthusiasm and being active at workplace resulting greater job involvement and development of positive emotions.

As extroverts viewed challenging work positively and rewarding, it was found that such characteristic are linked to the positive performance outcomes such as job satisfaction (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002), organizational commitment (Bakker *et al.*, 2010) and work engagement (Langelaan *et al.*, 2006) which likely to alleviate boredom at workplace. Extroverts are energetic at workplace, they loved what they are doing and willing to invest effort to solve problems they encountered. Simply, extroverts digest challenging work in a positive way.

From interview, all the academicians called themselves as extrovert. One of the interviewees who is head of department found that her job was challenging and stimulating because she need to deal with administrative work such as planning resources and ways to increase number of recruits. She was positive about her job expectation and deliverance. Another academician mentioned that she was able to accept criticism and feedback given by the students through evaluation. She tried to improve her weaknesses by attending training related to lecture delivering and language.

Interviewee 4:

“I love my job and I get paid with what I deliver. Back few years when I was promoted to be head of department, I was highly motivated and passionate about my new role. I found my new roles was challenging and exciting.”

(College head of department, 37 years old)

In addition, academicians mentioned that they share their problems rather than being secretive via social support. The sharing environment enable positive personality trait

being departed from one to another. Extroverts are the key players in determining the sharing content and speak positively through experience and problems could be solved in a professional manner. It initiated the development of positive working attitude among members. Thus, it seems to have limited room for boredom to be experienced by extroverts as they are someone who was describe as sociable, optimism and energized (Costa & McCrae, 1992). They viewed the world positively. In that sense, boredom is unlikely to occur which explains such negative correlation between extroversion and boredom at workplace.

g) Boredom at Workplace and Job Burnout

In this present study, boredom at workplace was found to be positively attached with job burnout. Both of the variables operates parallel where academicians get bored at workplace, it increases the experience of job burnout. Such result is consistent as per reported by Reijseger *et al.*, (2013). As per discussed in the literature, boredom and job burnout are both negative well-being at workplace. The difference is boredom occurs due to unpleasant and deactivating working environment while job burnout occurs due to the unpleasant yet activating working environment. It has been well known that boredom and job burnout is closely related with the negative consequences on employees such as poor performance, organizational commitment and many more. Hence, in current study, it can be described that as boredom strike, it emotionally disturb employees in such a way of “doing nothing” instead of nothing to do. There is no sense of excitement, encouragement and accomplishment in a boring job that much related to repetitive work and routine.

In such scenario, it engenders depersonalization and decrease in personal achievement. Academicians revealed that they encountered boredom when they were assigned with the specialized subject. They are expected to deliver the same content, assessment and marking for every semester. Therefore, the likelihood for academicians to feel bored is increased in the work repetition. But, they revealed that as they are overloaded it render the intensity of getting bored.

Interviewee 2:

“I remembered after 2 years working under the current organization, I started to get bored and annoyed with the repeated subjects especially with assignment and final exam questions. Thus, few colleagues and I created a programme called ‘Talent Hunt Competition’ to create new experience of being academicians”.

(University lecturer, 30 years old)

In the midst of overloaded, they tried to create excitement by producing new assessment strategies, more scenario oriented examination questions, implement interactive lecture deliverance, and be more approachable by students. They added that if the bored situation persists, most probably they will experience job burnout even though they are not overloaded. In some cases, academicians reported the reversal.

h) Boredom at Workplace and Turnover Intention

Results of the present study revealed that boredom at workplace and turnover intention were positively related. In other words, bored academicians have greater turnover intention.

The current findings supported past empirical studies on boredom and turnover intention as detailed by Kass, Vodanovich, & Callender (2001) and Reijseger *et al.* (2013).

One possible explanation for such result are employees who are bored are demotivated, loss the sense of passion and frequently refuse to invest effort towards their work. So, as job become more challenging, they failed to cope with the changes and they choose to leave instead of struggling with the job. One of the academicians who is head of department, she has high turnover intention when she was initially loaded with new task especially administrative task. She took over and started to handle the operation of a department with limited supervision from the management. At a certain point, she was clueless with what to do and what to expect. She started to get bored with the job as she was not productive and fail to deliver her job expectation. That was the moment where her intention to leave was very high. She felt that she was unable to handle the department well and it would be better if more qualified person could take over.

Interviewee 4:

“I was unable to focus to get my job done. I am not sure which one comes first and later. As the new head of department, I received little supervision and expected to work independently in leading a group of academicians. I was stress out and unwillingly to invest effort. I feel my job is something meaningless to me”.

(College head of department, 37 years old)

It can be noted that boredom could make one to leave their job. Although in this study, academicians reported that they moderately bored and sometimes have the intention to

change their job, it is sufficient to explain the scenario that has taken place where MOHE recorded a tremendous shortfall of 8,516 academicians in year 2013. Academicians are bored with their job and hence, quit their job. PHEIs in Malaysia cannot afford to witness another same shortfall as they are on blooming track to provide better education to meet the current demands from the industrial and parents.

4.5.2 Mediating Effect of Boredom at Workplace

Boredom at workplace is formally hypothesized as per Table 4.9 to be mediator in the relationship between antecedent constructs and turnover intention.

Table 4.9: Results of Mediation Hypothesis Testing

Hypotheses	Results
H _{6a} : Boredom at workplace mediates the relationship between academicians workload and turnover intention.	Supported.
H _{6b} : Boredom at workplace mediates the relationship between students disruptive behavior and turnover intention.	Supported.
H _{6c} : Boredom at workplace mediates the relationship between academicians job autonomy and turnover intention.	Not supported.
H _{6d} : Boredom at workplace mediates the relationship between academicians social support and turnover intention.	Supported.
H _{6e} : Boredom at workplace mediates the relationship between academicians neuroticism personality and turnover intention.	Supported.
H _{6f} : Boredom at workplace mediates the relationship between academicians extroversion personality and turnover intention.	Supported.

In this present study, guidelines provided by Preacher & Hayes, (2008) and Zhao, Lynch, & Chen (2010) were applied for testing mediating effects. The guidelines are:

- a. Step 1: Determining the significance of indirect effects
- b. Step 2: Determining the type of effect of mediation

In determining the significance of indirect effects, it was done by executing the simple calculation of path a multiply by path b. Path a represent the coefficient of the relationship of independent construct and mediator while path b represent the coefficient of the relationship of mediator and dependent construct. As per suggested by Chin, (2010), bootstrapped will be applied to seek for the significance of the indirect effects. This method is preferred because it does required assumption about the data normality. In addition, Sobel test is inappropriate for analyzing indirect effects (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). The outcome of the calculation is as shown in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10: Indirect Effects

Path	Indirect Effect (a*b)	Standard Deviation	t-Statistics
Workload -> Turnover Intention	-0.087*	0.029	3.081
Students Disruptive Behaviour -> Turnover Intention	0.060*	0.025	2.306
Job autonomy -> Turnover Intention	0.016 ^{ns}	0.026	1.050
Social Support -> Turnover Intention	-0.071*	0.027	2.717
Neuroticism -> Turnover Intention	0.166*	0.035	4.748
Extroversion -> Turnover Intention	-0.085*	0.025	3.386

*Significant level at $p < 0.025$; ^{ns} not significant

From Table 4.10, there are five significant indirect effects and one insignificant indirect effect which refer to the relationship between job autonomy and turnover intention. The results indicate that all the proposed mediation linkages among antecedent factors with boredom and turnover intention are significantly supported except for job autonomy which means the H_{6c} has to be rejected. This is because mediation always occurs when the indirect effects are found to be significant (Nitzl, Roldan, & Cepeda, 2016). Hence, the remaining 5 antecedent factors will be analysed for mediation effect using Step 2.

In this present study, there are confirmed five mediation effects taking place. Although there is one path with insignificant indirect effect, it still shall be further analysed to determine the relationship either directional only or no relationship at all for mediation. There are few types of mediation effect namely full mediation, partial mediation and no mediation effect. In Step 2, the focus of analysis is towards the significance of direct effect (c'). The significance of the c' will reveal the mediation effect.

Table 4.11: Direct Effects

Path	Direct Effect (c')	Standard Deviation	t-Statistics
Workload -> Turnover Intention	-0.049 ^{ns}	0.054	1.000
Students Disruptive Behaviour -> Turnover Intention	0.106*	0.048	2.092
Job autonomy -> Turnover Intention	0.035 ^{ns}	0.058	0.909
Social Support -> Turnover Intention	-0.241*	0.056	4.375
Neuroticism -> Turnover Intention	0.143*	0.055	2.587
Extroversion -> Turnover Intention	0.033 ^{ns}	0.045	0.790

*Significant level at $p < 0.025$; ^{ns} not significant

The path coefficient of the relationship between workload and turnover intention are found to be ($\beta = -0.049$, ns), which suggests that the effect of workload on turnover intention is fully mediated by boredom at workplace.

The path coefficient of the relationship between students' disruptive behaviour and turnover intention are found to be ($\beta = 0.101$, $p < 0.025$) which suggests that the effect of students' disruptive behaviour on turnover intention is partially mediated by boredom at workplace. As the path coefficient for indirect and direct effects are showing the same direction, in this present study, a positive sign, it can be concluded that it is a Complementary Partial Mediation (Baron & Kenny, 1986). The path coefficient of the relationship between social support and turnover intention are found to be ($\beta = -0.241$,

p<0.025) which suggests that boredom also partially mediate the relationship between social support and turnover intention.

As the path coefficient for indirect and direct effects are showing the same direction, in this present study, a negative sign, it can be concluded that it is a Complementary Partial Mediation (Baron & Kenny, 1986). The path coefficient of the relationship between job autonomy and turnover intention are found ($\beta=0.035$, ns) which suggests that boredom has no mediating effect at all on the relationship between job autonomy and turnover intention. The path coefficient of the relationship between extroversion and turnover intention are found to be ($\beta=0.033$, ns), which suggests that the effect of extroversion on turnover intention is fully mediated by boredom at workplace

4.5.3 Variance Accounted For (VAF)

Although the hypotheses related to mediation had been proven, the strength of the mediation remains unknown. The result using direct and indirect effects only can tell generally boredom fall in which category of mediation. In this present study, VAF will be applied to examine the strength of the mediation using the formula as follows.

$$VAF = \frac{\text{Indirect Effect}}{(\text{Indirect} + \text{Direct}) \text{ Effect}}$$

Table 4.12: VAF Value

Path	Indirect Effect (a*b)	Direct Effect (c')	VAF value (%)	Mediation
Workload -> Turnover Intention	0.087*	0.049 ^{ns}	63.97	Partial
Students Disruptive Behaviour -> Turnover Intention	0.060*	0.106*	36.14	Partial
Job autonomy -> Turnover Intention	0.016 ^{ns}	0.035 ^{ns}	-	No
Social Support -> Turnover Intention	0.071*	0.241*	22.76	Partial
Neuroticism -> Turnover Intention	0.166*	0.143*	53.72	Partial
Extroversion -> Turnover Intention	0.085*	0.033 ^{ns}	72.03	Partial

From the Table 4.12, the strength for the path of extroversion to turnover intention is the strongest with 72.03% VAF value followed by workload (63.97%), neuroticism (53.72%), students' disruptive behaviour (36.14%), and social support (22.76%). The VAF value for job autonomy is not required because the significance test has proved that boredom has no mediation effect at all to the relationship.

The rule of thumb in evaluating VAF is that for any value less than 20%, it can be concluded that mediation is absent, value falls in between 20% to 80%, it can be characterized that partial mediation took place while more than 80% indicates full mediation (Hair *et al.*,2016). Obviously, none of the path falls under the category of full mediation as per VAF value. Although significance test disclose that boredom fully mediated the relationship of extroversion and workload towards turnover intention, the VAF value has yet reaching the benchmark of 80%. Therefore, it shall not be assumed to be fully mediated but partially mediated (Hair *et al.*,2016).

a) Relationship between Workload, Boredom at Workplace and Turnover Intention

The current finding shows that boredom partially mediates the direct relationship of workload and turnover intention. As proclaimed by JD-R theory, job demands increase negative outcome via job burnout. It was proven by scholars around the globe that academicians who possessed heavy workload were closely associated to job burnout and positively related to turnover intention (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Nishimura *et al.*, 2014; Jdaitawi *et al.*, 2014 and Wen *et al.*, 2016).

According to control value theory, employees well-being is intimately related to their ability to control and value a task. Positive well-being drive employee to perform positively while negative well-being lead to negative performance outcome. The academicians perception towards workload determine their well-being. When academicians regard heavy workload as challenge, they may have lesser tendency to experience boredom and less likely to have the turnover intention.

This situation is supported where academicians through interview mentioned that as they are loaded, they spend most of their time dealing with the work. They need to attend meetings and conference, make appropriate resource arrangement, prepare teaching materials and contents, entertain students queries, prepare and mark examination papers, prepare progress report to superior and many more. They are actively engaged. Therefore, it is unlikely for boredom to strike on them as well as turnover intention.

However, current findings are valid to certain extent. There is no doubt that having much to do will decrease boredom at workplace and turnover intention. But, it is good to note that the existence of workload tolerance among academicians. Every academicians have different workload tolerance. Some are capable in taking heavy workload and perform well while some might struggle. By knowing the tolerance of workload, it helps in reducing boredom experience and turnover intention.

One of the interviewee revealed that she was over burdened with workload inclusive administrative work that she was not familiar with. She could not execute her work well and she was being challenged for that. She get bored because she could not handle most of the jobs and tends to have the intention to quit.

Interviewee 4:

“Due to lack of experience, I was frequently questioned by the management. I feel that I am not productive because I don’t know what to deliver and expect. From there, I start to get bored being a leader because I don’t know how to lead a department. It ever comes to my mind to quit my job”.

(College head of department, 37 years old)

It is noted that overloaded could also promote boredom. According to Yerkes–Dodson law, there is an optimum working performance for every employees. Initially, when employees are loaded within their ability, they can perform well up to a certain point. As they are overloaded, they become stress out because they have too much to do within the same time frame. In addition, overloaded also caused by accumulation of the unsolved task due to

inexperience and lack of support. As time goes by, the job itself becomes unpleasant and unchallenging as it does not stimulate academicians to participate in the work. Therefore, academicians feel bored and quit their job.

b) Relationship between Students' Disruptive Behavior, Boredom at Workplace and Turnover Intention

The present result revealed that boredom partially mediates the direct relationship of students' disruptive behaviour and turnover intention. Teaching is a challenging task and academicians are expected to impart knowledge to the students effectively. In order to achieve that, academicians are to invest effort intellectually and emotionally. The closer they are with students, the easier the knowledge is being transferred (Liljestrom, Roulston, & deMarrais, 2007).

However, students' disruptive behaviours had reduced the interaction between academicians and students. The common disruptive behaviors found in class are sleeping, talking, messaging, playing video games and cell phones in the class (Hubbell & Hubbell, 2010). It was noted via interview that academicians tends to ignore disruptive students who are in a range of 5-10% of total students in a class. As the quantity is small, it is not worth to focus on them because there are still majority students who are keen to learn.

In addition, the presence of these disruptive students does affect the well-being of academicians in conducting the class. Academicians get bored when they need to confront disruptive students who are not in the class to learn. They attended the class in order to

fulfill the requirement for the sake of final examination. When they are in the class, they played phone and electronic games, talking to each other, enter and exit the class freely, and sleeping. In fact, some are revising other subjects when there is examination going on.

Interviewee 5:

“It is common nowadays to find students playing phone and games when they are not interested with the subject or sometime dislike their lecturers. They bound to disrespect and disobey their lecturer. Their present in class is just for the sake of attendance and not to learn”.

(University lecturer, 37 years old)

Academicians added they preferred to interact with disruptive students at the surface level (lecturer and students relationship) only. One of them who are attached with college mentioned that students display more disruptive behaviors when they get more intimate because students treat them as their friend. There is no clear definition of role in the class and therefore tend to challenge the teaching and instructions from academicians.

Interviewee 1:

“I tend to ignore those disruptive students. I am aware that if I were to correct them to frequent, they will lodge complaint to the management. So better keep a distance with them and deliver my lecture to those who are interested.”

(College lecturer, 30 years old)

Interviewee 2:

“The smaller the class size, the closer I will be with my students because I can focus on them. However, as we get closer, students tend to treat me as their friend and to a certain point disrespect me as their lecturer. So I personally will keep a distance from them.”

(University lecturer, 30 years old)

Therefore, correcting them requires much greater psychology and emotional effort which explains the reason for academicians to disregard disruptive students in class. There is lack of healthy interaction in the class among students. Mostly will be one way communication. Across time, academicians get bored in teaching them because lecturing becomes a routine just to complete their daily teaching plan. In other words, the job becomes unchallenging as they are not able to create meaning from the disruptive students which ultimately boost turnover intention.

c) Relationship between Job Autonomy, Boredom at Workplace and Turnover Intention

Job autonomy is categorized as one of the job resources. According to JD-R theory, job resources are expected to produce positive outcomes via positive wellbeing (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Xanthopoulou *et al.*, 2007; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Lin *et al.*, 2009; Buys & Rothmann, 2010; Nahrgang, Morgeson, & Hofmann, 2011; SheeMun *et al.*, 2013; Gozukaraa & Simsek, 2015). Logically when academicians are empowered, it creates greater responsibilities and trust in them to execute their work. It enable academicians to

learn, grow and lead (Manz & Sims, 2001). It infers that with job autonomy, boredom can be reduce so as the turnover intention.

But in this present study, boredom has no mediating effect on the relationship of job autonomy and turnover intention. Empowerment does not significantly lead academicians to feel bored or excited. As majority of the respondents (82.4%) are lecturer who are expected to deliver lecture only, job autonomy seems irrelevant to them. They are to conduct their class, prepare and mark their examination papers. There is not much job autonomy involved at their level.

In fact, academicians do not bother about job autonomy. They knew clearly that their scopes of work are to deliver lecture, examine the students, marking and report to their superior. So long as they fulfill these requirements, they are considered done with their job.

Interviewee 3:

“I don’t need any job autonomy. I believe it will add more burden to my current workload.

I am a lecturer, I know my scope of work and I will just do it.”

(College lecturer, 32 years old)

There is no need for job autonomy or empowerment because that is what they are expected to do. They have clear definition of their scope of work and they execute their job accordingly. Hence, boredom are irrelevant in this context which explains the current finding that shows boredom has no mediating effect in the relationship of job autonomy and turnover intention.

However, job autonomy is important as the academicians possessed higher rank in academia especially head of department or dean. One of them revealed that such job autonomy is a must for them in leading and making decision in order to blossom the department in term of productivity, teamwork and students recruits. She emphasized proper alignment of job autonomy is good, however, too much is equal to an increase in workload that may lead her to get bored instead of getting excited. Once she gets bored, it may increase her possibility to quit the job.

d) Relationship between Social Support, Boredom at Workplace and Turnover Intention

As per JD-R theory, social support promotes positive wellbeing at workplace and produce positive outcomes (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Rothmann & Jordaan, 2006; Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006; Xanthopoulou *et al.*, 2009; Buys & Rothmann, 2010; Wu *et al.*, 2013; Inoue *et al.*, 2013; Li *et al.* , 2014; Gozukaraa & Simsek, 2015; Alzyoud, Othman, & Isa, 2015; and Othman, Ahmad, & Ghazali, 2015). In this present study, boredom was found to be partially mediates the direct relationship of social support and turnover intention. By default, social support encouraged employees to work eagerly and continuously indulge in their job which impedes boredom at workplace and hence reduced turnover intention.

In reality, academicians are reporting to exert moderate high workload yet establish strong social support at workplace. Academicians reported that they have strong social support at their workplace. They felt that they are socially supported when they faced situation such

as sick leave, class and invigilator replacement, students bad attitude, and work related problems. Co-workers are willing to help each other to solve problems. One of the them revealed that she loves her job because her colleagues are friendly and they openly share their problems be it work related or personal matter. She disclosed that she often get motivated from her senior co-workers who are more experience in lecturing and handling class. This encouraged her to share problems encountered in class frequently.

Interviewee 1:

“I have a good social support. My colleagues give me advice on how to handle student and class. Whenever I encounter problems I will share with my them and I learn from there.”

(College lecturer, 30 years old)

Interviewee 3:

“We share our difficulties either at workplace or personal matter among ourselves as we are placed under one room. The sharing culture is there. No one feel ashamed to ask. Through sharing, we encourage each other.”

(College lecturer, 32 years old)

Another academician mentioned that he was socially supported in terms of work related problems especially dealing with students. He was inexperience in handling class. With the “moderator mechanism” introduced by the university management, he was able to assemble professional opinions and work ethnics in dealing with students. In such cases, both are able to counter challenges and create meaning in their profession. With the support given by co-workers directly or indirectly, they rarely felt bored at workplace. The

profession become more exciting and challenging. In fact, they were stimulated when they encounter problems and therefore, avoiding turnover intention.

e) Relationship between Neuroticism, Boredom at Workplace and Turnover Intention

Neuroticism is a negative personality trait that highly correlated with negative performance outcome such as job dissatisfaction (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002) and health impairment (Bakker *et al.*, 2010). In addition, neuroticism is positively related to job burnout (Burisch, 2002, De Vries & Van Heck, 2002; and Langelaan *et al.*, 2006). According to JD-R theory, any event that leads employees to experience job burnout will foster negative performance outcome. By default, it can be anticipated that neuroticism elevate boredom and turnover intention. Such forecast is consistent with present study.

Boredom was found partially mediated the direct relationship between neuroticism and turnover intention. Meaning, academicians who are having stronger neuroticism personality traits are highly prone to get bored at workplace and hence, increase the possibility for them to have the intention to quit their job. Such result could be explained by academicians with neuroticism personality traits does not view the world positively. Spector *et al.*, (2000) argued that they interpret most of the event negatively and have low tolerance towards challenging job.

According to the academicians, neuroticism personality does not evolved immediately in the profession. When they first joined in the academia, they were excited to share their knowledge and working experience with the students. Across time, they started to get

clearer picture about the profession. It is not just about sharing. It covers responsibilities, workload which physically and mentally drained, management with bureaucracy approach, relationship with co-workers and students and many more aspects that need to be fulfilled in order to be a successful academician (Hughes, Tapp & Hughes, 2015).

Interviewee 2:

“In my opinion, neuroticism personality become more dominant after certain years on employment. As workload, responsibilities and expectation increases, a person true personality can only be revealed.”

(University lecturer, 30 years old)

However, not every academicians have that direction in mind. Certain academicians may reject such challenge. They prefer easy and less mindful job. With such mindset, personality starts to shift from excitement to neuroticism. Senior academicians who had been in the industry more than 5 years confessed that they easily grumble when they are expected to do more especially marketing and managerial task as well as consulting students. In that sense, they hardly find the true meaning of their profession which enable boredom to strike on them easily. They may find the job not rewarding and dull which further boost their intention to change their job.

f) Relationship between Extroversion, Boredom at Workplace and Turnover Intention

Extroversion is a positive personality trait that highly correlated with positive performance outcome such as job satisfaction (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002) and organizational commitment (Bakker *et al.*, 2010). In addition, extroverts promote positive performance outcome via positive well being (work engagement) at workplace. According to JD-R theory, any event that lead employees to experience work engagement will stimulate positive performance outcome. As they are engaged, they indulged in the job. They appreciate opportunities given and will try their best to get it solved or done within the stipulated time. By default, it can be anticipated that extroverts thwart boredom and therefore, minimize turnover intention.

In this present study, boredom was found partially mediated the direct relationship between extroversion and turnover intention. Academicians who are extroverts are less likely to get bored at workplace and hence, reduce the possibility for them to have the intention to quit their job. This is parallel with the findings from the interview where academicians reported they are able to take new challenges such as teaching new subject and involved in administrative work.

One of the interviewee mentioned that she was positive and enthused when she was promoted to be head of department despite the position comes with higher job expectation. She tried to cope with the managerial task without compromising the teaching aspect. Another academician reported that he was excited to get feedback from student evaluation

on his delivering method, material preparation, language, timing and professionalism. He shared that he will request for training if he found there was a consistent weaknesses evaluated by the students every semester. He wanted to stay competitive and being someone who is truly respected by students in term of knowledge, expertise, and professional. Such result explained that extroverts are academicians with positive, energized, and active towards their profession (McCrae & Costa, 2003). Such personality nurtures positive well being (Keyes, Shmotkin, & Ryff, 2002) and claimed to possessed lower level of boredom as compare to introverts (O'Hanlon, 1981). With such working spirit and attitude, boredom is unlikely to take place and finally lower the intention to quit among academicians.

Interviewee 2:

“The most rewarding part every semester is when you get a feedback from students on your performance in lecture delivering, knowledge sharing and attitude in class. Student evaluation is a self reflection on my working style. If there is any area which I found to be poor at for consecutive semester, I would request for training in that particular area.”

(University lecturer, 30 years old)

Interviewee 4:

“When I was being promoted, I feel so excited and more positive about my job. Although I am new and inexperience, I put my best effort to coordinate and fulfill the expectation from the management as a head of department.”

(College head of department, 37 years old)

4.5.4 Moderating Effect of Age

Demographic factor of age is formally hypothesized as per Table 4.13 to be moderator in the relationship between boredom at workplace and turnover intention. However, such relationship was found absent in this present study.

Table 4.13: Results of Moderation Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis	Results
H ₇ : Age moderate the relationship between boredom at workplace and turnover intention such that the relationship is weaker for older/senior academicians.	Not Supported

Table 4.14: Results of Moderating Effect of Age

	β	<i>S.E</i>	<i>T-Stats</i>	<i>p</i>
AGE*Boredom --> Turnover Intention	0.025	0.039	0.660	0.255

Table 4.14 illustrates the moderating effect of age on the relationship between boredom at workplace and turnover intention ($\beta=0.025$, $t=0.660$). Obviously, the p-value has exceeded the acceptable significant interval confidence of 95 percent which means hypothesis H₇ has to be rejected. Meaning, the positive relationship of boredom and turnover intention occur at workplace regardless to the academicians' age. As long as the academicians experience boredom at workplace, it is positively attached to their intention to quit.

a) Age as Moderator

In this present study, age was not a moderator between boredom at workplace and turnover intention. It was found that there is no moderation effect took place in the positive association between boredom and turnover intention. This finding is new and contradicts to

what had been discussed in the literature. Past studies such as Ferres, Traveglione, & Firms (2002), Carbery *et al.*, (2003), Karatepe *et al.*,(2006), Kim & Jogaratnam (2010) and Emiroglu, Akova, & Tanriverdi (2015) emphasized the existence of direct relationship of age on turnover intention. The older employees prefer to stay in the organization instead of being “nomad” as compared to the younger employees which supports the H₇ in this present study. But this association does not exist when it deals with boredom.

Everyone experience boredom. Boredom is short lived (Keltner & Gross, 1999) and it gets less intense along with time (Wilson & Gilbert, 2008). Employees will seek alternative stimuli to stay engaged with current activity. By failing to retrieve excitement, the current activity becomes meaningless. That’s when boredom strikes. However, if they are able to get alternative stimuli, they remain engaged. This was in accordance to what academicians reported that they were excited at the beginning of their employment. As they carry on, there was less opportunity for them to create excitement such as heavy workload, students’ disruptive behavior and neuroticism personality which favors boredom. They are bored because they have too much to do but meaningless.

Moreover, one of the university lecturers mentioned that he started to feel bored for teaching the same subjects for three semesters after one year employment at the age of 26. Moreover, the head of department of a college added that she felt bored teaching for five years without any career progression at the age of 29. Her boredom started to get faded after she was promoted to lead a department where more opportunities were given to create excitement in term of empowerment. Thus, boredom strikes academician regardless age and it can be reduced by injecting empowerment, subject rotation, and reasonable

workload. As long as this matter is taken care, age is independent to the direct relationship between boredom and turnover intention.

4.6 Summary

This chapter presents the details of data analysis to assess measurement model and structural model which covers the aspects of data screening, reliability and validity. Smart PLS, is a technique that considered appropriate to estimate proposed hypotheses and structural model with its flexibility in modeling reflective constructs. In this present study, most proposed hypotheses are found significant except the direct effect of job autonomy, mediation effect of boredom on job autonomy and the moderation effect of age against boredom and turnover intention.

The results showed that workload, students' disruptive behaviour, social support, neuroticism and extroversion are predicting boredom at workplace and as the occurrence of boredom increases, it positively boosting job burnout and affecting turnover intention.

CHAPTER 5

IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, a conclusion is written on the findings of the research, with consideration of the reviewed literature regarding boredom in the workplace. It also includes the hypotheses which have been presented in Chapter 2. Following that, a number of implications and recommendations that can be formulated from the research are presented in the next sections of this chapter.

5.2 Research Summary

This study aims to explore how the demand from work, the resources of the job, and personality traits are associated with boredom in the workplace and the turnover intention. Furthermore, being the mediator in the association between the demand from work, the resources of the job, and personality with turnover intention, the role of boredom in the workplace was investigated. Moreover, in order to determine the impact of employee's age on the direct association between boredom at workplace and turnover intention, this particular variable was made to be a moderator for this function. It is also worth noting that the development of the research model was based on the JD-R theory, with the minor improvement that involved the personality variable. As for the samples for this research, a total of 278 respondents who consisted of the academicians from PHEIs in Sarawak were selected.

As for the assessment of the research hypotheses, Smart PLS 3.0 was implemented. Furthermore, the development of the measurement model was originally based on the literature. The evaluation of each indicator in the measurement model was conducted in the aspect of their loading value which those lower than 0.4 were removed. This is to develop a valid and reliable structural model for the current research to be conducted. As for the evaluation in the research, it consisted of two parts, namely the evaluation of the direct and indirect association. Table 5.1 presents all of the results of the research.

Table 5.1: Overall Research Results

Hypotheses	Results
H _{1a} : There is a negative relationship between the workload carried by academicians and boredom in the workplace.	Supported.
H _{1b} : There is a negative relationship between the unmanageable conducts of students and boredom in the workplace.	Not supported.
H _{2a} : There is a negative relationship between job and boredom in the workplace.	Not supported.
H _{2b} : There is a negative relationship between social support and boredom in the workplace.	Supported.
H _{3a} : There is a negative relation between academicians with neuroticism characteristics and boredom in the workplace.	Supported.
H _{3b} : There is a negative relation between academicians with extroverted characteristics and boredom in the workplace.	Supported.
H ₄ : There is a positive relation between boredom among academicians and exhaustion from work.	Supported.
H ₅ : There is a positive relation between boredom among academicians and the turnover intention.	Supported.
H _{6a} : Boredom in the workplace is the mediator of the association between the burden carried by academicians in the work and the turnover intention.	Supported.

Table 5.1 continued

H _{6b}	: Boredom in the workplace is the mediator of the association between the unmanageable conducts by students and the turnover intention.	Supported.
H _{6c}	: Boredom in the workplace is the mediator of the association between the autonomy among academicians in the workplace and the turnover intention.	Not supported.
H _{6d}	: Boredom in the workplace is the mediator of the association between the social support received by academicians and the turnover intention.	Supported.
H _{6e}	: Boredom in the workplace is the mediator of the association between the neurotic characteristics among academicians and the turnover intention.	Supported.
H _{6f}	: Boredom in the workplace is the mediator of the association between the extroverted characteristics of academicians and the turnover intention.	Supported.
H ₇	: Age is the mediator of the association between boredom in the workplace and the turnover intention intention, where this association is not significant among older/senior academicians.	Not Supported

In respect with the evaluation on the direct association, hypotheses H1a, H1b, H2a, H2b, H3a, and H3b indicated that the elements of personality(neurotic and extroverted behaviours), job resources (job autonomy and social support), and demand from work (burden in workplace and students' unmanageable conducts) were assessed with the involvement of boredom in the workplace variable. On the other hand, the direct association between boredom in the workplace and the turnover intention was investigated with the reference to Hypothesis 4. Subsequently, it was found that the relationship between extroverted personalities, the burden in the workplace, and social support with boredom in the workplace was negative. On the contrary, the unmanageable conducts of

students, neurotic personalities, and job autonomy had a positive relationship with boredom in the workplace. Additionally, exhaustion in work (H4) and the turnover intention (H5) were the outcomes of boredom in the workplace.

As for the evaluation on the indirect relationship, hypotheses H6a, H6b, H6c, H6d, H6e, and H6f indicated that boredom in the workplace was the mediator of the association of demand from work, personal qualities, and job resources with turnover intention. Moreover, it could be seen from the research results that the relationships between all variables other than job autonomy and the turnover intention were mediated by boredom in the workplace. In addition, no moderating impact was posed by the age variable on the positive association between boredom in the workplace and the turnover intention.

5.3 Research Implication

5.3.1 Theoretical Implications

The findings of the current research have provided positive implications to the growth of the body of knowledge regarding boredom in the workplace from the perspective of JD-R theory. The main focus of previous works of research on JD-R theory was particularly the effect of high job resources and demand (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner & Schaufeli, 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Bakker, Demerouti & Verbeke, 2004; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). It was highlighted by these scholars that high demand from work gives adverse impacts on employees' wellbeing. This would negatively affect their working performance. On the other hand, high job resources provide

positive outcomes to employees' wellbeing, which allows a positive working performance from them. However, works of research on the effects of low job resources and demands on the wellbeing and working performance of employees are scarce in amount. As for the current research, the relationship of demands from work (burden in the workplace), personality traits (extroverted personalities), and job resources (social support) with boredom in the workplace was found to be negative. Besides, the tendency of boredom among academicians in the workplace can decrease through a reasonable amount of workload, extroverted personalities, and the provision of support.

On the contrary, demand from work (the unmanageable conducts of students), personality (neurotic behaviors), and job resources (job autonomy) had a positive association with boredom in the workplace. It is also worthy to note that contradiction was present in some of the findings to what was expected from JD-R theory. This contradiction indicated that the negative association between demand from work and job resources and boredom in Malaysia's academic context does not apply to all demands from work and job sources. To illustrate this point, demand from work, such as the unmanageable conducts of students, elevates the level of academician's boredom. Therefore, with the increase in the occurrence of unmanageable conducts by students, higher level boredom will be experienced by academicians in the workplace. This is because instead of encouraging the academicians in their work, this type of conduct demotivates them mentally. This negative experience will keep on revolving around the academicians provided if they are in charge of a class of students with the same behaviors.

On the other hand, when it comes to job resources (job autonomy), academicians will have a higher tendency of experiencing boredom in the workplace with the provision of higher job autonomy. This is due to their low level of tolerance towards work. To illustrate this point, job autonomy is seen as another way of adding more burdens to their work instead of the appreciation of the importance of empowerment in PHEIs. Therefore, these constructs do not support the present hypothesis.

It was argued by Reijseger *et al.*, (2013) and Mercer-Lynn, Bar, & Eastwood (2014) that the occurrence of boredom is motivated by the individuals and work factors. For this reason, personalities were taken into account in this study as one of the factors of boredom in the workplace. In the current research, in order to take personality as one of the factors of boredom among academicians in the workplace, an extension of the JD-R theory was done. Subsequently, the presence of an association between extroverted and neurotic personalities and the academician's boredom in the workplace was evident through the findings of the current research. To be specific, extroverts showed negative reaction towards boredom, while the higher possibility of boredom occurred to academicians with neurotic personalities. This occurred as extroverts possess higher tolerance of work and a more positive mentality. With these characteristics, extroverts can keep on advancing further in their working performance and accept new challenges. With this, extroverts can prevent themselves from boredom in the workplace.

The extension of the JD-R theory was also done through the inclusion of boredom in the workplace as the mediator in this research. As a result, it was shown that the relation of burden in the workplace, unmanageable conducts among students, neurotic and extroverted

personalities, and social support with the turnover intention due to boredom in the workplace was both direct and indirect. Through the current research findings, new empirical evidence was provided to the body of knowledge on the mediation impact of boredom. This impact is perceived by JD-R theory as negative to an individual's wellbeing. The conclusion that can be drawn from the findings is that the antecedent of the turnover intention is the boredom experienced by academicians for certain duration. This is the duration where the recovery process could no longer contribute to excitement at work. Through the illustration on the presence of the indirect, however significant impact of boredom in the workplace, empirical confirmation on the clear proof regarding the mediating role of boredom in the perspective of JD-R theory has been made.

5.3.2 Practical Implications

Barkhuizen & Rothmann (2008), Guglielmi *et al.*, (2013) and Reijseger *et al.*, (2013) suggested that the issue of boredom in the workplace has not been receiving much attention from human resource practitioners. Therefore, the number of practical recommendations made for resolutions to this issue is low. However, due to the positive association of boredom in the workplace with the turnover intention, resolving this issue is highly crucial. Therefore, with a proper management of boredom in the workplace, the turnover intention can be reduced.

It was found in the current research that the unmanageable conducts of students, neurotic personalities, and job autonomy are the factors of boredom in the workplace. Furthermore, there are several implications found in the research findings for the PHEIs in Malaysia.

One of the implications is that it is recommended that the management section under PHEI holds training programs related to class management for academicians in order to curb the issue associated with the unmanageable conducts of students. This is because they lack the expertise in class management despite having the expertise in their field (Seidman, 2005). Therefore, the relationship between academicians with students can be deepened through the improvement of the academicians' class management. This approach provides a better result compared to academicians-students interaction on the surface level which can hamper the transfer of knowledge, besides turning their roles as academicians a routine. Another example of an improvement to this issue is the use of technology (Ipad or tablets) which can help students from the Gen Y generation in enhancing their understanding of the content of the lessons in class.

The second implication is associated with job autonomy. Although boredom in the workplace is not the mediator of the association between job autonomy and the turnover intention, the direct and positive association between this variable and job autonomy is still present. From the absence of mediation effect, it is indicated that job autonomy is an issue that is not closely focused by academicians, especially lecturers. Therefore, it can be said that job autonomy is not a major factor in the attempt of turnover. However, through job autonomy, the occurrence of academician's boredom in the workplace can multiply. For this reason, it is recommended that the PHEIs' management provide academicians with the permission of being in charge of different subjects annually instead of being in charge of the same subjects. With this, task repetition can be curbed. Besides, job autonomy can also function through the improvement of academicians with new subjects through the management of PHEI.

The third implication is the responsibility of PHEIs management in managing the issue of academicians with neurotic characteristics. With this personality, boredom will frequently occur to academicians, hence increasing the probability of the turnover intention. The outcome of this is the negative perspective that academicians have of the world. For this reason, it is recommended that the PHEIs management identifies the number of academicians with this type of personality and organizes them into separate groups in advance. Additionally, the most recommended method is to group them together with extroverts. Based on a research by (Mas & Moretti, 2009), it was found that the involvement of highly productive employees into a work shift aids the improvement of academicians in a significant amount. This indicates that the positive performance of academicians can be motivated by positive workers. Therefore, it can be predicted that academicians with neurotic behaviors transform their negative point of view towards their career into a positive point of view by working and interacting with extroverts. This is an essential step in the effort of developing into future national leaders.

It is also shown in the research that some of the factors that reduce the academicians' boredom in the workplace and the turnover intention are the burden in the workplace, extroverted personalities, and social support. Therefore, it is recommended that PHEIs management provides a reasonable amount of workload, organizes team-building projects to improve the relationship among academicians, encourages short sharing, and instills more passion in the academicians for students and their career by training and encouraging them. In ensuring a reasonable amount of workload for the academicians, advanced technology and facilities associated with teaching and learning are necessary. This is because with technology, not only the burden carried by academicians can be reduced, the

time they spend with their students and co-workers will increase as well. In addition, it is important for PHEIs management to encourage active participation in training programs, conferences, and seminars among academicians for their professional development. Besides, the time spent in these programs can be utilized for the improvement of the relationship between them. Moreover, in order for the academicians to improve the tolerance of work and take on more challenging jobs for the improved success of the organization, academicians with neurotic personalities should be grouped together with extroverted academicians.

In summary, with the aforementioned recommendations, PHEIs' management will be able to reduce the issue of boredom in the workplace and the turnover intention among the academicians. Furthermore, it was indicated in the research results that for the provision of a reasonable amount of workload, extroverted behavior, and adequate social support are essential for the prevention of boredom in the workplace, which contributes to the decrease of the turnover intention. In addition, in the effort of resolving unmanageable conducts among students, job autonomy, and neurotic behaviors which lead to the occurrence of boredom in the workplace and the turnover intention, more approaches should be implemented. Despite the lack of discussions regarding this issue in Malaysia, identifying the impacts of boredom is important in order to curb the turnover intention among academicians. The variation of approaches in curbing this issue is also an excellent strategy for improving the efficiency of employees (conducive organization climate) for the development of the organization.

5.4 Limitations and Direction for Future Research

This research aims to provide a thorough understanding on the impacts of demand for work, job resources, and personality on the boredom among academicians in the workplace and their association with the academicians' turnover intention. However, the limitation of this research is that it was conducted on the selected PHEIs in Sarawak only. To illustrate this point, the academicians from public universities were not involved in the research. As for the findings, the perception of academicians from PHEIs in Sarawak regarding the issue of boredom in the workplace and their turnover intention were the only variables that were recorded. It should be noted that higher education institutions in the public and private sectors consist of various people with various perspectives. This variation would result in different kinds of demand from work, job resources, and personality which would ultimately lead to a wide range of findings. Therefore, future works of research are necessary in order to conduct more detailed investigations of academicians from higher education institutions in the public sector.

Apart from that, the variables involved in the current research were limited to demand from work (the burden in the workplace and the unmanageable conducts of students), job resources (job autonomy and social support), and personality (neurotic and extroverted personalities). For this reason, it is recommended that other factors such as organizational culture (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014), managerial leadership (Schaufeli, 2015), and personal resources (Xanthopoulou *et al.*, 2007) are investigated in order to provide a new direction for future works of research.

Another limitation of the current research can be seen in the method implemented for the research, which was a cross-sectional methodology. In fact, besides being a simple method of research, it is inexpensive and it can conduct data collection within a short period of time. However, a comprehensive and detailed depiction of the issue of boredom among academicians in the workplace was impossible with this method. This is because boredom in the workplace may be varied across semesters or years in a learning institution, especially when different types of demand from work and job resources are posed on the academicians. Therefore, it is recommended that a longitudinal study is conducted in the future.

Last but not least, the current research was primarily focused on quantitative data supported by the small-scale interview. Instead of solely utilizing quantitative data for research discussion, interviews can provide comprehensive views on the occurrence of boredom among academicians in the workplace. Another reason for not relying on quantitative data alone is that respondents may provide random answers to certain questions. However, with the qualitative approach, respondents will be required to provide further elaboration on the boredom that he or she might have experienced in the workplace. This could give a concrete explanation on how these factors lead to the consequences in a practical way. Therefore, it is highly recommended that the factors of boredom in the workplace are identified through the qualitative method.

In summary, in spite of the presence of several limitations associated with the use of quantitative approach in the research, the research results have provided insightful findings

that will attract the interest of both future researchers and practitioners, provided its exploratory nature.

5.5 Conclusion

This thesis aims to explore the factors and consequences of boredom among the academicians in the workplace of PHEIs in Malaysia. As a result of the research, it was found that the unmanageable conducts of students, job autonomy, and neurotic personalities will increase the occurrence of boredom in the workplace. On the contrary, putting a reasonable amount of workload, adequate social support, and academicians with extroverted behaviors are the approaches for reducing the occurrence of boredom in the workplace. Moreover, the turnover intention is the consequence of boredom among academicians in the workplace. Besides, it was found in the research that academicians who need to be burdened with the demand from work, job resources, and possess neurotic personalities will experience this boredom. For this reason, they have the highest likeliness to quit their job. However, it was also found that no impact is posed by the factor of age on boredom among academicians and their turnover intention.

In conclusion, this research has proposed that providing a reasonable amount of workload, the improvement of the relationship among academicians, and grouping academicians with neurotic personalities with extroverts should be performed in order to reduce the probability of boredom to occur among academicians in the workplace. Academic-wise, this research has provided an extension of the JD-R theory by including the personality variable. This variable is one of the attributes in an individual that play the role as one of

the antecedents of boredom as the mediator in determining the outcome of the organization. Last but not least, it is hoped that with the investigation conducted on the demand from work, job resources, and personality in determining the occurrence of turnover among the academicians, a more concrete comprehension of the impact posed by these factors on the academicians' turnover intention will be achieved.

REFERENCES

- Ahmad, A. (1996). Work-Family Conflict Among Married Professional Women in Malaysia. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 136*(5), 663-665.
- Ahsan, N., Abdullah, Z., Fie, D. G., & Alam, S. S. (2009). A Study of Job Stress on Job Satisfaction among University Staff in Malaysia: Empirical Study. *European Journal of Social Sciences, 8*(1), 121-131.
- Alarcon, G., Eschleman, K., & Bowling, N. (2009). Relationship between personality variables and burnout: a meta-analysis. *Work and Stress, 3*, 244-263.
- Albrecht, S. (2006). Predictors of employee extra-role performance and turnover intentions in the public sector: An integrated model. *International Journal Human of Resource Development and Management, 6*(2/3/4), 263-278.
- Ali, A., & Gracey, D. (2013). Dealing with student disruptive behavior in the classroom - a case of example of the coordination between faculty and assistant dean for academics. *Issues in Informing Science and Information Technology, 10*, 1-15.
- Ali, H. M., & Musah, M. B. (2012). Investigation of Malaysian higher education quality culture and workforce performance. *Quality Assurance in Education, 20*(3), 289-309.
- Allen, M., & Yen, W. (1979). *Introduction to measurement theory*. Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.
- Alreck, P. R., & Settle, R. B. (1995). *The survey research handbook, 2nd Ed*. Chicago: Irwin Professional Publishing.
- Altbach, P. G. (1996). *The international academic profession*. Princeton, NJ: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.
- Alzyoud, A. A., Othman, S. Z., & Isa, M. F. (2015). Examining the role of job resources on work engagement in the academic setting. *Asian Social Science, 11*(3), 103-110.
- Ambrose, M., Seabright, M., & Schminke, M. (2002). Sabotage in the workplace: The role of organizational injustice. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 89*(1), 947-965.
- Ansari, M. A., Ahmad, Z. A., & Aafaqi, R. (2004). Organizational Leadership in the Malaysian Context. In D. Tjosvold, & K. (. Leung, *Leading in high growth Asia: Managing relationship for teamwork and change* (pp. 109-138). Singapore: World Scientific Publishing Co.
- Argyris, P., Koustelios, A., Diggelidis, N., & Hroni, S. (2005). Role conflict, role ambiguity and job satisfaction in a sample of workers. *OEOA"ATHENS 2004", 2*, 15-29.
- Ashforth, B., & Lee, R. (1990). Defensive behavior in organizations: a preliminary model. *Human Relations, 43*(7), 621-648.

- Ashkanasy, N., Hartel, C., & Daus, C. (2002). Diversity and emotion: the new frontiers in organizational behavior and research. *Journal of Management*, 28(3), 307-338.
- Azalea, A., & Mei-Hua, L. (2015). Job satisfaction and turnover intention of Malaysian Lecturers: public Vs private. *7th International Conference on Humanities of Social Sciences ASEAN 2015: Challenges and Opportunities*, (pp. 362-373).
- Azeern, A., & Nazir, N. A. (2008). A Study of Job Burnout Among University Teachers. *Psychology and Developing Societies*, 20(1), 51-64.
- Babbie, E. (1990). *Survey research methods*. 2nd ed. Belmont, Calif: Wadsworth.
- Bailyn, L. (1988). Autonomy in the industrial R&D lab. In R. K. (Ed.), *Managing professionals in innovative organizations. A collection of readings* (pp. 223-236). Cambridge, MA: Ballinger.
- Bakker, A. (2011). An evidence-based model of work engagement. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 20(4), 265-269.
- Bakker, A., & Bal, M. (2010). Weekly work engagement and performance: A study among starting teachers. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 83(1), 189-206.
- Bakker, A., & Demerouti, E. (2007). The job demands-resources model: State of the art. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 22(3), 309-328.
- Bakker, A., & Demerouti, E. (2014). Job Demands-Resources Theory. In P. Y. Chen, & C. L. Cooper, *Work and Wellbeing: A Complete Reference Guide, Volume III* (pp. 1-28). John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Bakker, A., Boyd, C., Dollard, M., Gillespie, N., Winefield, A., & Stough, C. (2010). The role of personality in the job demands-resources model: A study of Australian academic staff. *Career Development International*, 15(7), 622-636.
- Bakker, A., Demerouti, E., & Euwema, M. (2005). Job resources buffer the impact of job demands on burnout. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 10(2), 170-180.
- Bakker, A., Demerouti, E., & Schaufeli, W. (2003b). Dual processes at work in a call centre: An application of the Job Demands-Resources model. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 12(4), 393-417.
- Bakker, A., Demerouti, E., & Verbeke, W. (2004). Using the job demands-resources model to predict burnout and performance. *Human Resource Management*, 43(1), 83-104.
- Bakker, A., Demerouti, E., Boer, E. D., & Schaufeli, W. (2003). Job demands and job resources as predictors of absence duration and frequency. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 62(2), 341-56.
- Bakker, A., Hakanen, J., Demerouti, E., & Xanthopoulou, D. (2007). Job resources boost work engagement particularly when job demands are high. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 99(2), 274-284.

- Bakker, A., Van der Zee, K., Lewig, K., & Dollard, M. (2006). The relationship between the bigfive personality factors and burnout: A study among volunteer counselors. *Journal of Social Psychology, 146*(1), 31–50.
- Bakker, A., Van Veldhoven, M. J., & Xanthopoulou, D. (2010). Beyond the Demand-Control model: Thriving on high job demands and resources. *Journal of Personnel Psychology, 9*(1), 3-16.
- Barbalet, J. (2000). Boredom and social meaning. *British Journal of Sociology, 50*(4), 631-646.
- Barkhuizen, N., & Rothmann, S. (2008). Occupational stress of academic staff in South African higher education institutions. *South African Journal of Psychology, 38*(2), 321-336.
- Baron, R., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*(6), 1173-1182.
- Barrett, L. F., & Russell, J. (1999). The structure of current affect: Controversies and emerging consensus. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 8*(1), 10-14.
- Bashir, S. (2011). Organizational Cynicism Development and Testing of an Integrated Model A Study of Public Sector Employees in Pakistan, Doctoral dissertation, Mohammad Ali Jinnah University, Pakistan.
- Baumeister, R., & Leary, M. (1995). The need to belong: desire for interpersonal attachments as a fundamental human motivation. *Psychological Bulletin, 117*(3), 497-529.
- Beatty, G. (7 Oct, 2015). *News Straits Times Online*. Retrieved 15 Nov, 2015, from News Straits Times Online: <http://www.nst.com.my/news/2015/10/survey-malaysian-youths-are-world%E2%80%99s-%E2%80%98most-bored%E2%80%99>
- Belton, T., & Priyadharshini, E. (2007). Boredom and schooling: A cross disciplinary exploration. *Cambridge Journal of Education, 37*(4), 579-595.
- Bench, S. W., & Lench, H. C. (2013). On the Function of Boredom. *Behavioral Sciences, 3*(3), 459-472.
- Bergmann, T., Lester, S., Meuse, K. D., & Grahn, J. (2000). Integrating the three domains of employee commitment: an exploratory study. *Journal of Applied Business Research, 16*(4), 15-26.
- Berube, M. (2006). What does "Academic freedom" Mean. *American Association of University Professors, 96*(6), 35-28.
- Bogdan, R., & Biklin, S. K. (1998). *Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory and methods. (3rd Ed.)*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Bond, F., & Bunce, D. (2001). Job control mediates change in a work reorganization intervention for stress reduction. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 6*(4), 290-302.

- Borg, M., & Riding, R. J. (1991). Occupational stress and satisfaction in teaching. *British Educational Research Journal*, 17(3), 263-281.
- Bosma, H., Marmot, M., Hemingway, H., Nicholson, A., Brunner, E., & Stansfeld, S. (1997). Low job control and risk of coronary heart disease in the Whitehall II (prospective cohort) study. *British Medical Journal*, 314(7080), 558-564.
- Boyle, G. J., Borg, M. G., Falzon, J. M., & Baglioni, A. J. (1995). A structural model of the dimensions of teacher stress. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 65(1), 49-67.
- Bradley, J., & Eachus, P. (1995). Occupational stress within a U.K higher education institution. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 2(3), 145-158.
- Brewer, E., & Clappard, L. (2002). Burnout and job satisfaction among student support services personnel. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 13(2), 169-186.
- Brief, A., & Weiss, H. (2002). Organizational behavior: affect in the workplace. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 53, 297-307.
- Brigham, K., Castro, J., & Shepherd, D. (2007). A person-organization fit model of owner - managers' cognitive style and organizational demands. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 31(1), 29-51.
- Briscoe, M. L. (1984). *Burnour*. Retrieved 02 December, 2014, from Reflections on Academic Burnout, ADE Bulletin: <http://www.mla.org/ade/bulletin/n079/079001.htm>
- Broeck, J. V., Cunningham, S. A., Eeckels, R., & Herbst, K. (November, 2005). *Data Cleaning: Detecting, Diagnosing, and Editing Data Abnormalities*. Retrieved 16 December, 2016, from ResearchGate: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/7622162_Data_Cleaning_Detecting_Diagnosing_and_Editing_Data_Abnormalities
- Bruursema, K., Kessler, S., & Spector, P. (2011). Bored employees misbehaving: The relationship between boredom and counterproductive work behaviour. *Work & Stress*, 25(2), 93-107.
- Burisch, M. (2002). A longitudinal study of burnout: the relative importance of dispositions and experiences. *Work and Stress*, 16(1), 1-17.
- Burke, R. (1994). Generation-X measure, sex and age differences. *Psychological Reports*, 74(2), 555-663.
- Burke, R. (2010). Workplace stress and well-being across cultures: Research and practice. *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal*, 17(1), 5-9.
- Burns, A. C., & Bush, R. F. (2000). *Marketing research*. 3rd Ed. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Burns, R. (1997). *Introduction to research methods*. (3rd Ed.). Australia: Longman.
- Burrell, G., & Morgan, G. (2005). *Sociological Paradigms and Organisational Analysis*. Burlington, USA: Ashgate Publishing Company.

- Butler, S., & Constantine, M. (2005). Collective Self-Esteem and Burnout in Professional School Counselors. *Professional School Counseling, 9*(1), 55-62.
- Buys, C., & Rothmann, S. (2010). Burnout and engagement of reformed church ministers. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology, 26*(1), 309-328.
- Campagne, D. M. (2012). When Therapist run out of steam: Professional Boredom or Burnout? *Revista de Psicopatología y Psicología Clínica, 17*(1), 75-85.
- Capel, S. A., Sisley, B. L., & Desertrain, G. S. (1987). The Relationship of Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity to Burnout in High School Basketball Coaches. *Journal of Sport Psychology, 9*(2), 106-117.
- Caplan, R., Cobb, S., French, J., Harrison, R., & Pinneau, S. (1975). *Job Demands and Worker Health: Main Effects and Occupational Differences*. Washington DC: US Government Printing Office.
- Carbery, R., Garavan, T., O'Brien, F., & McDonnell, J. (2003). Predicting Hotel Managers' Turnover Cognitions. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 18* (7) , 649-679.
- Carbone, E. (1999). Students Behaving Badly in Large Classes. In S. Richardson, *Promoting Civility: A Teaching Challenge. New Directions for Teaching and Learning* (pp. 35-43). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bas.
- Cartwright, S., & Cooper, C. (2002). *ASSET: The management guide*. Machester: Robertson Cooper Ltd.
- Cekmecelioglu, H. G., & Gunsell, A. (2011). Promoting Creativity Among Employees Of Mature Industries: The Effects Of Autonomy And Role Stress On. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences, 24* , 889-895.
- Celik, K. (2013). The effect of role ambiguity and role conflict on performance of vice principals: the mediating role of burnout. *Egitim Arastirmalari-Eurasian Journal of Educational Research, 51*, 195-214.
- Ceylan, A., & Uluturk, Y. H. (2006). The relationship between role ambiguity, role conflict, job satisfaction and performance. *Dogus University Journal, 7*(1), 48-58.
- Chalatharawat, J. (2007). Job burnout and turnover intentions of public accountants in Thailand: influence of role stress, organizational justice and workload. *Review of Business Research, 7*(6), 92-113.
- Chalmers, A. (1998). *Workload and stress in new zealand universities in 1998: A follow up to the 1994 study*. Wellington: New Zealand Council for Educational Research and The Association of University Staff of New Zealand.
- Chang, K., & Lu, L. (2007). Characteristics of organizational culture, stressors and wellbeing: The case of Taiwanese organizations. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 22*, 549-568.

- Chang, M.-L. (2009). An appraisal perspective of teacher burnout: Examining the emotional work of teachers. *Education Psychology Review*, 21, 193-218.
- Chang, M.-L., & Davis, H. A. (2009). Understanding the role of teacher appraisals in shaping the dynamics of their relationships with students: Deconstructing teachers' judgments of disruptive behavior/students. In P. A. Schutz & M. Zembylas (Eds.), *Advances in teacher emotions research*. New York: Springer.
- Charles, S. T., & Carstensen, L. L. (2007). Handbook of emotion regulation. In J. J. Gross (Eds.), *Emotion regulation and aging* (pp. 307–327). New York: Guilford Press.
- Charlton, J., & Hertz, R. (1989). Guarding against boredom: security specialists in the United States Air Force. *Journal of Contemporary Ethnography*, 18, 299-326.
- Chemingui, H., & lallouna, H. B. (2013). Resistance, motivations, trust and intention to use mobile financial services. *International Journal of Bank Marketing*, 31(7), 574-592.
- Chen, P. Y., & Spector, P. E. (1992). Relationships of work stressors with aggression, withdrawal, theft and substance use: An exploratory study. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 65(3), 177-184.
- Chen, W.-S., Haniff, J., Siau, C.-S., Seet, W., Loh, S.-F., Jamil, M. H., et al. (2014). Burnout in Academics: An Empirical Study in Private Universities in Malaysia. *The International Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities Invention*, 1(2), 62-72.
- Chena, C.-F., & Chenab, S.-C. (2012). Burnout and Work Engagement Among Cabin Crew: Antecedents and Consequences. *The International Journal of Aviation Psychology*, 22(1), 41-58.
- Cheyne, J., Carriere, J., & Smilek, D. (2006). Absent-mindedness: Lapses of conscious awareness and everyday cognitive failures. *Consciousness and Cognition*, 15(3), 578-592.
- Chin, W. (1998). The Partial Least Squares Approach to Structural Equation Modeling. In E. G. A. Marcoulides, *Modern Methods for Business Research* (pp. 295–336). Mahwah, New Jersey, USA: Erlbaum.
- Chin, W. (1998). The Partial Least Squares Approach to Structural Equation Modeling. In G.A.Marcoulides (Ed.), *Modern Methods for Business Research* (pp. 295-336). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Chin, W. (2010). How to Write Up and Report PLS Analyses. In V. C. Esposito Vinzi, *Handbook of Partial Least Squares: Concepts, Methods and Applications* (pp. 655-690). London, New York: Springer Heidelberg Dordrecht.
- Choong, Y.-O., Lau, T.-C., Kuek, T.-Y., & Lee, E.-K. (2012). Job Satisfaction of Malaysian Nurses: A Causal Model. *Journal of Economics and Behavioral Studies*, 4(12), 723-729.
- Choudhury, R. R., & Gupta, V. (2011). Impact of age on pay satisfaction and job satisfaction leading to turnover intention: A study of young working professionals in India. *Management and Labour Studies*, 36 (4), 353-363.

- Christian, M. S., Garza, A. S., & Slaughter, J. (2011). Work engagement: A quantitative review and test of its relations with task and contextual performance. *Personnel Psychology*, 64(1), 89-136.
- Church, A. H. (1993). Estimating the effect of incentives on mail survey response rates: A meta-analysis. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 57, 62-79.
- Churchill, G. A. (1979). A paradigm for developing better measures of marketing constructs. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 16(1), 64-73.
- Clarke, A. (1999). *Evaluation research: An introduction to principles, methods and practice*. Thousands Oaks, CA: Sage Publication.
- Cleary, M., Sayers, J., Lopez, V., & Hungerford, C. (2016). Boredom in the Workplace: Reasons, Impact, and Solutions. *Issues in Mental Health Nursing*, 37(2), 83-89.
- Colligan, M. J. (1979). Mass psychogenic illness in organizations: An overview. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 52, 77-90.
- Conley, S., & Woosley, S. (2000). Teacher role stress, high order needs and work outcomes. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 38, 179-201.
- Constable, J., & Russell, D. (1986). The effect of social support and the work environment upon burnout among nurses. *Journal of Human Stress*, 12(1), 20-26.
- Cooper, C., Dewe, P., & O'Driscoll, M. (2001). *Organizational Stress: Review of Critique of Theory. Research and Applications*. Thousand Oak: CA:Sage.
- Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P. S. (2003). *Business research methods. 8th ed.* New York: McGraw Hill.
- Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P. S. (2008). *Business research methods. 10th Ed.* New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Costa, P., & McCrae, R. (1992). Normal personality assessment in clinical practice: the NEO personaloty inventory. *Psychological Assessment*, 4, 5-13.
- Crane, S. J., & Iwanicki, E. F. (1986). Perceived Role Conflict, Role Ambiguity, and Burnout Among Special Education Teachers. *Remedial and Special Education*, 7(2), 24-31.
- Creswell, J. W. (1994). *Research design: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Crowther, D., & Lancaster, G. (2009). *Research Methods: A Concise Introduction to Research in Management and Business Consultancy*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1975). *Beyond Boredom and Anxiety. Experiencing Flow in Work and Play*. San Fransisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Culp, N. (2006). The relations of two facets of boredom proneness with the major dimensions of personality. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 41, 999-1007.

- Dagli, A. (2006). Burnout levels of secondary school administrators. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 25, 85-89.
- Dahlen, E., Martin, R., Ragan, K., & Kuhlman, M. (2004). Boredom proneness in anger and aggression: effects of impulsiveness and sensation seeking. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 37, 1615-1627.
- Dahlen, E., Martin, R., Ragan, K., & Kuhlman, N. (2005). Driving anger, sensation seeking, impulsiveness and boredom proneness in the prediction of unsafe driving. *Accident Analysis & Prevention*, 37, 341-348.
- Damrad-Frye, R., & Laird, J. D. (1989). The Experience of Boredom: The Role of the Self-Perception of Attention. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 57, 315-320.
- Daniels, K. (2000). Measures of five aspects of affective well-being at work. *Human Relations*, 53, 275-294.
- Darden, D., & Marks, A. (1999). Boredom: a socially disvalued emotion. *Sociological Spectrum*, 19(1), 13-37.
- Darwish, A. (2002). Job satisfaction as a mediator of the relationship between role stressors and organizational commitment: A study from an Arabic cultural perspective. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 17, 250-266.
- Daschmann, E. C., Goetz, T., & Stupnisky, R. H. (2014). Exploring the antecedents of boredom: Do teachers know why students are bored? *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 39, 22-30.
- Davis, H. (2001). The quality and impact of relationships between elementary school students and teachers. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 26, 431-453.
- Day, C., Sammons, P., Stobart, G., Kington, A., & Gu, Q. (2007). *Teachers matter*. New York: Open University Press.
- De Croom, E. M., Sluiter, J., Blonk, R. B., Broersen, J., & Frings-Dresen, M. (2004). Stressful work, psychological job strain, and turnover: A two-year prospective cohort study of truck driver. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(3), 442-454.
- De Vries, J., & Van Heck, G. (2002). Fatigue: relationships with basic personality and temperament dimensions. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 33, 1311-1324.
- DeCharms, R. (1968). *Personal Causation*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Deci, E., & Ryan, R. (1985). *Intrinsic Motivation and Self-determination in Human Behavior*. New York: Plenum Press.
- Demerouti, E., & Bakker, A. B. (2011). The Job Demands-Resources model: Challenges for future research. *Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 37(2), 1-9.
- Demerouti, E., Bakker, A. B., & Fried, Y. (2012). Work-orientations in the job demands-resources model. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 27(6), 557-575.

- Demerouti, E., Bakker, A., & Fried, Y. (2012). Work orientations in the job demands-resources model. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 27(6), 557-575.
- Demerouti, E., Bakker, A., De, J., Janssen, P., & Schaufeli, W. (2001b). Burnout and engagement at work as a function of demands and control. *Scandinavian Journal of Work, Environment and Health*, 27, 279-286.
- Demerouti, E., Bakker, A., Janssen, P., & Schaufeli, W. (2001). Burnout and engagement at work as a function of demands and control. *Scandinavian Journal of Work, Environment & Health*, 27, 279-286.
- Demerouti, E., Bakker, A., Nachreiner, F., & Schaufeli, W. (2001a). The job demands-resources model of burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86, 499-512.
- Department of Statistics Malaysia. (2016). *Services Statistics Education (Private Sector) 2015*. Putrajaya : The Office of Chief Statistician Malaysia.
- Dillman, D. A. (2007). *Mail and internet surveys: The tailored design method. 2nd Ed.* New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.
- Doyle, C., & Hind, P. (1998). Occupational stress, burnout and job status in female academics. *Gender, Work and Organizations*, 5, 67-82.
- Drago, R. (2006). Presente e futuro degli insegnanti: rassegna della ricerca internazionale. *Psicologia dell'Educazione e della Formazione*, 2, 199-223.
- Drory, A. (1982). Individual differences in boredom proneness and task effectiveness at work. *Personnel Psychology*, 35, 141-151.
- Duraisingam, V., & Dollard, M. F. (2006). The management of psychosocial risk factors amongst rural development workers in India. *Personal and Economic Empowerment in Rural Indian Women: A Self-help Group Approach International Journal of Rural Management*, 2, 245-266.
- Duraisingam, V., Pidd, K., & Roche, A. M. (2009). The impact of work stress and job satisfaction on turnover intentions: a study of Australian specialist alcohol and other drug workers. *Drugs: Education, Prevention and Policy*, 16(3), 217-231.
- Dyer-Smith, M., & Wesson, D. (1995). Boredom and expert error. In S. Robertson, *Contemporary Ergonomics* (pp. 56-61). Chichester: John Wiley & Sons.
- Dysvik, A., & Kuvaas, B. (2013). Perceived job autonomy and turnover intention: The moderating role of perceived supervisor support. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 22(5), 563-573.
- Eberhardt, B. J., Pooyan, A., & Moser, S. B. (1995). Moderators of the relationship between job satisfaction and nurses' intention to quit. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 3, 394-406.

- Eby, L., Casper, W., Lockwood, A., Bordeaux, C., & Brindley, A. (2005). Work and family research in IO/OB: Content analysis and review of the literature (1980-2002). *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 66(1), 124-197.
- Eddy, E. R., D'Abate, C. P., & Thurston Jr, P. W. (2010). Explaining engagement in personal activities on company time. *Personnel Review*, 39(5), 639-654.
- Emiroglu, B. D., Akova, O., & Tanriverdi, H. (2015). The relationship between turnover intention and demographic factors in hotel business: A study at five star hotels in Istanbul. *11th International Strategic Management Conference 2015* (pp. 385-397). Istanbul: Elsevier Ltd.
- Emory, C. W., & Cooper, D. R. (1991). *Business research methods*. 4th Ed. Boston: Irwin.
- Evans, S., Huxley, P., Gately, C., Webber, M., Mears, A., Pajak, S., et al. (2006). Mental health, burnout and job satisfaction among mental health social workers in England and Wales. *The British Journal of Psychiatry*, 188, 75-80.
- Evers, W., Tomic, W., & Browsers, A. (2005). Does equity sensitivity moderate the relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and teacher burnout? *Representative Research in Social Psychology*, 28, 35-46.
- Farber, B. (1991). *Crisis in education: Stress and burnout in the American teacher*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Farmer, R., & Sundberg, N. (1986). Boredom proneness: The development and correlates of a new scale. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 50, 4-17.
- Feng, W. C., & Angeline, T. (2010). Turnover Intention and job hopping behaviour of music teachers in Malaysia. *African Journal of Business Management*, 4(4), 425-434.
- Ferguson, D. (1973). A study of occupational stress and health. *Ergonomics*, 16, 649-663.
- Ferres, N., Traveglione, A., & Firms, I. (2002). Attitudinal differences between Generation -X and older employees. *International Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, 6(3), 320-333.
- Fevre, M., Matheny, J., & Kolt, G. (2003). Eustress, Distress, and interpretation in occupational stress. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 18(7), 51-63.
- Fischer, D. G., & Fick, C. (1993). Measuring social desirability: short forms of the Marlow-Crowne social desirability scale. *Education and Psychological Measurement*, 53, 417-424.
- Fish, S. (05 September , 2008). *Academic Freedom Is Not a Divine Right*. Retrieved from <http://chronicle.com/article/Academic-Freedom-Is-Not-a/10461>
- Fisher, C. (1993). Boredom at work: A neglected concept. *Human Relations*, 46, 395-417.
- Fisher, C. (1998). Effects of internal and external interruptions on boredom at work: two studies. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 19, 503-522.
- Fisher, S. (1994). Stress in academic life: The mental assembly line. In *Society for Research into Higher Education* (p. 106). Guildford, England: Open University Press.

- Ford, B., & Kleiner, B. H. (1987). Managing engineers effectively. *Business*, 37, 49–52.
- Foreman, W. (2009). Job Satisfaction and Turnover in The Chinese Retail Industry. *Chinese Management Studies*, 3(4), 356-378.
- Fornell, C., & Bookstein, F. (1982). Two structural equation models: LISREL and PLS applied to consumer exit-voice theory. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 19(4), 440-452.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating Structural Equation Models with Unobservable Variables and Measurement Error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(1), 39–50.
- Fraenkel, J., & Wallen, N. (1993). *How to design and evaluation research in education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Inc.
- Frankfort-Nachmias, C., & Nachmias, D. (1992). *Research methods in the social sciences*. 4th ed. New York: St. Martin's Press.
- Frankl, V. (1984). *Man's search for meaning: An introduction to logotherapy*. New York: Pocket Books.
- Frazer, L., & Lawley, M. (2000). *Questionnaire design and administration*. Brisbane, Australia: John Wiley & Sons.
- Fredrickson, B. (2001). The role of positive emotions in positive psychology: The broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions. *The American Psychologist*, 56(3), 1049-1069.
- French, J., & Caplan, R. (1973). Organizational stress and individual strain. In A. M. (Ed.), *The failure of success*. New York: AMACOM.
- Furnham, A. (1997). Lay theories of work stress. *Work and Stress*, 11(1), 68-78.
- Game, A. (2007). Workplace boredom coping: Health, safety and HR implications. *Personnel Review*, 36, 701-721.
- Ganley, R. M. (1989). Emotion and Eating in Obesity: A Review of the literature. *International Journal of Eating Disorders*, 8(3), 343-361.
- Ganster, D. (1989). *Measurement of worker control*. Final report to the National Institute of Occupational.
- Gardner, M., & Altman, D. (1994). *Statistics with confidence*. London: BMJ.
- Gaylin, W. (1979). Feeling Bored. In W. Gaylin (Ed.), *Feelings: Our vital signs* (pp. 113-129). New York: Harper and Row.
- Gemmill, G., & Oakley, J. (1992). The meaning of boredom in organizational life. *Group & Organization Management*, 17(4), 358-369.
- George, D., & Mallery, P. (2010). *SPSS for Windows step by step, 17.0 Update* . (10th ed.), Boston: Ally & Bacon.

- Gerritsen, C. J., Toplak, M. E., Sciaraffa, J., & Eastwood, J. (2014). I can't get no satisfaction: Potential causes of boredom. *Consciousness and Cognition*, 27, 27-41.
- Gibson, J., Ivancevich, J., & Doneelly, J. (2000). *Organizations: Behavior, Structure, Processes*. 10th Edition, Boston: McGraw-Hill.
- Gillespie, N., Walsh, M., Winefield, A., Dua, J., & Stough, C. (2001). Occupational stress within Australian universities: Staff perceptions of the causes, consequences and moderators of stress. *Work and stress: An international journal of work, health & organisations*, 15(1), 53-72.
- Glaser, B. (1999). The future of grounded theory. *Qualitative Health Research*, 9(6), 836-845.
- Glinow, S., & Von, M. (2008). *Organizational Behavior (4th Ed.)*. McGraw Hill International,.
- Glissmeyer, M., Bishop, J. W., & Fass, R. D. (2007). Role Conflict, Role Ambiguity, and Intention to Quit the Organization: The Case of Law Enforcement Officers. *38th Southwest Decision Sciences Institute Annual Conference*, 458-469.
- Glissmeyer, M., Bishop, J., & Fass, R. (2008). Role conflict, role ambiguity and intention to quit the organization: The case of law enforcement officers. *Academy of Management Journal*, 40(1), 82-111.
- Gmelch, W., & Burns, J. (1994). Sources of stress for academic department chairpersons. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 32(1), 79-94.
- Gmelch, W., & Torelli, J. (1993). The association of role conflict and ambiguity with administrator stress and burnout. *Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association*. Atlanta, GA.
- Gmelch, W., Wolverton, M., Wolverton, M., & Sarros, J. (1999). The academic dean: An imperil species searching for balance. *Research in Higher Education*, 40(6), 717-740.
- Goddard, A. (1998). Facing up to market forces. *Times Higher Education Supplement*, 13, 6-7.
- Goldberg, L. R. (1990). An alternative "description of personality: The Big Five factor Structure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 59, 1216-1229.
- Gormley, D., & Kennerly, S. (2010). Influence of work role and perceptions of climate on faculty organizational commitment. *Journal of Professional Nursing*, 26, 108-115.
- Gotz, O., Liehr-Gobbers, K., & Krafft, M. (2010). Evaluation of structural equation models using the Partial Least Squares (PLS) approach. In V. Inzi, W. Chin, J. Henseler, & Wang, H. (Eds.), *Handbook of Partial Least Squares* (pp. 47-82). London, New York: Springer Heidelberg Dordrecht.
- Gozukaraa, I., & Simsek, O. F. (2015). Linking Transformational Leadership to Work Engagement and the Mediator Effect of Job Autonomy: A Study in a Turkish Private Non-Profit University . *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 195, 963 – 971.

- Graham, J. W. (2012). *Missing Data: Analysis and Design, Statistics for Social and Behavioral Sciences*. New York: Springer Science+Business Media.
- Green, F. (2006). *Demanding Work. The Paradox of Job Quality in the Affluent Economy*. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press.
- Greenberg, J. (2001). *Comprehensive Stress Management*. (7th Ed.), New York: McGraw Hill.
- Greenhaus, J., & Beutell, N. (1985). Sources of conflict between work and family roles. *Academy of Management Review*, 10, 76-88.
- Grose, V. (1989). Coping with boredom in the cockpit before it's too late. *Professional Safety*, 34, 24-26.
- Grubb, E. (1975). Assembly line boredom and individual differences in recreational participation. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 7, 256-269.
- Grzywacs, J., & Marks, N. (2000). Reconceptualizing the work-family interface: An ecological perspective on the correlates of positive and negative spillover between work and family. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 5, 111-126.
- Guba, E., & Lincoln, Y. (1994). Competing paradigm in qualitative research. In N. Denzin, & Y. Lincoln, *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (pp. 105 – 117). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Guglielmi, D., Simbula, S., Mazzetti, G., Tabanelli, M., & Bonfiglioli, R. (2013). When the job is boring: the role of boredom in organizational contexts. *Work*, 45(3), 311-322.
- Gummesson, E. (2000). *Qualitative methods in management research. 2nd Ed.* London: Sage Publications.
- Gursoy, D., Uysal, M., Sirakaya-Turk, E., Ekinici, Y., & Baloglu, S. (2014). *Handbook of scales in tourism and hospitality research*. Oxfordshire: CABI.
- Hackman, J., & Oldham, G. (1975). Development of the job diagnostic survey. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 60, 159-170.
- Hair, J. F., Bush, R. B., & Ortinau, D. J. (2003). *Marketing research within a changing information environment*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Hair, J. F., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2011). PLS-SEM: Indeed a Silver Bullet. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 19(2), 139–151.
- Hair, J. F., William, C. B., Barry, J. B., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Multivariate Data Analysis*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ, USA: Prentice Hall.
- Hair, J., Black, W., Babin, B., Anderson, R., & Tatham, R. (2006). *Multivariate data analysis with readings(6th ed.)*. New York: Pearson Prentice.
- Hair, J., Hult, G., Ringle, C., & Sarstedt, M. (2016). *A Primer on Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM)*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

- Hakanen, J. J., Bakker, B. B., & Schaufeli, W. (2006). Burnout and work engagement among teachers. *Journal of School Psychology, 43*, 495-513.
- Hakanen, J. J., Schaufeli, W. B., & Ahola, K. (2008). The Job Demands-Resources model: A three-year cross-lagged study of burnout, depression, commitment, and work engagement. *Work and Stress, 22*, 224-241.
- Hakanen, J., Bakker, A., & Demerouti, E. (2005). How dentist cope with their job demands and stay engaged: The moderating role of job resources. *European Journal of Oral Sciences, 113*, 1-9.
- Hakanen, J., Perhoniemi, R., & Toppinen-Tanner, S. (2008). Positive gain spirals at work: From job resources to work engagement, personal initiative and work-unit innovativeness. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 73*(1), 78-91.
- Hakanen, J., Schaufeli, W., & Aloha, K. (2008). The job demands-resources model: A three year cross-lagged study of burnout, depression, commitment and work engagement. *Work & Stress, 22*, 224-241.
- Hallberg, L. (2006). The 'core category' of grounded theory: making constant comparisons. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies on Health and Well Being, 1*, 141-148.
- Hallberg, U. E., & Schaufeli, W. (2006). "Same Same" but different: Can work engagement be discriminated from job involvement and organizational commitment? *Journal European Psychologist, 11*(2), 119-127.
- Hamid, R. A., & Ungku Ahmad, U. N. (2014). Job-Demand Resources Model to Explain the Relationship among Work-Family Conflict, Burnout, Social Support and Turnover Intention: A Conceptual Review. *Journal of Advanced Research Design, 1*(1), 42-53.
- Handy, C. B. (1976). *Understanding Organization*. Penguin Education.
- Haprizar, B., Ungku, N., & Aisyah, S. (2005). Organizational commitment among academic staff: the relationship with stage of stress. *Final Research Report*. Centre of Research Management University of Technology Malaysia.
- Harrison, D. (1997). First-degree concern. *People Management, 3*, 36-39.
- Harju, L. K., & Hakanen, J. J. (2015). An employee who was not there: a study of job boredom in white-collar work. *Personnel Review, 45*(2), 374-391.
- Harju, L., Hakanen, J., & Schaufeli, W. (2014). Job Boredom and Its Correlates in 87 Finnish Organizations. *JOEM, 56*(9), 911-918.
- Harkness, J., Villar, A., & Edwards, B. (2010). Translation, adaptation, and design. In M. B.-E. J. A. Harkness, *Survey methods in multinational, multicultural and, multiregional contexts* (pp. 117-140). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Harrison, D. (1997). First-degree concern. *People Management, 3*(25), 36-39.

- Hart, P., Wearing, A., & Headey, B. (1995). Police stress and wellbeing: integrating personality, coping and daily work experiences. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 68, 133-156.
- Harter, J., Schmidt, F., & Hayes, T. (2002). Business-unit level relationship between employee satisfaction, employee engagement, and business outcomes: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 268-279.
- Hashim, R., & Mahmood, R. (2011). What is the state of job satisfaction among academic staff at Malaysian universities? *UNITAR e-Journal*, 7(1), 15-26.
- Hassan, N., Mohammad, A., Mohd, F., Rozilah, A., & Ali, S. (2015). Religiosity Perceptions on Employee Turnover Intention in Malaysia. *International Journal of Social Science and Humanity*, 5(1), 120-125.
- Heijden, G. A., Schepers, J. J., & Nijssen, E. J. (2012). Understanding workplace boredom among white collar employees: Temporary reactions and individual differences. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 21 (3), 349-375.
- Hendrix, W. H., Cantrell, R. S., & Steel, R. P. (1988). Effect of Social Support on the Stress-Burnout Relationship. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 3(1), 67-73.
- Henseler, J., Ringle, C., & Sinkovics, R. (2009). The Use of Partial Least Squares Path Modeling in International Marketing. *Advances in International Marketing*, 20, 277–319.
- Heslop, S. (2014). Driver boredom: Its individual difference predictors and behavioural effects. *Transportation Research Part F*, 22 , 159–169.
- Hill, A., & Perkins, R. (1985). Towards a model of boredom. *British Journal of Psychology*, 76, 235-240.
- Hobfoll, S. (1998). *The psychology and philosophy of stress, culture and community*. New York: Plenum Books.
- Hofstede, G. (8 April, 2016). Retrieved from <https://geert-hofstede.com/malaysia.html>
- Hofstede, G. (2017). *GEERT HOFSTEDE*. Retrieved 26 April, 2017, from <https://geert-hofstede.com/malaysia.html>
- Hofstede, G., & Hofstede, G. J. (2005). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind*. New York: Mcgraw-Hill.
- Hoonakker, P., Carayon, P., & Korunka, C. (2013). Using the JD-R Model to predict turnover in the information technology workforce - General effects and gender differences. *Horizons of Psychology*, 22, 51-65.
- Hoonakker, P., Carayon, P., & Korunka, C. (2013). Using the Job-Demands-Resources model to predict turnover in the information technology workforce - General effects and gender differences. *Horizons of Psychology*, 22, 51-65.

- Hopkin, V. (1990). The human factor aspects of single manning. *The Journal of Navigation*, 43, 346.
- Houtman, I. L., & Kornitzer, M. (1999). The job stress, absenteeism and coronary heart disease european cooperative study (the JACE-study). *Design of a Multi-centre Prospective Study, EJPH*, 9, 52-57.
- Hsieh, Y.-M., & Hsieh, A.-T. (2003). Does job standardization increase job burnout? *International Journal of Manpower*, 24(5), 590-614.
- Hubbell, L., & Hubbell, K. (2010). When a college class becomes a mob: Coping with student cohorts. *College Student Journal*, 44(2), 340-353.
- Huda, B., Rusli, B., Naing, L., Tengku, M., Winn, T., & Rampal, K. (2004). A Study of Job strain and Dissatisfaction among Lecturers in The school of Medical Sciences University Sains Malaysia. *Southeast Asian Journal Tropic Medical Public Health*, 35(1), 210-218.
- Huigang, L., Nilesh, S., Qing, H., & Yajiong, X. (2007). Assimilation of enterprise systems: The effect of institutional pressures and the mediating role of top management. *MIS Quarterly*, 31(1), 59-87.
- Hulland, J. (1999). "Use of Partial Least Squares (PLS) in Strategic Management Research: A Review of Four Recent Studies. *Strategic Management Journal*, 20(2), 195–204.
- Humphrey, S. E., Nahrgang, J. D., & Morgeson, F. P. (2007). Integrating motivational, social and contextual work design features: A meta-analytic summary and theoretical extension of the work design literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92, 1332–1356.
- Idris, M. K. (2011). Over Time Effects of Role Stress on Psychological Strain among Malaysian Public University Academics. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 2(9), 154-161.
- Idris, M., Dollard, M., & Winefield, A. H. (2011a). Integrating psychosocial safety climate in the JD-R model: A study amongst Malaysian workers. *Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 37(2), 11pages.
- Idris, M., Dollard, M., & Winefield, A. H. (2011b). The Effect of Globalization on Employee Psychological Health and Job Satisfaction in Malaysian Workplaces. *Journal of Occupational Health*, 53, 447-454.
- Inoue, A., Kawakami, N., Tsuno, K., Shimazu, A., Tomioka, K., & Nakanishi, M. (2013). Job demands, job resources, and work engagement of Japanese: employees: a prospective cohort study. *International Archives of Occupational and Environmental Health*, 86(4), 441–449.
- Ismail, A., Yao, A., & Yunus, N. K. (2009). Relationship Between Occupational Stress and Job Satisfaction: An Empirical Study in Malaysia. *The Romanian Economic Journal*, 4(34), 3-29.

- Jackson, L., & Rothmann, S. (2006). Occupational stress, Organizational Commitment and Ill health of educators in North West Province. *South African Journal of Education*, 26(1), 75-95.
- Jackson, S. E., & Maslach, C. (1982). After-Effects of job-Related Stress: Families as Victims. *Journal of Occupational Behavior*, 3, 63-77.
- Jackson, S., & Schuler, R. (1985). A meta-analysis and conceptual critique of research on role ambiguity and role conflict in work settings. *Organizational Behavior Human Decision Processess*, 36, 16-78.
- James, B., Madupalli, R., Brian, R., & John, A. (2007). The relationship of facets of salesperson job satisfaction with affective organizational commitment. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 22(5), 311-321.
- Jaschik, S. (10 January, 2013). *Who says academics aren't stressed out?* Retrieved from Who says academics aren't stressed out?: <http://www.theaustralian.com.au/higher-education/who-says-academics-arent-stressed-out/story-e6frgcjx-1226550613135>
- Jdaitawi, M. T., Al-Mutawa, A.-A., Musallam, F., & Talafha, F. (2014). Stress And Psychological Strain Among University Lecturers In Saudi Arabia. *Global Conference on Business and Finance Proceedings*, 9(1), 361-368.
- Jiang, B., Baker, R., & Frazier, G. (2009). An analysis of job dissatisfaction and turnover to reduce global supply chain risk: evidence from China. *Journal of Operations Management*, 27(2), 169-184.
- Jing, L. (2008). Faculty's job stress and performance in the undergraduate education assessment in China: A mixed-methods study. *Educational Research and Review*, 3(9), 294-300.
- Johanson, G. A., & Brooks, G. P. (2010). Initial Scale Development: Sample Size for Pilot Studies. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 70(3), 394-400.
- John, O. P., & Srivastava, S. (1999). The Big-Five Trait Taxonomy: History, Measurement, and Theoretical Perspectives. In L. Pervin and O.P. John (Eds.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and research (2nd ed.)* (pp. 102-138). New York: Guilford Press.
- Johnson, S. (2012). *Disruptions in the the classroom learning you are not along and what to do about it*. West Point, NY: United States Military Academy.
- Johnstone, T., & Scherer, K. (2000). Vocal communication of emotion. In M. Lewis, & J.M. Haviland-Jones (Eds.), *Handbook of emotions (2nd Ed.)* (pp. , 220-235). New York: Guilford Press.
- Judge, T., Heller, D., & Mount, M. (2002). Five-factor model of personality and job satisfaction: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 530-541.
- Kafetsios, K. (2007). Work-family conflict and its relationship with job satisfaction and psychological distress: The role of affect at work and gender. *Hellenic Journal of Psychology*, 4, 15-35.

- Kahn, W. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. *Academy of Management Journal*, 692-724.
- Kalimo, R., & Hakanen, J. (2000). Work and Health in Finland: Burnout. 119-126.
- Kanfer, R., & Ackerman, P. L. (2004). Aging, adult development, and work motivation. *Academy of Management Review*, 29, 440–458.
- Karabiyik, L., Eker, M., & Anbar, A. (2008). Determining the Factors that Affect Burnout Among Academicians Determining the Factors that Affect Burnout Among Academicians. *Ankara Üniversitesi SBF Dergisi*, 63(2), 91-115.
- Karasek, R. A. (1979). Job demands, job decision latitude, and mental strain: Implications for job redesign. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 24, 285–308.
- Karatepe, O. (2011). Do job resources moderate the effect of emotional dissonance on burnout?: A study in the city of Ankara, Turkey. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 23(1), 44-65.
- Karatepe, O., Uludag, O., Menevis, I., Hadzimehmedagic, L., & Baddar, L. (2006). The Effects of Selected Individual Characteristics on Frontline Employee Performance and Job Satisfaction. *Tourism Management*, 27, 547-560.
- Kass, S., Vodanovich, S., & Callender, A. (2001). State-boredom proneness: Relationship to absenteeism, tenure and job satisfaction. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 16(2), 317-327.
- Katz, D., & Kahn, R. (1966). *The social psychology of organizations*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Keltner, D., & Gross, J. (1999). Fuctional accounts of emotions. *Cognition Emotion*, 13, 467-480.
- Kent, R. (2001). *Data construction and data analysis for survey research*. Palgrave, New York.
- Kerlinger, F. N. (1992). *Foundations of behavioural research*. Fortworth, TX: Harcourt Bruce Publishers.
- Keyes, C., Shmotkin, D., & Ryff, C. (2002). Optimizing well-being: the empirical encounter of two traditions. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 82(6), 1007–1022.
- Khan, E. A., Aqeel, M., & Riaz, M. A. (2014). Impact of Job Stress on Job Attitudes and Life Satisfaction in College Lecturers. *International Journal of Information and Education Technology*, 4(3), 270-273.
- Khan, F., Yusoff, R., & Khan, A. (2014). Job Demands, Burnout and Resources in Teaching a Cenceptual Review. *World Applied Sciences Journal*, 30 (1), 20-28.
- Khan, R. (1978). Job burnout: Prevention and remedies. *Public Welfare*, 36(2), 61-63.
- Khoo, H. (1981). From classroom to the boardroom. *Malaysian Business*, 18-22.

- Kim, H., & Stoner, M. (2008). Burnout and turnover intention among social workers: effects on role stress, job autonomy and social support. *Administration in social work*, 32(3), 5-25.
- Kim, K., & Jogaratnam, G. (2010). Effects of Individual and Organizational Factors on Job Satisfaction and Intent to Stay in The Hotel and Restaurant Industry. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism*, 9, 318-339.
- King, R., & Sethi, V. (1997). The moderating effect of organizational commitment on burnout in information systems professionals. *European Journal of Information System*, 6, 86-96.
- Kinman, G. (1998). *Pressure points: A survey into the causes and consequences of occupational stress in UK academic and related staff*. London: Association of University Teachers.
- Kinman, G., & Jones, F. (2003). Running up and down the escalator: Stressors and strains in UK academics. *Quality in Higher Education*, 9, 21-38.
- Kinman, G., & Jones, F. (2005). Lay representative of workplace stress: what do people really mean when they say they are stressed? *Work and Stress*, 19(2), 101-120.
- Kinman, G., & Wray, S. (2013). *Higher Stress: A Survey of Stress and Well-Being Among Staff in Higher Education*. University and College Union.
- Kitaoka, K., & Masuda, S. (2013). Academic report on burnout among Japanese nurses. *Japan Journal of Nursing Science*, 10(2), 273-279.
- Kitchenham, A. B., & Pfleeger, L. S. (2002). Principles of survey research: Part 3: Constructing a survey instrument. *ACM SIGSOFT Software Engineering Notes*, 27(2), 20-24.
- Klapp, O. (1986). *Overload and Boredom: Essays on the Quality of Life in the Information Age*. New York: Greenwood Press.
- Klapp, O. E. (1986). *Overload and Boredom: Essays on the Quality of Life in the Information Society*. Westport, CT, USA: Greenwood Publishing Group Inc.
- Klein, K. J., Beng-Chong, L., Saltz, J. L., & Mayer, D. M. (2004). How Do They Get There? An Examination of the Antecedents of Centrality in Team Networks. *Academy of Management Journal*, 47 (6), 952–963.
- Kline, R. (2005). *Principles and practice of structural equation modelling*. 2nd ed. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Knight, J. (2002). Trade in higher education services: The implications of GATS. *Observatory on Borderless Higher Education*.
- Knight, J. (2008). *Higher Education in Turmoil. The Changing World of Internationalization*. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.
- Korabik, K., Lero, D., & Whitehead, D. (2011). *Handbook of work-family integration: research, theory and best practices*. Access Online via Elsevier.
- Kornhauser, A. (1965). *Mental Health of the Industrial Worker*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

- Koustelios, A., & Tsigilis, N. (2005). The Relationship Between Burnout and Job Satisfaction Among Physical Education Teachers: A Multivariate Approach. *European Physical Education Review*, 11(2), 189-203.
- Krejcie, R., & Morgan, D. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, Vol.30, 607- 610.
- Kyriacou, C. (2001). Teacher stress: directions for future research. *Educational Review*, 53, 27-35.
- Kyriacou, C., & Sutcliffe, J. (1978). Teacher stress: Prevalence, sources and symptoms. *British Journal of Education Psychology*, 48, 159-167.
- Lale, K., Melek, E., & Adem, A. (2012). Determining The Factors That Affect Burnout Among Academicians. *Ankara Universitesi SBF Dergisi*, 63(2), 92-115.
- Lambert, E. G., Altheimer, I., & Hogan, N. L. (2010). Exploring the Relationship Between Social Support and Job Burnout Among Correctional Staff. *Criminal Justice and Behavior November 2010*, 37(11), 1217-1236.
- Lambie, G. (2007). The Contribution of Ego Development Level to Burnout in School Counselors: Implications for Professional School Counseling. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, 85 (1), 82-88.
- Langelaan, S., Bakker, A., Doornen, L. P., & Schaufeli, W. (2006). Burnout and work engagement: Do individual differences make a difference? *Personality and Individual Differences*, 40(3), 521–532.
- Langfred, C. W. (2004). Too much of a good thing? Negative effects of high trust and individual autonomy in self-managing teams. *Academy of management journal*, 47(3), 385-399.
- Larson, L. (2004). Internal auditors and job stress. *Managerial Auditing Journal*, 19(9), 1119-1130.
- Larson, R. (1987). Perspective on queues: Social justice and the psychology of queueing. *Operations Research*, 35(3), 895-905.
- Leavy, R. L. (1983). Social support and psychological disorder: A review. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 11, 3–21.
- Lee, & Ashforth, B. (1996). A meta-analytic examination of the correlates of the three dimensions of job burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology* , 81 (2), 123-133.
- Lee, M. (2004). Private higher education in Malaysia: Expansion, diversification and consolidation. In M.N.N. Lee (Ed.), *Restructuring Higher Restructuring Higher Education in Malaysia*, Penang: School of Educational Studies. Universiti Sains Malaysia.
- Lee, P. C. (2004). Social support and leaving intention among computer professionals. *Information & Management*, 41, 323–334.
- Lee, T. (1986). Toward the development and validation of a measure of job boredom. *Manhattan College Journal of Business*, 15, 22-28.

- Lench, H., Flores, S., & Bench, S. (2011). Discrete emotions predict changes in cognition, judgment, experience, behavior, and physiology: a meta-analysis of experimental emotion elicitations. *Psychol. Bull*, 137, 834-855.
- Leonhardt, D. (4 March, 2009). Job losses show breadth of recession. *The New York Times*.
- LePera, M. N. (2011). Relationship Between Boredom Proneness, Mindfulness, Anxiety, Depression and Substance Use. *The New School of Psychology Bulletin*, 8(2), 15-25.
- Leung, T., Siu, O., & Spector, P. (2000). Faculty Stressors, Job Satisfaction, Psychological Distress Among University Teachers in Hong Kong: The Role of Locus of Control. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 7(2), 121-138.
- Levin, H. (1991). Raising Productivity in Higher Education. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 62(3), 241-262.
- Lew, T.-Y. (2009). The Relationships between Perceived Organizational Support, Felt Obligation, Affective Organizational Commitment and Turnover Intention of Academics working with Private Higher Educational Institutions in Malaysia. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 9(1), 72-87.
- Lew, T.-Y. (2011). Affective Organizational Commitment and Turnover Intention of academics in Malaysia. *2010 International Conference on Business and Economics Research*, 1, 110-114.
- Li, L., & Mao, S. (2014). Moderating effects of proactive personality on factors influencing work engagement based on the job demands-resources model. *Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal*, 42(1), 7-15.
- Li, L., Ruan, H., & Yuan, W.-J. (2015). The relationship between social support and burnout among ICU nurses in Shanghai: A cross-sectional study. *Chinese Nursing Research*, 2, 45-50.
- Lia, F., Jiang, L., Yao, X., & Li, Y. (2013). Job demands, job resources and safety outcomes: The roles of emotional exhaustion and safety compliance. *Accident Analysis & Prevention*, 51, 243-251.
- Liljestrom, A., Roulston, K., & deMarrais, K. (2007). There is no place for feeling like this in the workplace: Women teachers' anger in school settings. In P. A. Schutz, & R. Pekrun (Eds.), *Emotion in education*. San Diego: Elsevier.
- Lin, L., Siu, O.-l., Shi, K., & Bai, X.-w. (2009). Challenge and Hindrance Job Demands, Job Resource, and Their Relationships with Vigor and Emotional Exhaustion. *2009 International Conference on Management Science & Engineering (16th)*, (pp. 1098-1106). Moscow, Russia.
- Litwin, M. S. (1995). *How to Measure Survey Reliability and Validity*. Thousand Oaks, California, USA: Sage.

- Liu, S., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2012). Chinese teachers' work stress and their turnover intention. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 53, 160–170.
- Llorens, S., Bakker, A., Schaufeli, W., & Salanova, M. (2006). Testing the robustness of the job demands-resources model. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 13(3), 378-391.
- Lo, M.-C., Ramayah, T., & Min, H. W. (2009). Leadership styles and organizational commitment: a test on Malaysia manufacturing industry. *African Journal of Marketing Management*, 1(6), 133-139.
- Loukidou, L., Loan-Clarke, J., & Daniels, K. (2009). Boredom in the workplace: More than monotonous tasks. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 11(4), 381-405.
- MacDonald, S., & MacIntyre, P. (1997). The generic job satisfaction scale: scale development and its correlates. *Employee Assistance Quarterly*, 13(2), 1-16.
- Makhbul, Z. M., & Khairuddin, S. M. (2013). Stress among Malaysian Academics: A Conceptual Study. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 2(1), 196-211.
- Malachowski, D. (. (2005). *Wasted time at work costing companies billions*. Retrieved 5 Dec, 2016, from Salary.com: http://www.salary.com/careers/layouthtmls/crel_display_nocat_Ser374_Par555.html
- Mandler, G. (1984). *Mind and body: Psychology of emotion and stress*. New York: Norton.
- Mann, S. (2007). The boredom boom. *The Psychologist*, 20(2), 90–93.
- Mann, S., & Robinson, A. (2009). Boredom in the lecture theatre: an investigation into the contributors, moderators and outcomes of boredom amongst university students. *British Educational Research Journal*, 35(2), 243–258.
- Manshor, A. T. (2003). Occupational stress among managers: A Malaysian survey. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 18, 622-628.
- Manshor, A. T., Fontaine, R., & Choy, C. S. (2003). Occupational stress among managers: a Malaysian survey. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 18(6), 622-628.
- Manz, C., & Sims, H. (2001). *The new superleadership: leading others to lead themselves*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.
- Marchese, M., & Ryan, J. (2001). Capitalizing on the benefits of utilizing part-time employees through job autonomy. *Journal of Business Psychology*, 15(4), 549-560.
- Markos, S., & Sridevi, M. S. (2010). Employee Engagement: The Key to Improving Performance. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 5(12), 89-96.
- Marmaya, N. H., Hitam, M., Zawawi, N., & Jody, J. M. (2011). Organizational Commitment and Job Burnout among Employees in Malaysia. *2010 International Conference on Business and Economics Research*, 1, 185-187.

- Martin, I. (2009). *Asia in the 2009 Times Higher Education – QS World University Rankings*. Retrieved 26 March, 2014, from <http://www.topuniversities.com/articles/rankings/asia-2009-times-higher-education-%E2%80%93-qs-world-university-rankings>
- Mas, A., & Moretti, E. (2009). Peers at Work. *American Economic Review*, 99(1), 112–145.
- Maslach, C. (1982). Understanding burnout: Definitional issues in analyzing a complex phenomenon. In W.S Paine (Ed.), *Job stress and burnout* (pp. 29-40). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Maslach, C. (1993). Burnout: A Multidimensional Perspective. In W. B. Schaufeli, & T. Maslach/Marek (Eds.), *Professional Burnout: Recent Developments in Theory and Research* (pp. 19-32). Washington DC: Taylor & Francis.
- Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. (1981). The measurement of experienced burnout. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 2(2), 99-113.
- Mathieu, J., & Zajac, D. (1990). Review and meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment. *Psychological Bulletin*, 108, 171-194.
- May, D., Gilson, R., & Harter, L. (2004). The psychological conditions of meaningfulness, safety and availability and the engagement of the human spirit at work. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 77(1), 11-37.
- McCelland, S. (1994). Training needs assessment data-gathering methods: Part 4, survey questionnaire. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 18(5), 22-26.
- McCrae, R., & Costa, P. T. (2003). *Personality in adulthood. A five factor theory perspective*. New York: The Guildford Press.
- McCulloch, M., & Turban, D. (2007). Using person-organization fit to select employees for high-turnover jobs. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 15(1), 63-71.
- Mcdonald, T., & Siegall, M. (1998). *Burnout and Expectancies About Alcohol Use: Drinking Behavior in a Sample of University Professors*. Retrieved 4 December, 2014, from Burnout and Expectancies About Alcohol Use: Drinking Behavior in a Sample of University Professors: <http://www.westga.edu/~bquest/2004/burnout.htm>
- McShane, S., & VonGlinow, M. (2000). *Organizational behaviour: Emerging realities for the workplace revolution*. Boston: Irwin/McGraw-Hid.
- Meijman, T., & Mulder, G. (1998). Psychological aspects of workload. In P. Derenth, H. Thierry, & C. d. Wolfff, *Handbook of Work and Organizational Psychology, 2nd Edition* (pp. 5-33). Hove: Erlbaum.
- Melamed, S., Ben-Avi, I., Luz, J., & Green, M. (1995). Objective and subjective work monotony: Effects on job satisfaction, psychological distress and absenteeism in blue collar workers. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 80, 29-42.

- Meng, L., & Liu, S. (2008). Mathematics teacher stress in Chinese secondary schools. *Journal of Educational Enquiry*, 8(1), 73-96.
- Menon, N., & Aknilesh, K. (1994). Functionally dependent stress among managers. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 9(3), 13-22.
- Mercer-Lynn, K. B., Bar, R. J., & Eastwood, J. D. (2014). Causes of boredom: The person, the situation or both? *Personality and Individual Differences*, 56, 122-126.
- Mertens, D. (2005). *Research methods in education and psychology: Integrating diversity with quantitative and qualitative approaches*. (2nd Ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Meyer, J., & Allen, N. (1997). *Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research and application*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Meyer, M. (1987). Stoics, rights, and autonomy. *American Philosophical Quarterly*, 267-271.
- Meyer, M. (2012). *Managing human resource development: A strategic learning approach*. Durban: LexisNexis.
- Mikulas, W., & Vodanovich, S. (1993). The essence of boredom. *The Psychological Record*, 43(1), 3-12.
- Ministry of Education Malaysia. (2015). *Executive Summary Malaysia Education Blueprint 2015-2025*. Putrajaya: Kementerian Pendidikan Malaysia.
- Ministry of Higher Education . (2014). *Chapter 3: Priate Higher Education Institution*. Putrajaya: Perangkaan Pendidikan Negara : Kementerian Pendidikan Tinggi.
- Ministry of Human Resources Malaysia. (2004). *Guidelines on Preventing and Responding to Drug and Alcohol Problems in the Workplace*. Malaysia.
- Mintzberg, H. (1996). Musings on ten ideas designed to rile everyone who cares about management. *Harvard Business Review*, 74(4), 61-67.
- Mkansi, M., & Acheampong. (2012). Research philosophy debates and classifications: students' dilemma. *The Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods*, 10(2), 132-140.
- Mobley, W., Horner, O., & Hollingsworth, A. (1978). An evaluation of precursors of hospital employee turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 63(4), 408-414.
- Muda, N. (2007). *Higher education sector contributes RM1.5 Bln to govt this year*. Retrieved 8 March, 2014, from Malaysian National News Agency - Bernama: www.bernama.com.my/bernama/v3/news.php?id=292663
- Mukundan, J., & Khandehroo, K. (2010). Burnout Among English Language Teachers In Malaysia. *Contemporary Issues In Education Research*, 3(1), 71-76.
- Mustapha, N., & Wee, Y. G. (2013). Examining faculty workload as antecedents of job satisfaction among academic staff of higher public education in Kelantan, Malaysia. *Business and Management Horizons*, 1(1), 10-16.

- Nahrgang, J., Morgeson, F., & Hofmann, D. (2011). Safety at work: A meta-analytic investigation of the link between job demands, job resources, burnout, engagement and safety outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96(1), 71-94.
- Nahrgang, J., Morgeson, F., & Hofmann, D. (2011). Safety at work: A meta-analytic investigation of the link between job demands, job resources, burnout, engagement and safety outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96, 71-94.
- Nasrudin, A. M., Ramayah, T., & Beng, Y. C. (2006). Organizational structure and organizational climate as potential predictors of job stress: Evidence from Malaysia. *International Journal of Commerce and Management*, 16(2), 116 - 129.
- Naughton, G. M., Rolfe, S., & Siraj-Blatchford, I. (2001). *Doing Early Childhood Research: International perspectives on theory and practice*. Australia: Allen & Unwin.
- Nevo, B. (1985). Face validity revisited. *Journal Education Measurement*, 22, 287 – 93.
- Ng, T. W., & Feldman, D. (2007). Organizational embeddedness and occupational embeddedness across career stages. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 70, 336–351.
- Nie, Z., Jin, Y., He, L., Chen, Y., Ren, X., Yu, J., et al. (2015). Correlation of burnout with social support in hospital nurses. *International Journal of Clinical and Experimental Medicine*, 8(10), 19144-19149.
- Nishimura, K., Nakamura, F., Takegami, M., Fukuhara, S., Nakagawara, J., Ogasawara, K., et al. (2014). Cross-sectional survey of workload and burnout among Japanese physicians working in stroke care: the nationwide survey of acute stroke care capacity for proper designation of comprehensive stroke center in Japan (J-ASPECT) study. *Circ Cardiovasc Qual Outcomes*, 7(3), 414-422.
- Nissly, J., Mor Barak, M. E., & Levin, A. (2005). Stress, social support, and workers' intentions to leave their jobs in public child welfare. *Administration in Social Work*, 29(1), 79–100.
- Nitzl, C., Roldan, J. L., & Cepeda, G. (2016). Mediation analysis in partial least squares path modeling: helping researchers discuss more sophisticated models. *Industrial Management & Data Systems*, 116(9), 1-28.
- Nobile, J. D., & McCormick, J. (November, 2007). Occupational Stress of Catholic Primary Staff: Investigating Biographical Differences. *A paper presented at the Annual Conference of the Australian Association for Research in Education, Fremantle*, pp. 25-29.
- Noor, K. M. (2011). Work-life balance and intention to leave among academics in Malaysian public higher education institutions. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 2(11), 240-248.
- Noor, S., & Maad, N. (2008). Examining the Relationship between Work Life Conflict, Stress and Turnover Intentions among Marketing Executives in Pakistan. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 3(11), 93-102.

- Noordin, F., Othman, R., Jais, I. R., & Sardi, J. (2012). Burnout, Personality, and Social Support: A Case of Malaysian Academics. *International Conference on Trade, Tourism and Management*, 112-115.
- Nunnally, J. (1978). *Psychometric theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Nunnally, J., & Bernstein, I. (1994). *Psychometric theory*. New York: McGrawHill.
- Nwadiani, M. (2006). Level of perceived stress among lecturers in Nigerian universities. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, <http://www.thefreelibrary.com/>.
- Oginska-Bulik, N. (2006). Occupational stress and its consequences in healthcare professionals: The role of type D personality. *International Journal of Occupational Medicine and Environmental Health*, 19(2), 113-122.
- O'Hanlon, J. (1981). Boredom: practical consequences and a theory. *Acta Psychologica*, 49(1), 53-82.
- Oketch, M. O. (2004). The emergence of private university education in Kenya: trends, prospects, and challenges. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 119-136.
- Olorunsola, E. O. (2013). An Appraisal of Burnout among the University Lecturers in Ekiti State, Nigeria. *Journal of Educational and Developmental Psychology*, 3(2), 133-137.
- Othman, N., Ahmad, S., & Ghazali, Z. (2015). Working in the ward: The link between job resources and work engagement. *Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences*, 9(37), 171-177.
- Ozdemir, S. (2006). Burnout levels of teachers of students with AD/HD in Turkey: comparison with teachers of non AD/HD students. *Education and Treatment of Children*, 29(4), 693-709.
- Panatik, S. A., Badri, S. K., Rajab, A., Rahman, H. A., & Shah, I. M. (2011). The Impact of Work Family Conflict on Psychological WellBeing among School Teachers in Malaysia. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 29, 1500 – 1507.
- Papastyliaou, A., Kaila, M., & Polychronopoulos, M. (2009). Teachers' burnout, depression, role ambiguity and conflict. *Social Psychology Education*, 12, 295–314.
- Parasuraman, S., & Purohit, Y. (2000). Distress and boredom among orchestra musicians: The two faces of stress. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 5, 74-83.
- Parker, S., & Ohly, S. (2006). Designing motivating work. In R. Kanfer, G. Chen, R. Prichard (Eds.), *Work Motivation: Past, Present and Future* (pp. 233-284). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Pekrun, R. (2000). A social cognitive, control-value theory of achievement emotions. In J. Heckhausen, *Motivational psychology of human development* (pp. 143-163). Oxford, England: Elsevier.

- Pekrun, R. (2006). The control-value theory of achievement emotions: Assumptions, corollaries and implications for educational research and practice. *Educational Psychology Review*, 18, 315-341.
- Pekrun, R., & Stephens, E. (2010). Achievement Emotions: A control-value approach. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 4(4), 238-255.
- Pekrun, R., Frenzel, A., Goetz, T., & Perry, R. (2007). The control-value theory of achievement emotions: An integrative approach to emotions in education. In P. Schutz, & R. Pekrun (Eds.), *Emotion in education* (pp. 13-36). Burlington, MA: Academic Press.
- Pekrun, R., Goetz, T., Daniels, L., Stupnisky, R., & Perry, R. (2010). Boredom in achievement settings: Exploring control-value antecedents and performance outcomes of a neglected emotion. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 102(3), 531-549.
- Peterson, R., & Kim, Y. (2013). On the Relationship between Coefficient Alpha and Composite Reliability. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 98(1), 194-198.
- Philips, S., Sen, D., & McNamee, R. (2007). Prevalence and causes of self-reported work-related stress in head teachers. *Occupational Medicine*, 57(5), 367-376.
- Piko, B. (2006). Burnout, role conflict, job satisfaction and psychosocial health among Hungarian health care staff: A questionnaire survey. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 43(3), 311-318.
- Podsakoff, P., MacKenzie, S., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: a critical review of the literature and recommended. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. 88(5), 879-903.
- Pollock, K. (1988). On the nature of social stress: production of a modern mythology. *Social Science and Medicine*, 26(3), 381-392.
- Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. (2008). Asymptotic and Resampling Strategies for Assessing and Comparing Indirect Effects in Multiple Mediator Models. *Behavior Research Methods*, 40(3), 879-891.
- Pretorius, T. (1994). Using the Maslach Burnout Inventory to assess educator's burnout at a university in South Africa. *Psychological Reports*, 75(2), 771-777.
- Rath, T., & Conchie, B. (2009). *Strengths Based Leadership: Great Leaders, Teams and Why People Follow*. New York: Gallup Press.
- Razali, N. M., & Wah, Y. B. (2011). Power comparisons of Shapiro-Wilk, Kolmogorov-Smirnov, Lilliefors and Anderson-Darling tests. *Journal of Statistical Modeling and Analytics*, 2(1), 21-33.
- Reddy, G., & Poornima, R. (2012). Occupational stress and professional burnout of university teachers in South India. *International Journal of Educational Planning & Administration*, 2(2), 109-124.

- Reijseger, G., Schaufeli, W. B., Peeters, M. C., Taris, T. W., van Beek, I., & Ouwenel, E. (2013). Watching the paint dry at work: psychometric examination of the Dutch Boredom Scale. *Anxiety, Stress, & Coping*, 26(5), 508-525.
- Reio, T. G., & Segredo, M. (2013). Turnover intent among middle school teachers. In M. S. Plakhotnik & S. M. Nielsen (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 12th Annual South Florida Education Research Conference* (pp. 181- 188). Miami: Florida International University.
- Rizzo, J., House, R., & Lirtzman, S. (1970). Role Conflict and Ambiguity in Complex Organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 15(2), 150-163.
- Roberts, D. R., & Davenport, T. (2002). Job Engagement: Why it's important and how to improve it. *Employment Relations Today*, 29(3), 21-29.
- Robinson, D., Perryman, S., & Hayday, S. (2004). *The Drivers of Employee Engagement Report 408*. UK: Institute for Employment Studies.
- Rocca, A., & Konstanski, M. (2001). Burnout and job satisfaction among victorian secondary school teachers: a comparative look at contract and permanent employment. *Atea Conference*, (pp. 24-26). Melbourne.
- Rodriguez, M., & Cohen, S. (1998). Social support. In Howard Friedman (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of mental health* (pp. 535–544). New York: Academic Press.
- Rodriguez-Munos, A., Sanz-Vergel, A., Demerouti, E., & Bakker, A. (2012). Reciprocal Relationships Between Job Demands, Job Resources and Recovery Opportunities. *Journal of Personnel Psychology*, 11(2), 86-94.
- Rooney, J. A., Gottlieb, B. H., & Newby-Clark, I. R. (2009). How support-related managerial behaviors influence employees. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 24(5), 410–427.
- Roslan, N. A., Ho, J. A., Ng, S. I., & Sambasivan, M. (2015). Job Demands & Job Resources: Predicting Burnout and Work Engagement among Teachers. *International Proceedings of Economics Development and Research*, 84, 138-147.
- Rothlin, P., & Werder, P. (2008). *Boreout: Overcoming workplace demotivation*. London: Kogan Page.
- Rothmann, S., & Jordaan, G. (2006). Job Demands , Job Resources and Work Engagement of Academic Staff in South African Higher Education Institutions. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 32 (4), 87-96.
- Rudow, B. (1999). Stress and burnout in the teaching profession: European studies, issues, and research perspectives. In A. M. Huberman, *Understanding and preventing teacher burnout: A sourcebook of international research and practice* (pp. 38-58). New York: University Press.
- Runcie, J. (1980). By days I make the cars. *Harvard Business Review*, May-June, 106-115.

- Russell, J. (1980). A circumplex model of affect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 39(6), 1161–1178.
- Russell, J. (2003). Core affect and the psychological construction of emotion. *Psychological Review*, 110(1), 145-172.
- Sadhra, S., Beach, J., Aw, T., & Sheikh-Ahmed, K. (2001). Occupational health research priorities in Malaysia: A Delphi study. *Occupational and Environment Medicine*, 58(7), 426-431.
- Safaria, T. (2013). Job stress among academic staff: A cross-cultural Qualitative study. *International Journal of Public Health Science (IJPHS)*, 2(2), 43-58.
- Sanchez, M. E. (1992). Effects of questionnaire design on the quality of survey data. *The Public Opinion Quarterly*, 56(2), 206-217.
- Santavirta, N., Solovieva, N. S., & Theorell, T. (2007). The association of job strain and exhaustion in a cohort of 1,028 Finnish teachers. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 77(1), 213-228.
- Santos, S., & Cox, K. (2000). Workplace adjustment and intergenerational differences between matures, boomers and boxers. *Nursing Economics*, 18 (1), 7-13.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2003). *Research Methods for Business Students*, 3rd edition. India.: Anand Sons.
- Scandura, T., & Williams, E. A. (2000). Research methodology in management: Current practices, trends and implications for future research. *Academy of Management, Journal* 43, 1248-1264.
- Schaufeli, W. B. (2015). Engaging leadership in the job demands-resources model. *Career Development International*, 20(5), 446-463.
- Schaufeli, W., & Bakker, A. (2004). Job demands, job resources and their relationship with burnout and engagement: a multi-sample study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25, 293-315.
- Schaufeli, W., & Salanova, M. (2014). Burnout, boredom and engagement at the workplace. In M. Peeters, J. de Jonge, T. Taris (Eds.), *People at work: An introduction to contemporary work psychology* (pp. 293-320). Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Schaufeli, W., Bakker, A., & Rhenen, W. V. (2009). How changes in job demands and resources predict burnout, work engagement and sickness absenteeism. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 30(7), 893-917.
- Schaufeli, W., Martinez, I., Pinto, A., Salanova, M., & Bakker, A. (2002). Burnout and engagement in university students. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 33(5), 464-481.
- Scherer, K. (2000). Emotions as episodes of subsystems synchronization driven by nonlinear appraisal processes. In M. Lewis, & I. Granic (Eds.), *Emotion, development and self-organization* (pp. 70-99). Cambridge, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.

- Schubert, D. (1977). Increase of creativity by prior response to a problem. *Journal of General Psychology*, 96(2), 323-324.
- Schuler, R., Aldag, R., & Brief, A. (1977). Role conflict and ambiguity: a scale analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 20(1), 111-128.
- Schwab, R. (1981). The relationship of role conflict, role ambiguity, teacher background variables and perceived burnout among teachers. Doctoral dissertation, University of Connecticut.
- SCORE, S. (2016). *Sarawak SCORE*. Retrieved 22 August, 2016, from <http://www.recoda.com.my/invest-in-score/human-capital-development/>
- Segars, A. (1997). Assessing the unidimensionality of measurement: A paradigm and illustration within the context of information systems research. *Omega*, 25(1), 107-121.
- Seidman, A. (2005). The learning killer: Disruptive student behavior in the classroom. *Reading Improvement*, 42(1), 40-46.
- Seiger, C., & Wiese, B. (2009). Social support from work and family domain as antecedent or moderator in work family conflicts? *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 75(1), 26-37.
- Seiler, R., & Pearson, D. (1985). Dysfunctional stress among university faculty. *Educational Research Quarterly*, 9(2), 15-26.
- Sekaran, U. (2003). *Research methods for business: A skill building approach*. 4th ed. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Seldin, P. (1987). Research findings on causes of academic stress. In P. Seldin (Ed.), *Coping with faculty stress* (pp. 13-24). San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Selye, H. (1956). *The Stress of Life*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Senol-Durak, E., Durak, M., & Gencoz, T. (2006). Development of Work Stress Scale for Correctional. *Journal of Occupational Rehabilitation*, 16(1), 157-168.
- Shackleton, V. (1981). Boredom and repetitive work: A review. *Personnel Review*, 10(4), 30-36.
- Shah, N. H., & Jumani, N. B. (2015). Relationship of Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention of Private Secondary School Teachers. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 6(4), 313-323.
- Shahab, H., & Ali, B. (2013). Stressors Exploiting Teacher's Satisfaction and Professional Commitment the key to reduce Job Burnout. *African Journal of Business Management*, 7(39), 4109-4121.
- Shalley, C. E., & Gilson, L. L. (2004). What leaders need to know: A review of social and contextual factors that can foster or hinder creativity. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15(1), 33-53.
- Shane, W., & Heather, C. (2013). On the Function of Boredom. *Behavioral Sciences*, 3(3), 459-472.

- Shaughnessy, J., & Zechmeister, E. B. (1997). *Research methods in psychology*. 4th ed. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- SheeMun, Y., Suhaimi, M. N., Abdullah, S. S., Rahman, S. A., & Mat, N. K. (2013). Employee Engagement: A Study from the Private Sector in Malaysia. *Human Resource Management Research*, 3(1), 43-48.
- Shikieri, A. B., & Musa, H. A. (2012). Factors Associated with Occupational Stress and Their Effects on Organizational Performance in a Sudanese University. *Creative Education*, 3(1), 134-144.
- Shirom, A. (1989). *Burnout in work organizations: International review of industrial and organizational psychology*. New York: Wiley.
- Shuster, J., & Finkelstein, M. (2006). The American faculty: The restructuring of academic work and careers. In J. Smart, *Higher Education: Handbook of Theory and Research*. New York: Springer.
- Singh, A. K., Singh, S., & Singh, A. P. (2014). Personality Traits and Turnover Intention among Front Level Managerial Personnel. *Journal of the Indian Academy of Applied Psychology*, 40(2), 228-236.
- Singleton, R. A., & Straits., B. C. (2005). *Approaches to social research*. 4th Ed. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Siu, C. F., Yuen, S., & Cheung, A. (2012). Burnout among public doctors in Hong Kong: cross-sectional survey. *Hong Kong Medical Journal*, 18(3), 186-92.
- Skowronski, M. (2012). When the bored behave badly (or exceptionally). *Personnel Review*, 41(2), 143-159.
- Slater, S. F. (1995). Issues in conducting marketing strategy research. *Journal of Strategic Marketing*, 3, 257-270.
- Smith, E., Anderson, J., & Lovrich, N. (1995). The multiple sources of workplace stress among landgrant university faculty. *Research in Higher Education*, 36 (3), 261-282.
- Smith, M., Cohen, B., & Stammerjohn, L. J. (1981). An investigation of health complaints and job stress in video display operations. *Human Factors*, 23(4), 387-400.
- Sohail, N., Ahmad, B., Tanveer, Y., & Tariq, H. (2012). Workplace Boredom among University Faculty Members in Pakistan. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*, 3(10), 919-925.
- Sommers, J., & Vodanovich, S. (2000). Boredom Proneness: Its Relationship to Psychological and Physical Health Symptoms. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 56(1), 149-155.
- Spacks, P. (1995). *Boredom: The literary history of a state of mind*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

- Spector, P. (1997). *Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, cause and consequences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.,
- Spector, P., & Fox, S. (2010). Counterproductive work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior: Are they opposite forms of active behavior? *Applied Psychology*, 59(1), 21-39.
- Spector, P., & Jex, S. (1998). Development of four self-report measures of job stressors and strain: Interpersonal conflict at work scale, organizational constraints scale, quantitative workload inventory, and physical symptoms inventory. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 3(4), 356–367.
- Spector, P., Fox, S., Penney, L., Bruursema, K., Goh, A., & Kessler, S. (2006). The dimensionality of counterproductivity: Are all counterproductive behaviours created equal? *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 68(3), 446-460.
- Spector, P., Zapf, D., Chen, P., & Frese, M. (2000). Why negative affectivity should not be controlled in job stress research: dont throw out the baby with the bath water. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21(1), 79-95.
- Stave, A. M. (1977). The Effects of Cockpit Environment on Long-Term Pilot Performance. *Human Factors*, 19(5), 503-514.
- Steeland, K., Johnson, J., & Nowlin, S. (1997). A follow up study of job strain and heart disease among males in withdrawal among Dutch staff: Towards a dual process model for the effects of occupational stress. *Work and Stress*, 15, 256-260.
- Stoeber, J., & Rennert, D. (2008). Perfectionism in school teachers: relations with stress appraisals, coping styles and burnout. *Anxiety, Stress & Coping*, 21(1), 37-53.
- Storey, J. (1995). Human resource management: still marching on, or marching out? In J. Storey, *Human Resource Management: A Critical Text*. London: Routledge.
- Suls, J. (2001). Affect, stress, and personality. In J. P. Forgas (Ed.), *Handbook of affect and social cognition* (pp. 392–409). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Supplement, T. H. (2010). *Times Higher Education Supplement*. Retrieved 5 March, 2014, from Times Higher Education Supplement: <http://www.timeshighereducation.co.uk/>
- Sutton, R. (2007). Teachers' anger, frustration, and self-regulation. In P. A. Schutz & R. Pekrun (Eds.), *Emotions in education*. San Diego: Elsevier.
- Tarrant, T., & Sabo, C. (2010). Role Conflict, Role Ambiguity, and Job Satisfaction in Nurse Executives. *Nursing Admin Quarterly*, 34(1), 72-82.
- Teng, M., Hassan, Z., & Kasa, M. (2016). Antecedents and Outcomes of Boredom: Why We Should Know? . 6th Asia Pacific Marketing and Management Conference. Kuching: UNIMAS.
- Terry, D. J., Tonge, L., & Callan, V. J. (1995). Employee adjustment to stress: the role of coping resources, situational factors and coping responses. *Anxiety, Stress and Coping*, 8(1), 1-24.

- Terry, D., & Jimmieson, N. (1999). Work control and employee well-being: A decade review. In C. L. Cooper & I. T. Robertson (Eds.), *International review of industrial and organizational psychology*. Chichester: John Wiley & Sons.
- Tilak, J. (2001). Education and Globalisation: The Changing Concerns in Economics of Indian Education, Editorial. *Perspectives in Education*, 17 (Special Issue), 5-8.
- Tippins, M. J., & Sohi, R. S. (2003). IT competency and firm performance: Is organizational learning a missing link? *Strategic Management Journal*, 24(8), 745-761.
- Togia, A. (2005). Measurement of burnout and the influence of background characteristics i Greek academic librarians. *Library Management*, 26(3), 130-138.
- Toker, B. (2011). Burnout Among University Academicians: An Emprical Study on The Universities of Turkey. *Dogus Universitesi Dergisi*, 12(1), 114-127.
- Tolor, A., & Siegel, M. (1989). Boredom proneness and political activism. *Psychological Reports*, 65(1), 235-240.
- Trade Union Council. (2000). *Focus on health and safety: stress at work tops safety poll*. Retrieved 2015, from Focus on health and safety: stress at work tops safety poll: http://www.tuc.org.uk/h_and_s/tuc-2390-f0.cf
- Trandis, H. (2004). The many dimensions of culture. *Academy of Management Executive*, 18(1), 88-93.
- Trompenaars, F., & Hampden-Turner, C. (1997). *Riding the waves of culture: Understanding cultural diversity in business*. 2nd Ed. London: Nicholas Brealey.
- Troyer, L., Mueller, C., & Osinsky, P. (2000). Who's the boss?A role-theoretic analysis of customer work. *Work and Occupations*, 27(3), 406-427.
- Tytherleigh, M., Webb, C., Cooper, C., & Ricketts, C. (2005). Occupational Stress in UK Higher Education Institutions: A Comparative Study of All Staff Categories. *Higher Education Research and Development*, 24 (1), 41-61.
- Tze, V. M., Klassen, R. M., & Daniels, L. M. (2014). Patterns of boredom and its relationship with perceived autonomy support and engagement. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 39(3), 175–187.
- Usman, A., Ahmed, Z., Ahmed, I., & Akhtar, Z. (2011). Work Stress Experienced by Teaching Staff of University of the Punjab, Pakistan: Antecedents and Consequences. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 2(8), 202-210.
- Van Daalen, G., Willemsen, T., & Sanders, K. (2006). Reducing work–family conflict through different sources of social support. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 69(3), 462-476.
- Van den Broeck, A., Vansteenkiste, M., Lens, W., & De Witte, H. (2010). Unemployed individuals' work values and job flexibility: An explanation from expectancy-value theory

- and self determination theory. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 59(2), 296-317.
- van der Heijden, G. A., Schepers, J. J., & Nijssen, E. J. (2012). Understanding workplace boredom among white collar employees: Temporary reactions and individual differences. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 21(3), 349–375.
- Van Sell, M., Brief, A., & Schuler, R. (1981). Role conflict and role ambiguity: Integration of the literature and directions for future research. *Human Relations*, 34(1), 43-71.
- Van Wyk, S., De Beer, L., Pienaar, J., & Schaufeli, W. (2016). The psychometric properties of a workplace boredom scale (DUBS) within the South African context. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 42(1), 1-10.
- Venkatasubramanian, K. (2002). Financing of higher education. Retrieved July 18, 2016, from The Hindu: <https://www.thehindu.com/thehindu/op/2002/02/19/stories/2002021900020100.htm>
- Vodanovich, S., & Watt, J. (1999). The relationship between time structure and boredom proneness: An investigation within two cultures. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 139(2), 143-152.
- von Hippel, C., Kalokerinos, E. K., & Henry, J. D. (2013). Stereotype threat among older employees: Relationship with job attitudes and turnover intentions. *Psychology and Aging*, 28(1), 17–27.
- Von, O., & Julia. (1996). *Stress at work*. Retrieved 20 November, 2014, from Stress at work: <http://www.ebscohost.com/cgi-bin/epwnorb>.
- Wallace, J. C., Vodanovich, S. J., & Restino, B. M. (2003). Predicting cognitive failures from boredom proneness and daytime sleepiness scores: an investigation within military and undergraduate samples. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 34(4), 635-644.
- Wan, H., Downey, L., & Stough, C. (2014). Understanding non-work presenteeism: Relationships between emotional intelligence, boredom, procrastination and job stress. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 65, 86-90.
- Warr, P. (1990). The measurement of well-being and other aspects of mental health. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 63(3), 193-210.
- Warr, P., & Inceoglu, I. (2012). Job engagement, job satisfaction, and contrasting associations with person-job fit. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 17(2), 129-138.
- Wasti, S. (2005). Commitment profiles: Combinations of organizational commitment forms and job outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 67(2), 290-308.
- Watt, J., & Hargis, M. (2010). Boredom proneness: its relationship with subjective underemployment, perceived organizational support and job performance. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 25(1), 163-174.

- Watts, W., Cox, L., Wright, L., Garrison, J., Herkimer, A., & Howze, H. (1991). Correlates of drinking and drug use by higher education faculty and staff: Implications for prevention. *Journal of Drug Education, 21*(1), 43-64.
- Wayne, J., Randel, A., & Stevens, J. (2006). The role identity and work-family support in work-family enrichment and its work related consequences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 69*(3), 445-461.
- Wayne, S., Liden, R. C., & Shore, L. M. (1997). Perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange: a social exchange perspective. *The Academy of Management Journal, 40*(1), 82-111.
- Weiss, H., & Cropanzano, R. (1996). Affective events theory: a theoretical discussion of the structure, causes and consequences of affective experiences at work. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 18*, 1-75.
- Wen, J., Cheng, Y., Hu, X., Yuan, P., Hao, T., & Shi, Y. (2016). Workload, burnout, and medical mistakes among physicians in China: A cross-sectional study. *Bioscience Trends, 10*(1), 27-33.
- Westman, M., & Eden, D. (1992). Excessive role demand and subsequent performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 13*(5), 519-529.
- White, R. (1959). Motivation reconsidered: the concept of competence. *Psychological Review, 66*(5), 297-333.
- Whiteoak, J. (2014). Predicting boredom-coping at work. *Personnel Review, 43*(5), 741-763.
- Widayani, A. D., & Sugianingrat, I. W. (2015). Effect of Multiple Role Conflict on Job Satisfaction with the Mediation Role of Stress: A Study Among University Female Lecturers in Indonesia. *International Journal of Economics, Commerce and Management, 3*(5), 862-872.
- Wilkinson, R., & Yussof, I. (2005). Public and private provision of higher education in Malaysia: a comparative analysis. *Higher Education, 3*(2), 361-386.
- Williams, S. (2011). Potential unique causes of burnout for chiropractic professionals. *Journal of Chiropractic Humanities, 18*(1), 86-93.
- Wilson, T., & Gilbert, D. (2008). Explaining away: A model of affective adaptation. *Association for Psychological Science, 3*(5), 370-386.
- Winefield, A. (2000). Stress in Academe. Some recent research findings. In D. Kenny, J. Carlson, & F. J. McGuigan and J.L Sheppard (Eds), *Stress and Health: Research and Clinical Applications* (pp. 437-446). Sydney: Harwood.
- Winefield, A., Gillespie, N., Stough, C., Dua, J., & Hapuararchchi, J. (2002). *Occupational stress in Australian universities: A national survey 2002*. South Melbourne: National Tertiary Education Union.

- Winefield, A., Gillespie, N., Stough, C., Dua, J., Hapuarachchi, J., & Boyd, C. (2003). Occupational Stress in Australia University Staff: Results From a National Survey. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 10(1), 51-63.
- Wingerden, J. v., Bakker, A., & Derks, D. (2016). A test of a job-demands-resources intervention. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 31(3), 686-701.
- Winnubst, J. (1993). Organizational structure, social support and burnout. In W. B. Schaufeli, C. Maslach, & T. Marek (Eds.) , *Series in applied psychology: Social issues and questions. Professional burnout: Recent developments in theory and research* (pp. 151-162). Philadelphia: Taylor & Francis.
- Wood, J., Wallace, J., Zeffane, R., Schermerhorn, J., Hunt, J., & Osborn, R. (1998). *Organisational behaviour: An Asia-Pacific perspective*. Jacaranda: Wiley Ltd.
- Wren, B., Berkowitz, D., & Grant, E. (2014). Attitudinal, personal, and job-related predictors of salesperson turnover. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, 32(1), 107-123.
- Wright, T., & Cropanzano, R. (2004). The role of psychological well being in job performance. A fresh look of an age-old quest. *Organizational Dynamics*, 33(4), 338-351.
- Wright, T., & Hobfoll, S. (2004). Commitment, psychological well-being and job performance: An examination of conservation of Resource (COR) theory and job burnout. *Journal of Business and Management*, 9(4), 389-406.
- Wu, H., Liu, L., Wang, Y., Gao, F., Zhao, X., & Wang, L. (2013). Factors associated with burnout among Chinese hospital doctors: a cross-sectional study. *BMC Public Health*, 13, 1-8.
- Wu, M.-H., Chen, C.-H., Huang, Y.-A., & Cheng, J.-S. (2013). The Effects of Supervisor Support and Trait Competitiveness on Work Engagement: The Case of National Scenic Area's Tour Guide. *International Proceedings of Economics Development and Research*, 67(3), 11-14.
- Xanthopoulou, D., Bakker, A., Demerouti, E., & Schaufeli, W. (2007). The role of personal resources in the job demands-resources model. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 14(2), 121-141.
- Xanthopoulou, D., Bakker, A., Dollard, M., Demerouti, E., Schaufeli, W., Taris, T., et al. (2007). When do job demands particularly predict burnout? The moderating role of job resources. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 22(8), 766-786.
- Xiaoming, Y., Ma, B.-J., Chang, C. I., & Shieh, C.-J. (2014). Effects of Workload on Burnout and Turnover Intention of Medical Staff: A Study. *Ethno Medicine*, 8(3), 229-237.
- Yang, J. (2008). Effect of newcomer socialisation on organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intention in the hoteindustry. *The Service Industries Journal*, 28(4), 429-443,.
- Yazdanparast, A., Joseph, M., & Qureshi, A. (2015). An investigation of Facebook boredom phenomenon among college students. *Young Consumers*, 16(4), 468 - 480.

- Yeh, C.-C. R., Lin, C.-Y., & Chen, S.-Y. (2014). From West to East: Adoption of Western measurement scales in Taiwan's organizational research. *Asia Pacific Management Review*, 19(3), 1-19.
- Yeh, H.-J. (2015). Job Demands, Job Resources and Job Satisfaction in East Asia. *Social Indicators Research*, 121(1), 47-60.
- Yin-Fah, B. C., Foon, Y. S., Chee-Leong, L., & Osman, S. (2010). An Exploratory Study on Turnover Intention among Private Sector Employees. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 5(8), 57-64.
- Yong, Z., & Yue, Y. (2007). Causes of burnout among secondary and elementary school teachers and preventative strategies. *Chinese Education and Society*, 40(5), 78-85.
- Yunus, J. b., & Mahajar, A. J. (2011). Stress and Psychological Well-Being of Government Officers in Malaysia. *The Journal of Human Resource and Adult Learning*, 7(2), 40-50.
- Zakari, N. M. (2011). The Impact of Nurse Role Ambiguity and Role Conflict on Nursing Faculty Commitment in Saudi Arabia. *Life Science Journal*, 8(3), 179-186.
- Zakaria, N., Al Khamis, N., & Hamidi, H. (2010). Conflict and professionalism: perceptions among nurses in Saudi Arabia. *International Nursing Review*, 57(3), 297-304.
- Zakaria, S., Omar, N., & Asmawi, A. (2015). Work Responsibilities Stress among Academicians in Private Universities in Malaysia. *Journal of Education and Vocational Research*, 6(2), 42-47.
- Zakerian, S. A., & Subramaniam, I. D. (2009). The Relationship Between Psychosocial Work Factors, Work Stress and Computer Related Musculoskeletal Discomforts Among Computer Users in Malaysia. *International Journal of Occupational Safety and Ergonomics (JOSE)*, 15(4), 425-434.
- Zeidner, M. (1998). *Test anxiety: The state of the art*. New York: Plenum Press.
- Zeidner, M. (2007). Test anxiety in educational context: Concepts, findings and future directions. In P. Schutz, & R. Pekrun, *Emotion in education* (pp. 165-184). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Zhao, X., Lynch, J., & Chen, Q. (2010). Reconsidering Baron and Kenny: Myths and Truths about Mediation Analysis. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 37(3), 197-206.
- Ziaei, M., Yarmohammadi, H., Moradi, M., & Khandan, M. (2015). Level of Workload and Its Relationship with Job Burnout among Administrative Staff. *International Journal of Occupational Hygiene*, 7(2), 53-60.
- Zikmund, W. G. (1994). *Business research methods*. 4th Ed. Fort Worth: Dryden.
- Zikmund, W. G. (2003). *Business Research Methods*, (7th Ed.). Cincinnati, Ohio: Thomson/South-Western.

Zuckerman, M. (1979). *Sensation Seeking: Beyond the Optimal Level of Arousal*. New Jersey, USA: Erlbaum:Hillsdale.

APPENDIX

The Job Demands and Resources at Workplace

English Version



Researcher : Michael Teng Loong Ing
Faculty of Cognitive Sciences and Human
Development
Universiti Malaysia Sarawak

Dear Participant

Please take some time to read through the following information. If at any point you have queries, do not hesitate to ask the researcher, Michael Teng Loong Ing or contact him at +60168077400, 13010091@siswa.unimas.my.

What you have been asked to do

You are asked to participate in a questionnaire survey concerning your individual character and work situation. Therefore, please fill in the questionnaire in private, when you are not distracted.

For the realization of this research, you are required to fill in all the questions. There are no right or wrong answers. Provide the answer that you think best suits you as per the scale given. You will approximately need 20 minutes to fill in the questionnaire.

Your data

You will remain anonymous and your response will be dealt CONFIDENTIALLY. Kindly note that you do not have to fill in your name.

The information that you provide through your response are send immediately to the researchers through your human resource (HR) officer and only the researchers have access to this information. It will be stored within an encrypted folder, accessible only by the lead researcher.

Also with your permission, I may include the data that I have analysed from your response to be incorporated in my thesis and any resulting publication. These will be anonymised and great care will be taken to ensure that your respond cannot be attributed to you as an employee of your current organisation.

Thank you for reading this information sheet and I look forward for your respond!

Michael Teng Loong Ing
PhD Candidate
Faculty of Cognitive Science and Human Development
Universiti Malaysia Sarawak.
+60168077400, 13010091@siswa.unimas.my.

Section A

The following 20 statements refer to the aspects related to your CURRENT work. Read each statement carefully and decide if you ever encounter it in your job according to the scale below.

	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither disagree nor agree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
1. My superior is concerned about the welfare of those under them.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I do not have enough time to perform quality research (knowledge contribution).	1	2	3	4	5
3. The number of hours I am expected to teach has increased in recent years.	1	2	3	4	5
4. My superior pays attention to what I am saying.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The amount of administration I am expected to do is manageable, given my other responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I can determine (decide) when to work.	1	2	3	4	5
7. My superior is helpful in getting the job done	1	2	3	4	5
8. I have students with general misbehavior.	1	2	3	4	5
9. My superior is successful in getting people to work together.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I set break times myself.	1	2	3	4	5
11. My colleagues are friendly.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I have students who produce high noise level.	1	2	3	4	5
13. The amount of administration I am expected to do is reasonable.	1	2	3	4	5
14. In my class, I have students with impolite behavior.	1	2	3	4	5
15. The number of students I am expected to teach and / or supervise is reasonable.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I can determine my own work pace.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I can set the time when I start and finish my work.	1	2	3	4	5

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 18. I have students who continually misbehave in class. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. My work includes some repetitive tasks. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. I need to deal with difficult students' behavior problems. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Section B

The following 22 statements concern the way you experience your CURRENT work and how you feel about it. Read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel it in your job according to the scale below.

	Never 1	Almost Never 2 A few times a year or less	Rarely 3 Once a month or less	Sometimes 4 A few times a month	Often 5 Once a week	Very Often 6 A few times a week	Always 7 Every day
1. At work, time goes by very slowly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I feel bored at my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I feel emotionally drained from my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. At work, I spend my time aimlessly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I feel used up at the end of the workday.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I am actively looking for a job outside my current organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I feel frustrated by my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. At my job, I feel restless.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. During work time, I daydream.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. It seems as if my working day never ends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I feel I'm working too hard on my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. As soon as I can find a better job, I'll leave the current organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Working with people all day is really a strain for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I tend to do other things during my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I am seriously thinking about quitting my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. At my work, there is not so much to do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

18.	Working directly with people puts too much stress on me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	I think I will be working at current organization five years from now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	I feel burned out from my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	I often think about quitting my current job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section C

The following 15 statements concern about your personality. Read carefully and decide if you agree to the statements.

	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither disagree nor agree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
1. I am someone who is depressed (blue).	1	2	3	4	5
2. I see myself as someone who is relaxed (handle stress well).	1	2	3	4	5
3. I am talkative.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I can be tense.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I tend to be quiet.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I worry a lot.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I am someone who is reserved (keep thoughts and emotions to yourself).	1	2	3	4	5
8. I can be moody.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I am a person who is full of energy.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I am sometimes shy.	1	2	3	4	5

Section D

The items in this section are description of your background and your work experience. For each of the following items, please select the most appropriate answer by putting a mark, “X” in the bracket provided or fill in the required response in the space provided.

1. Gender

☐

Male

☐

Female

2. Age

_____ years old

3. Ethnicity

☐

Malay

☐

Chinese

☐

Iban

☐

Bidayuh

☐

Other. Please specify:

4. Marital Status

☐

Single

☐

Married

☐

Divorced/Separated/Widowed

5. Highest Education Qualification

☐

Degree

☐

Master Degree

☐

Doctorate Degree

☐

Other. Please specify:

6. Academic Positions

☐

Professor

☐

Associate Professor

☐

Senior Lecturer

☐

Lecturer

☐

Other. Please specify:

7. Salary

☐

≤ RM 2,999

☐

From RM3,000 to RM4,999

☐

From RM5,000 to RM6,999

☐

≥ RM 7,000

8. Length of Service as Academicians : _____ years

9. Length of Service in Current Organization : _____ years

10. Self-Generated Identification Codes

Example Answer

First letter of mother's first name?

S - Sim

Number of siblings (living and deceased)?

03 - three

Number representing the month you were born?

08 - Aug

Subject-Generated Identification Code

S0308

What is your self-generated identification code?

Thank you very much for your participation!

DECLARATION

I, Michael Teng Loong Ing (13010091) from Faculty of Cognitive Sciences and Human Development, hereby declare that the work entitled, “Antecedents and Consequences of Boredom at Workplace among Academicians of Private Higher Education Institutions in Sarawak” is my original work. I have not copied from any other students’ work or from any other sources except where due reference or acknowledgement is made explicitly in the text, nor has any part been written for me by another person. The thesis has not been accepted for any degree and is not concurrently submitted in candidature of any other degree.

Michael Teng Loong Ing

13010091

Date : _____

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

First and foremost, thank you my Heavenly Father God for granting me wisdom and act as my provider throughout my entire journey of Doctor of Philosophy in Universiti Malaysia Sarawak.

As well, I would like to take this opportunity to record my deepest appreciation and gratitude to my supervisor, Associate Professor Dr Zaiton Hassan who has guided and supported me throughout this study. In addition, I also acknowledge Dr. Mark Kasa for his kind assistance. This research would not have been successful without the great support, sacrifice and generous contributions from both of you.

Besides that, I am also indebted to all the academicians from private higher education institutions who had participated in the research. Furthermore, special thanks to Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia for granting MyPhD scholarship and MyRA Special Grant (Grant No: F04/SpGS/1562/2017) to support me throughout my study.

Lastly, to my family members especially to my parents in law and wife, Angelia Lim, I'm glad that you all are part of this remarkable journey. Each of you had given me unconditional support, love, and encouragements to complete my writing.

Thank you.

ABSTRACT

Boredom at workplace is commonly described as one of the widespread contagious bacterial that is experienced by all occupational levels at increasing trend. It negatively influences employees' affection, cognition and wellbeing at workplace. Therefore, examination of boredom is an important element for organization to identify the causes and outcomes, so that appropriate approach could be adopted to tackle it and achieve continuous progression. This study investigates the relationship of job demands, job resources, and personality traits with boredom at workplace, job burnout and turnover intention among academicians of private higher education institutions in Sarawak. A modified version of questionnaire was distributed among 278 respondents via quantitative survey to obtain the primary data from the academicians. In addition, 5 interviews (small scale) was conducted to record their live responses as academicians may tend to hide (rationale) encountering boredom via questionnaire. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22 and SmartPLS 3.0 (M3) were used to analyse the data collected from 278 respondents. Eleven out of fifteen hypotheses were supported. It was found that boredom is partially mediating the direct relationship of job demands, resources and personality with turnover intention. Meaning, the partial reason for academicians to quit their profession is because of boredom at workplace. Thus, this study may be informative for future researchers and human resource practitioners to have an in-depth understanding of the impact of boredom at workplace, particularly among academicians from private higher education institutions in Sarawak, Malaysia.

Keywords: Boredom at workplace, workload, student disruptive behaviour, job autonomy, social support, job burnout, turnover intention

Sebab dan Kesan Kebosanan di Tempat Kerja dalam kalangan Pensyarah dari Institusi Pendidikan Tinggi Swasta di Sarawak, Malaysia

ABSTRAK

Kebosanan di tempat kerja adalah diklasifikasikan sebagai salah satu wabak berjangkit dalam kalangan pekerja dari pelbagai bidang di mana ianya membawa kesan negatif dari segi perasaan, kognisi dan tingkah-laku pekerja di tempat kerja. Oleh yang demikian, kajian lanjut mengenai sebab-sebab dan akibat kebosanan di tempat kerja adalah penting kepada organisasi supaya langkah-langkah pencegahan dapat ditujukan kepada pekerja yang menghadapi masalah kebosanan dan seterusnya membantu pembangunan organisasi. Kajian ini menyiasat hubungan di antara tuntutan kerja, sumber kerja, personaliti dengan kebosanan di tempat kerja, “job burnout” dan niat bertukar kerja dalam kalangan pensyarah yang berkhidmat di institusi pendidikan tinggi swasta (IPTS) di Sarawak. Kajian secara kuantitatif telah dijalankan untuk mengutip data daripada para pensyarah. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) versi 22 dan SmartPLS 3.0 (M3) telah digunakan untuk menganalisis data yang diperolehi. Soal selidik dibentuk menggunakan kaedah gunapakai dan diedarkan kepada 278 responden bagi tujuan pengumpulan data kuantitatif. Tambahan pula, temuduga turut disertakan untuk mendapatkan pandangan langsung kerana pensyarah mempunyai kecenderungan untuk tidak mengaku bosan di tempat kerja melalui kaedah kuantitatif. Sebelas daripada lima belas hubungan hipotesis telah disokong. Kajian ini mendapati kebosanan di tempat kerja adalah “partial mediator” kepada hubungan langsung tuntutan kerja, sumber kerja, personaliti dengan niat bertukar kerja. Maksudnya, salah satu penyebab pensyarah mempunyai niat bertukar kerja adalah kebosanan di tempat kerja. Oleh itu, kajian ini memberikan pemahaman yang penting

kepada penyelidik dan pengamal pengurusan sumber manusia tentang kesan-kesan kebosanan di tempat kerja terhadap niat bertukar kerja di kalangan pensyarah dari IPTS di Sarawak, Malaysia.

Kata kunci: *Kebosanan di tempat kerja, sumber kerja, gangguan pelajar, kuasa autonomi, sokongan sosial, job burnout, niat bertukar kerja*

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
DECLARATION	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT.....	ii
ABSTRACT.....	iii
ABSTRAK.....	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	vi
LIST OF TABLES.....	xi
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xii
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background	1
1.2 Problem Statement	5
1.3 Research Objectives	11
1.4 Conceptual Framework	12
1.5 Significance of the study	13
1.6 Definitions of Terms	15
1.7 Structure of the Thesis	17
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	19
2.1 Introduction	19
2.2 Chronology of PHEIs	19
2.3 The importance of PHEIs in Malaysia	20
2.4 Boredom at workplace: Introduction, Antecedents and Consequences from	

Human Resource Perspectives	22
2.4.1 Definition of boredom	22
2.4.2 Antecedents of Boredom	24
2.4.3 Consequences of Boredom	28
2.5 Underpinning Theory: Job Demands-Resources Theory and Control Value Theory	34
2.5.1 JD-R Theory	34
2.5.2 Previous studies on JD-R Theory	36
2.5.3 Previous studies of boredom at workplace	42
2.6 Gaps in the Literatures	47
2.7 Theoretical framework	51
2.8 Overview of the Functions of Job Demands, Job Resources and Personality Traits as Antecedents to Predict Boredom	53
2.8.1 The Concept of Job Demands	53
a) Workload and Boredom	53
b) Students' Disruptive Behavior and Boredom	55
2.8.2 The Concept of Job Resources	56
a) Job Autonomy and Boredom	56
b) Social Support and Boredom	58
2.8.3 The Concept of Personality Traits	59
a) Neuroticism and Boredom	59
b) Extroversion and Boredom	60
2.9 Overview of the Functions of Job Burnout as Consequences related to Boredom	61

2.9.1	The Concept of Job Burnout	61
a)	Boredom and Job Burnout	62
2.10	Overview of the Functions of Turnover Intention as Consequences Related to Boredom	63
2.10.1	The Concept of Turnover Intention	63
a)	Boredom and Turnover Intention	64
2.11	Overview of the Functions of Boredom at Workplace as Mediator	65
a)	Workload, Boredom and Turnover Intention	65
b)	Students' Disruptive Behavior, Boredom and Turnover Intention	66
c)	Job Autonomy, Boredom and Turnover Intention	67
d)	Social Support, Boredom and Turnover Intention	69
e)	Neuroticism, Boredom and Turnover Intention	70
f)	Extroversion, Boredom and Turnover Intention	71
2.12	Overview of the Functions of Age as Moderator	72
2.13	Summary of Hypothesis Development	74
2.14	Chapter Summary	75
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY		76
3.1	Introduction	76
3.2	Research Paradigm	76
3.2.1	Ontology	77
3.2.2	Epistemology	78
3.2.3	Human Nature	79
3.2.4	Methodology	80

3.3	Research Process	81
3.4	Research Design	83
3.4.1	Procedure of Data Collection.....	83
3.4.2	Measurement	84
a)	Constructs	85
b)	Measurement Scale - Likert Scale	88
c)	Questionnaire Design	89
d)	Population	90
e)	Sample Size and Sampling Technique	92
f)	Sample Justification	93
g)	Pre-test	94
3.5	Data Collection for Actual Study	97
3.6	Technique of Data Analysis	98
3.6.1	Data Screening and Cleaning	98
3.6.2	Descriptive Analysis	99
3.6.3	Measurement Model	99
a)	Reliability	99
b)	Validity	100
3.6.4	Structural Model	101
3.7	Chapter Summary	102
CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS, FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION		103
4.1	Introduction	103
4.2	Participants	103

4.3	Data Screening	104
4.4	Descriptive Statistics	105
4.4.1	Respondent Demographic Profile	105
4.4.2	Descriptive Analysis of Variables	107
4.4.3	Measurement Model - Reliability and Validity	111
4.4.4	Structural Model	118
4.5	Findings and Discussion.....	122
4.5.1	Antecedents and Consequences of Boredom at Workplace	122
4.5.2	Mediating Effect of Boredom at Workplace	142
4.5.3	Variance Accounted For (VAF)	145
4.5.4	Moderating Effect of Age	159
4.6	Summary	161

CHAPTER 5: IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1	Introduction	162
5.2	Summary of the Research	162
5.3	Research Implication	165
5.3.1	Theoretical Implications	165
5.3.2	Practical Implications	168
5.4	Limitations and Direction for Future Research	172
5.5	Conclusions	174
	REFERENCES	176
	APPENDIX	214

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 2.1	Potential Antecedents of Boredom at Workplace 25
Table 2.2	A Three-dimensional Taxonomy of Achievement Emotion 43
Table 3.1	Summary of Items in Questionnaire 87
Table 3.2	Social Support 87
Table 3.3	Total Number of Academicians in Malaysian PHEIs 91
Table 3.4	Distribution of Private Universities in Sarawak 92
Table 3.5	Findings of Face and Content Validity 95
Table 4.1	Demographic Characteristics of the Participants 106
Table 4.2	Summary of Descriptive Statistic for Variables in the Study 108
Table 4.3	Means and Standard Deviations for all Items 109
Table 4.4	Results of Measurement Model Evaluation 114
Table 4.5	Results of Cross Loading 117
Table 4.6	Path Coefficients for Inner Model 118
Table 4.7	R ² for Inner Model 120
Table 4.8	Results of Hypothesis Testing 122
Table 4.9	Results of Mediation Hypotheses Testing 142
Table 4.10	Indirect Effects 143
Table 4.11	Direct Effects 144
Table 4.12	VAF Value 146
Table 4.13	Results of Moderation Hypothesis Testing 159
Table 4.14	Results of Moderating Effect of Age 159
Table 5.1	Overall Research Results 163

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1.1 Best fitting research model	8
Figure 1.2 Conceptual Framework of the Proposal Research	12
Figure 2.1 Summary of gaps in the literature	47
Figure 2.2 Theoretical Framework	52
Figure 3.1 A Scheme for Analysing Assumptions About the Nature of Social Science	77
Figure 3.2 The Main Stages of the Research Process	81
Figure 4.1 Structural Model	121

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Majority of studies in organizational development have been emphasised on two opposite side of employees' wellbeing at workplace, namely positive and negative (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2014). While the positive aspect of work, such as engagement and flow is consider new, negative symptoms such as job burnout dominated the area of research. In recent meta analysis by various scholars, job burnout was found to mediate negative organizational performances such as such as health problems (Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2003b), organizational commitment (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006), working performance (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004), absenteeism (Bakker *et al.*, 2003a), and turnover intention (Demerouti *et al.*, 2001a; Chena & Chenab, 2012), job satisfaction (Duraisingam & Dollard, 2006), work engagement (Li & Mao, 2014), and safety compliance (Lia, Jiangb, Yaoc, & Lid, 2013).

Apart from job burnout, Schaufeli & Salanova (2014) claimed that boredom is another negative well being that can deteriorate organizations. Unfortunately, studies in that area remains neglected (Game, 2007) as it is considered inconsequential (Shane & Heather, 2013) despite constant calling for more boredom research (Bruursema, Kessler, & Spector, 2011; Shane & Heather, 2013; Harju & Hakanen, 2015). To further suppress the phenomena, boredom is classified as inconspicuous, "silent" emotion as compared to other affective states (Pekrun *et al.*, 2010), simply because boredom does not manifest

disruptiveness and low possibility in causing mental disorder as compared to anger and anxiety respectively.

As far as boredom literature is concerned, it is described as one of the widespread contagious bacterial of modern society that traditionally closely associated with blue collar employees and white collar employees as well (Heijden *et al.*, 2012). Although receiving less attention from scholars, particularly in organizational development, the topic of boredom has been emerged since three decades ago in the area of boredom-coping (Game, 2007; Watt & Hargis, 2010; Skowronski, 2012), boredom-proneness (Sommers & Vodanovich, 2000; Wallace, Vodanovich, & Restino, 2003; Watt & Hargis, 2010; Bruursema, Kessler, & Spector, 2011), boredom-attention problem (Damrad-Frye & Laird, 1989; Heijden *et al.*, 2012; Gerritsen *et al.*, 2014; Harju & Hakanen, 2015), and boredom-lack of meaning (Barbalet, 2000).

Emerging findings show that boredom hinder the organizations development such as health problems (Ferguson, 1973; Caplan *et al.*, 1975; Smith *et al.*, 1981; Harju *et al.*, 2014), job performance (Pekrun *et al.*, 2010; Watt & Hargis, 2010), job satisfaction (Kass, Vodanovich, & Callender, 2001; Spector & Fox, 2010), emotion (Dahlen *et al.*, 2004; Culp, 2006), attendance (Melamed *et al.*, 1995; Kass, Vodanovich, & Callender, 2001; Wan *et al.*, 2014), wellbeing (Sommers & Vodanovich, 2000; Loukidou, Loan-Clarke, & Daniels, 2009) and monetary loss at the organization level (Malachowski, 2005; Rothlin & Werder, 2008; Eddy *et al.*, 2010) across various countries. Although there are researches that put forward positive view on boredom such as relaxation or reflection session Harris (2000), a mechanism for refresh return from an activity (Darden & Marks, 1999) and a

stimulus to encourage new ideas and action (Belton & Priyadharshini, 2007), the negative impacts prevailed (Fisher, 1993).

While some scholars focus on what are the consequences of boredom, the other try to investigate the causes. Boredom is commonly related with monotonous workload, mental under load, poor utilization skill and absence of meaning (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2014) which stimulate the feeling of bored. As per JD-R theory, employee well being is influence by the disparity of job demands and resources. It was predicted that boredom most probably occur when employee working under poor job demands and resources environment (Reijseger *et al.*, 2013). In addition, Mercer-Lynn, Bar, & Eastwood (2014) claimed that apart from those reasons, boredom is independently related to the individual personality traits. Every individual has different tolerance towards boredom. For instance, extroverts are more outgoing and therefore have greater tolerance towards boredom and vice-versa. As yet, there are limited researches that investigate boredom under one theoretical framework. Therefore, the current study used the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) theory to associate boredom via health impairment and motivational process.

In this present study, academicians are the focal point of investigation because the profession has evolved from low stress (Fisher, 1994) and less workload (Gillespie *et al.*, 2001) to a stressful occupation (Farber, 1991; Kalimo & Hakanen, 2000) where they are expected to produce “best brain” to meet the market demand (Knight, 2002). Globally, they experienced high job burnout (Shuster & Finkelstein, 2006; Philips, Sen & McNamee, 2007; Nobile & McCormick, 2007) including Malaysia (Ahsan *et al.*, 2009; Makhbul & Khairuddin, 2013; Mustapha & Wee, 2013). However, scholars remain suggesting the

possibility of the occurrence of boredom in such unpleasant working environment although the plethora research in this area focused on burnout (Reijseger *et al.*, 2013; Schaufeli & Salanova, 2014).

In Malaysia, there is yet official statistical neither reports nor instruments to measure boredom at workplace. However, Ministry of Human Resources Malaysia in their recent report on drug abuse, acknowledge the occurrence of boredom among civil servant in various ministries throughout the country. They introduced remedial responses such as recreational options such as family day, tele-match and job rotation in making workplaces more productive to attain national goal (Ministry of Human Resources Malaysia, 2004). To the best of researcher's knowledge, there is unknown empirical study on boredom at the time of current research. This necessitates the need to address the occurrence of boredom within Malaysian context as boredom has been found inversely affecting organizations.

Apart from that, actual turnover among academicians in Malaysia was reported to be in a critical stage due to job dissatisfaction (Hashim & Mahmood, 2011). In year 2013, Ministry of Education Malaysia had recorded a sudden shortfall of 8,516 academicians. Scholars found that stressful working environment, heavy workload, low salary and recognitions are among few causes for such downfall. This is a huge loss for the ministry as they had recorded a positive consistent upraise in number of academicians prior to the downfall. Although the numbers are growing in recent years, PHEIs remain facing shortage of academicians due to the large influx of students in pursuing their tertiary education.

Unfortunately, former studies have yet to associate boredom with turnover intention. It was noted that turnover intention are largely related to work stress (Manshor, Fontaine, & Choy, 2003; Nasrudin, Ramayah, & Beng, 2006; Zakerian & Subramaniam, 2009), job satisfaction (Ahsan *et al.*, 2009; Ismail, Yao, & Yunus, 2009), work family conflict (Ahmad, 1996; Panatik *et al.*, 2011), job burnout (Mukundan & Khandehroo, 2010), organizational commitment (Lo, Ramayah, & Min, 2009; Marmay *et al.*, 2011) in various professions such as nurses, banking sector, retail employees and teachers. Hence, it is important to warrant current research to investigate the antecedents and consequences of boredom at workplace in Malaysian context. The findings will be useful for Malaysian scholars in assessing boredom at workplace within the country in the future.

1.2 Problem Statement

Several gaps have prompted this research. Firstly, the issue of boredom has been largely studied in western context namely Netherlands (van der Heijden, Schepers, & Nijssen, 2012; Reijseger *et al.*, 2013), Finland (Harju, Hakanen, & Schaufeli, 2014), United States (Watt & Hargis, 2010; Bruursema, Kessler, & Spector, 2011), United Kingdom (Game, 2007), Italy (Guglielmia *et al.*, 2013), Canada (Tze, Klassen, & Daniels, 2014), Australia (Whiteoak, 2014) under various settings such as white and blue collar employees, undergraduates, drivers, manufacturing workers, and mass retail employees but, not among academicians. Among areas of their investigation are such as types (Harju & Hakanen, 2015), causes (Mercer-Lynn, Bar, & Eastwood, 2014), consequences (Sommers & Vodanovich, 2000; Kass, Vodanovich, & Callender, 2001a; Bruursema, Kessler, &

Spector, 2011); and the potential solutions (Harju, Hakanen, & Schaufeli, 2014; Whiteoak, 2014) to boredom at workplace.

Firstly, as far as the boredom literature is concerned, there is only one attempt by Sohail *et al.*, (2012) that extended the investigation to the university lecturers in seeking the association of boredom against demographic factors. Academicians from PHEIs are chosen due to the fact that private universities are growing in Malaysia. They are the biggest tertiary education providers and fast in responding to the current demands of the economy and society (Lee, 2004). PHEIs are acting to support the obligation of shaping the future human capital for Malaysia and it is being upheld by the academicians irrespective of PHEIs. Any aspect, which could jeopardise the academicians, should be seriously investigated. Hence, this present study aims to address the boredom phenomena among academicians from PHEIs in Malaysia.

Secondly, JD-R theory underpinned present study. JD-R theory is an overarching and flexible theory that assumes every occupations have its own specific risk factors that will determine employees well being in the organizations (Bakker *et al.*, 2003a) which are job demands and job resources. Job demands are the effort invested by an individual in term of physical (cognitive) and psychological (emotional) aspect in executing the physical, psychological, social or organisational aspect of the related job (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Job resources refers to the physical, psychological, social or organisational aspects of the job itself which stimulate personal learning and motivational role in achieving work goals (Demerouti *et al.*, 2001) and reducing the impact of job demands (Bakker *et al.*, 2005).

The theory believes that high job demands will lead employees to perform negatively via health impairment process while job resources will encourage employees to perform positively through energetic process. Such comprehensive theory was applied into various occupations such as white collar employees (Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2003b), blue collar employees (Bakker *et al.*, 2003a), teachers (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006), and various collar employees (Demerouti *et al.*, 2001a).

Former western and eastern JD-R studies heavily highlighted the mediating role of job burnout and work engagement in predicting positive and negative outcomes such as health problems (Harju *et al.*, 2014), working performance (Watt & Hargis, 2010), absenteeism (Wan *et al.*, 2014) , job satisfaction (Spector & Fox, 2010), and wellbeing (Loukidou, Loan-Clarke, & Daniels, 2009) in respect to high job demands and resources. Contrary, little is made known when it comes to low job demands and resources which potentially favors boredom to take place. As boredom closely related to the negative organization outcome, it is worth to investigate boredom as mediator in seeking the association of its antecedents (i.e; job demands, resources and personality traits) and consequences (i.e; job burnout and turnover intention).

This present study adapted Reijseger *et al.*, (2013) model (see Figure 1.1). They illustrated boredom as another negative wellbeing that possessed different entity from job burnout and work engagement that resulted from low job demands and resources. The model was adapted in this research because the relationship of boredom and organizational outcome is yet to be made clear. The study by Reijseger *et al.*, (2013) only revealed that boredom, job burnout and work engagement are unique among each other and boredom is not in the

framework to correlate with job dissatisfaction, poor organizational commitment and turnover intention. Hence, boredom is inserted as mediator to investigate its relationship with turnover intention among academicians.

In addition, their investigation encircled within the work aspect (job demands and resources) as precursor events. In fact, personality traits play an important role in determining individual wellbeing (Fisher, 1993; Mercer-Lynn, Bar, & Eastwood, 2014), in this present context, boredom at workplace. This is supported by Mann & Robinson (2009), where they found individual personality trait is the most important determinant of boredom experience among university students in lecture. Different personality engenders different wellbeing at workplace which reflect the positive and negative organizational outcome. Nevertheless, Reijseger *et al.*, (2013) model did not investigate antecedents in the aspect of personality traits. Consequently, this present study (see Figure 1.2) integrated personality traits namely neuroticism and extraversion to close the theoretical gaps left by Reijseger *et al.*, (2013).

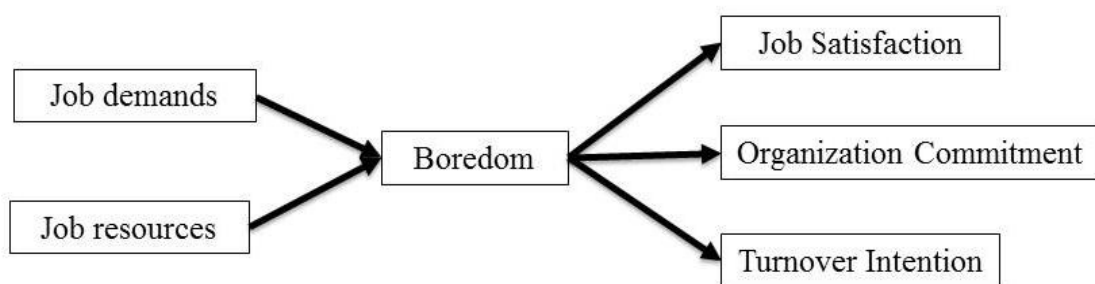


Figure 1.1: Best fitting research model (Reijseger *et al.*, 2013)

On top of that, age was commonly found to be an important factor influencing employees turnover intention. It was reported that young employees has greater turnover intention

(Kim & Jogaratnam, 2010) due to their differences in term of life orientation (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004), skills in using technology (Burke, 1994) and psychological contract (Ferres, Traveglione, & Firms, 2002) at workplace as compared to the older employees. These differences increase their mobility and employability from organization to the other. Same goes to boredom. Younger academicians are equipped with skills in using advanced technologies such as computers, softwares, and gadgets which make their daily routine become less challenging as compared to the academicians in older generation. In some scholars, they named it as “over qualified” to a job. As the matter of fact, age may influence the relationship between boredom and turnover intention. However, due to the limited boredom investigation, such studies had yet extended to boredom at workplace. Hence, age was introduced as moderator to expand Reijseger *et al.*, (2013) model.

Thirdly, it is noted that a considerable amount of past studies were quantitatively executed to examine boredom at workplace. Traditionaly, instruments such as Boredom Proneness Scale (Farmer & Sundberg, 1986) and Job Boredom Scale (Grubb, 1975) are widely used to capture boredom at workplace. Recently, Reijseger *et al.*, (2013) combined both general boredom scales to produce an eight-items instrument known as Dutch Boredom Scale (DUBS). From there onwards, DUBS has gained popularity among researchers until today. For instance, Harju, Hakanen, & Schaufeli, (2014) and Van Wyk *et al.*, (2016) who applied the Dutch Boredom Scale to measure job boredom in Finland and South Africa respectively.

Despite the issue of common method bias in using questionnaire (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003), Harju, Hakanen, & Schaufeli (2014) argued that boredom is a hidden negative facade of

normative behaviour that strike employees. Hence, they may have higher tendency of not admitting to experience it when they are approached qualitatively. Since then, boredom had limited studies using qualitative method. Therefore, this present study blended with a small scale of interview to collect qualitative data besides relying on quantitative data.

Fourthly, there are less practical recommendations made available to assist human resource practitioners in addressing boredom at workplace. The closest attempt was done by Reijseger *et al.*, (2013) where they concluded that human resource practitioners may consider redesign job to bring new experience at workplace. On top of that, Guglielmi *et al.*, (2013) highlighted that leaders should undergo transformational leadership training as they are found to influence employees' boredom experience. Both recommendations are limited to improve current bored employees. Unfortunately, there is unknown strategy for the organization to identify bored employees as early as during the recruitment and selection process. This particular strategy is important for organization to employ the right employees with positive, outgoing, and less bored prone attitude for organizational development purposes.

Hence, this present study will investigate boredom at the individual and work environment level. It is believed that the overall notion of boredom could be expressed in a full range model from antecedents to consequences. Findings for this study could provide more comprehensive insights for the human resource practitioners to offer practical remedial actions to reduce the possibility of employing bored candidates.

Accordingly, this research explores the following questions:

- a. What are the relationships between job demands, job resources, and personality traits towards boredom at workplace?
- b. What are the relationships between boredom at workplace and job burnout and turnover intention?
- c. Does boredom mediate the relationship between the job demands, job resources and personality traits with turnover intention?
- d. Does age moderate the association between boredom and turnover intention?

1.3 Research Objectives

Based on the above research questions, this research is designed to accomplish the following specific objectives:

- a. To investigate the relationship between workload and boredom.
- b. To investigate the relationship between student's disruptive behaviour and boredom.
- c. To investigate the relationship between job autonomy and boredom.
- d. To investigate the relationship between social support and boredom.
- e. To investigate the relationship between extraversion and boredom.
- f. To investigate the relationship between neuroticism and boredom.
- g. To investigate the relationship between boredom and turnover intention.
- h. To investigate the relationship between boredom and job burnout.
- i. To examine the mediating role of boredom in the relationship between workload and turnover intention.

- j. To examine the mediating role of boredom in the relationship between student's disruptive behaviour and turnover intention.
- k. To examine the mediating role of boredom in the relationship between job autonomy and turnover intention.
- l. To examine the mediating role of boredom in the relationship between supervisory support and turnover intention.
- m. To examine the mediating role of boredom in the relationship between extraversion and turnover intention.
- n. To examine the mediating role of boredom in the relationship between neuroticism and turnover intention.
- o. To examine the moderating role of age in the relationship between boredom and turnover intention.

1.4 Conceptual Framework

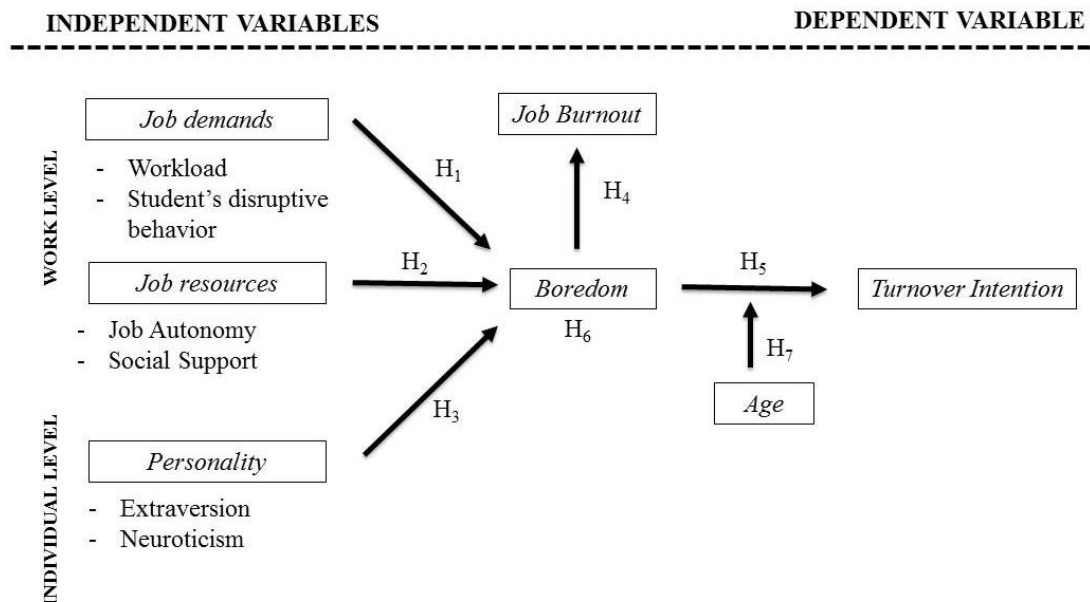


Figure 1.2: Conceptual Framework of the Proposal Research

1.5 Significance of the study

Most of the previous studies on boredom at workplace have been done in western contexts such as United States (Mercer-Lynn, Bar, & Eastwood, 2014), North America (Bruursema, Kessler, & Spector, 2011), Finland (Harju, Hakanen, & Schaufeli, 2014); (Harju & Hakanen, 2015), Pakistan (Sohail *et al.*, 2012), Netherlands (Reijseger *et al.*, 2013), and Germany (Watt & Hargis, 2010). The construct of job satisfaction, turnover intention, and absenteeism (Sommers & Vodanovich, 2000; Kass *et al.*, 2001; Dahlen *et al.*, 2004; Culp, 2006; Loukidou *et al.*, 2009; Pekrun *et al.*, 2010; Watt & Hargis, 2010; Spector & Fox, 2010; Harju *et al.*, 2014; Wan *et al.*, 2014) and monetary loss (Fisher, 1993; Eddy, D'Abate, & Jr, 2010) have been commonly linked with boredom at workplace. Unfortunately, there are difficulties in allocating boredom studies among eastern countries including Malaysia. Hence, this present research contributes to the growing body of knowledge and literatures in boredom among Eastern countries, specifically within the context of academicians in Malaysia.

Secondly, it contributes to the expansion of the JD-R theory. JD-R theory has been largely administered in predicting different performance outcomes such as job satisfaction, turnover intention and ill health relatively by high job demands and job resources in western and eastern context such as Finland (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006), Netherlands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), Japan (Inoue *et al.*, 2013), India (Duraisingam & Dollard, 2006), China (Lia *et al.*, 2013), Taiwan, and Korea (Yeh, 2015). However, to the best of author knowledge, limited reports have been found to comprehensively describe the interaction of boredom as mediator using JD-R theory except by (Reijseger *et al.*,

2013) and (Guglielmi *et al.*, 2013). In addition, current research included personality traits as an antecedent besides job demands and job resources. Thus, this research potentially enhances the adapted model from Reijseger *et al.*, (2013).

Thirdly, this research mainly conducted quantitatively whereby data is collected using questionnaire. Although Harju, Hakanen, & Schaufeli, (2014) argued that it is not suitable approach to investigate boredom, this present study will remain to collect a small scale of qualitative data via interview. This is because boredom is a subjective experience and it differs among individual. The findings from the interview were used to support and justify the quantitative data. Since boredom was approached quantitatively and qualitatively, current investigation have picked new findings that has been overlooked previously. In addition, this research has established an instrument to capture boredom at workplace among Malaysian workforce.

Finally, findings of this research could explain the reasons leading employees to get bored and leave their organization. With this handy information, it may help organisation in managing boredom. According to Reijseger *et al.*, (2013), it is the responsibility of human resource manager to perform job redesign to increase activation among employees in order to reduce boredom at workplace. Thus, it is hope that the current research could assist organisations to identify and manage the critical antecedents of boredom at workplace in more effective manner to reduce turnover intention.

1.6 Definitions of Terms

The relevant terms used are defined as below to avoid any potential confusion in interpretation of the concepts employed in this research.

Boredom

Conceptually: An unpleasant transient state in which individuals feel an extreme lack of interest in their current activity (Fisher, 1993).

Operational: In this study, boredom is regarded as a negative state of cognition, emotion and physical strength that strike academicians to be deactivated and unpleasant with of their unchallenging job.

Turnover Intention

Conceptually: Turnover intention is the behavior manifested by employees' with the intention to exit (Brigham, Castro, & Shepherd, 2007) or intention to leave (Noor & Maad, 2008).

Operational: In this study, turnover intention is the withdrawal behavior exhibit by academicians to quit their current job.

Job Burnout

Conceptually: A psychological syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who work with other people in some capacity (Maslach, 1993).

Operational: In this study, job burnout is regarded as a negative syndrome displayed by academicians who physically and emotionally depleted.

Job Demands

Conceptually: Job demands are the effort invested by an individual in terms of physical (cognitive) and psychological (emotional) aspects in executing the physical, psychological, social or organisational aspect of the related job (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

Operational: In this study, job demands refer to the characteristics of the job that demand academicians to be physically and psychologically attached to it. In this present study, two job demands have been identified namely workload (Meng & Liu, 2008) and students disruptive behaviour (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006)

Job Resources

Conceptually: Job resources refers to the physical, psychological, social or organisational aspects of the job itself which stimulate personal learning and motivational role in achieving work goals (Demerouti *et al.*, 2001) and reducing the impact of job demands (Bakker *et al.*, 2005).

Operational: In this study, job resources refer to the resources which stimulate academicians through learning and motivation in dealing with job demands. In the present study, two job resources have been identified namely job autonomy and social support (Reijseger *et al.*, 2013).

Personality traits

Conceptually: Personality traits refer to the individual differences in the way of thinking, feeling and behave that commonly can be categorized under “Big Five” (Goldberg, 1990) which composing of the dimensions of neuroticism, extroversion, openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness.

Operational: In this study, two types of personality namely neuroticism and extroversion appear to be most relevant to boredom at workplace.

1.7 Structure of the Thesis

The current chapter introduces the context of the research covering issues such as the background, objectives and significance in order to give an overview idea of this research. To explain the further insight of this research, the remaining sections of the thesis are as follows:

Chapter 2: The literature review chapter elaborates the main theories and identifies gaps, which will be integrated with JD-R model to form conceptual framework of this research. This chapter also provides a review of the previous literature on the constructs incorporated in this research.

Chapter 3: The theoretical framework and hypotheses development chapter describes the conceptual framework developed in this research and explains the development of hypotheses.

Chapter 4: Collected data are being interpreted and analysed for discussion purpose. The similarity and contrast of the findings are elaborated in depth supported with qualitative data gathered via interview.

Chapter 5: This chapter summarised the overall research findings and the implications towards theory and practice. In addition, the directions for future research are also being discussed upon realising the limitation of current research.