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**On the modern workplace: Factors related to commitment, well-being and
turnover intention.**

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**Sciences de la gestion
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Résumé

Profondément enracinés dans une littérature empirique et théorique diversifiée, les essais suivants comblent d'importantes lacunes dans la recherche sur les comportements organisationnels. Le premier essai porte sur les relations différentielles entre les antécédents et trois formes d'engagement en contexte de travail (l'engagement organisationnel, l'engagement envers la carrière, et l'engagement envers la carrière organisationnelle). Le second essai, qui se base théoriquement sur le « modèle des demandes-ressources de travail » (Demerouti et al., 2001), explique l'impact de diverses exigences et ressources (personnelles et professionnelles) sur l'intention de roulement et l'épuisement émotionnel. Un questionnaire en ligne comprenant vingt mesures a été administré à des employés à temps plein aux États-Unis ($N = 373$). Différents tests statistiques ont été réalisés pour les tests d'hypothèses, de sorte que la modélisation des équations structurelles a été utilisée pour le premier essai, tandis que la régression linéaire multiple et l'analyse des poids relatifs ont été utilisés pour le deuxième essai. Dans le premier essai, nous avons constaté que la satisfaction au travail et la satisfaction envers la rémunération étaient positivement liées aux trois formes d'engagement. De plus, les conflits travail-famille étaient liés de façon positive et les conflits famille-travail étaient liés négativement à l'engagement envers la carrière et à l'engagement envers la carrière organisationnelle. Dans le deuxième essai, nous avons constaté que les exigences d'emploi étaient positivement liées à l'épuisement émotionnel et que les ressources étaient négativement liées à l'intention de roulement. De façon globale, ces études contribuent à la littérature en faisant avancer et en développant davantage le « modèle des demandes-ressources de travail » (Demerouti et al., 2001) et en élucidant l'impact différentiel des antécédents sur trois formes d'engagement en contexte de travail. Les limites et les domaines de recherche futurs sont discutés dans chaque essai.

Mots clés: Engagement en contexte de travail, satisfaction envers l'emploi, satisfaction envers la rémunération, conflit travail-famille, modèle des demandes-ressources de travail, ressources personnelles, épuisement émotionnel, intention de roulement.

Abstract

Deeply rooted in a theory-driven and diverse empirical literature, the present essays address important gaps in the organizational behavior research. The first essay addresses the differential relationships of antecedents on three foci of work commitment (i.e., organizational commitment, career-oriented commitment and commitment to organizational career). The second essay, which is theoretically grounded in the Job Demands-Resources model (Demerouti et al., 2001), elucidates the impact of various job demands and resources (personal and job-related) on turnover intention and emotional exhaustion. An online questionnaire comprising twenty measures was administered to full-time employees across the United States ($N = 373$). Different statistical tests were employed for hypothesis testing, such that structural equation modeling was used for the first essay, whereas multiple linear regression and relative weights analysis was used for the second essay. In the first essay, we found that job and pay satisfaction were positively related to three foci of work commitment. Additionally, work-family conflict was positively related to and family-work conflict was negatively related to career-oriented commitment and commitment to organizational career. In the second essay, we found that job demands were positively related to emotional exhaustion and resources were negatively related to turnover intention. Taken together, these studies contribute to the literature by advancing and further developing the Job Demands-Resources model (Demerouti et al., 2001) and by elucidating the differing impact of antecedents on three foci of work commitment. The limitations and areas for future research work are discussed in each essay.

Keywords: Work commitment, job satisfaction, pay satisfaction, work-family conflict, job demands-resources model, personal resources, emotional exhaustion, turnover intention.

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Preface

The aim of the present thesis is to explore important facets of the modern workplace vis-à-vis two empirical essays. The first focuses on the antecedents of work commitment and the second focuses on demands and resources in relation to organizational outcomes.

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Introduction

Many employees are stressed. Among corporate professionals in the US, Deloitte (2018) reports that nearly two-thirds (64%) report frequent stress from their job. Findings from Crompton (2011) corroborate this given that work was identified as the primary source of stress (62%) for employed individuals. Along a similar vein, a recent survey by the Mental Health America (2018) reveals that over three quarters of employees (81%) feel that stress brought on from their job tends to spill over and negatively affect their non-work spheres of life (e.g., family and friends). The same study found that one third (36%) of employees always or often believe they are supported by their immediate superior. Stress from their jobs and a lack of support from their immediate superior has been reported by employees (31%) as being a primary driver of burnout (Deloitte, 2018). Taken together, stress from work appears to have a negative impact on employees, one of these may be wanting to leave their current jobs. Nearly three quarters (71%) of employees reported pondering new job opportunities or actively seeking them out (Mental Health America, 2018).

Given the implications work has on an employee's health and well-being, it is unsurprising that a great deal of empirical research has focused on many facets of the workplace and employee behavior. In terms of research, much of the focus has fallen on work commitment (see Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005 for review) burnout (see Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001 for review) and employee turnover (see Hom, Lee, Shaw & Hausknecht, 2017 for review). From one perspective, researchers can examine the reasons individuals want to leave an organization, and from another they can examine the reasons why individuals stay with an organization. For example, the top four reasons employees stay with their current organization and job are: job

satisfaction (51%), extrinsic rewards (41%), attachment to their colleagues (34%) and lastly, commitment to their organization (17%; Hausknecht, Rodda & Howard, 2009). These factors when present can contribute to the retention of employees and their perceptions of the organization; however, when absent they may fuel intentions to quit and consequent voluntary employee turnover. In another vein, low levels of the positive retention factors can be related to a variety of outcomes, such as lower perceived work commitment, employee illbeing and elevated intention to quit (e.g., Hom & Griffeth, 1991). As such, the goal of the present work is to further understand the modern workplace by testing a variety of hypotheses arising from gaps in the literature surrounding three key areas: work commitment, burnout and employee turnover.

The first theoretical foundation arises from commitment theory which includes many foci within the workplace (e.g., Klein, Molloy & Brinsfield, 2012). Simply, in the organizational context an employee can be simultaneously committed to their organization, supervisor and even the progression of their career (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001) and these foci may share similar antecedents (Klein et al., 2012). As such, the first essay investigates the antecedents of three foci of work commitment to determine the potential differing impact they may have on each foci.

A second theoretical foundation of the present work is the Job Demands-Resources model (JD-R model; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001). Briefly, the JD-R model is separated into two pathways, the first where job demands (or negative job-related characteristics such as work overload or work-life conflict: e.g., Mauno, Kinnunen & Ruokolainen, 2007; Schaufeli, Bakker & Van Rhenen, 2009) relates to emotional exhaustion. The second where job resources (or positive job-related characteristics such as feeling close to one's coworkers and value congruence with the organization: e.g., Jin, McDonald & Park, 2018) relates to disengagement. With the present, we seek to substitute the outcome of disengagement in the traditional JD-R

model (Demerouti et al., 2001) with that of turnover intention which has been found to positively relate to voluntary employee turnover (Van Breukelen, Van Der Vlist & Steensma, 2004).

Ultimately, many factors influence employee ill-being (e.g., Cordes & Dougherty, 1993) and the decision to leave an organization (e.g., Griffeth et al., 2000). To this end, the second essay elucidates the differential impact of job demands and resources on well-being and turnover intention using the tenets of the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001).

First, a brief and non-exhaustive overview of the key concepts is presented next followed by the two essays. The general theoretical and managerial implications of both essays are presented afterwards.

Theoretical Overview

Employees spend a lot of time in their workplace. They are consequently involved with their organization, work hard and in some regards identify with the organization's values, the strength of which encompasses organizational commitment (Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian, 1974). Employees may also be committed to their career (Ellemers, de Gilder & van den Heuvel, 1998) and the progression of their career within an organization (Lapointe, Vandenberghe, Mignonac, Panaccio, Schwarz, Richebé & Roussel, 2019). As previously mentioned, various foci of work commitment may have similar antecedents (e.g., Klein et al., 2012). Commonly studied antecedents of work commitment include: an employee's perception of their work-life conflict (e.g., Colarelli & Bishop, 1990), and an employee's perception of their satisfaction with pay (e.g., Arye, Chay & Chew, 1994) and their job (e.g., Tett & Meyer, 1993).

First, an employee's perception of work-family conflict, which occurs when work spills over into family life, was noted as being positively related to affective organizational commitment (Zhang, Griffeth & Fried, 2012). The same work found that the other direction, family-work conflict, which occurs when family life spills over into work, to be negatively related to affective organizational commitment. Interestingly, conflict between work and family roles was found to be negatively related to career-oriented commitment (Colarelli & Bishop, 1990). Both satisfaction with pay and the job positively relate to affective organizational commitment (Jayasingam & Yong, 2013; Lok & Crawford, 2001, respectively) and career-oriented commitment (Aryee, Chay & Chew, 1994; Singh & Goulet, 2002, respectively). Satisfaction with a variety of work-related domains contributes to relevant organizational outcomes. For example, the degree of satisfaction an employee has with their job has been found to be related to a variety of workplace behaviors (e.g., Alegre, Mas-Machuca & Berbegal-Mirabent, 2016;

Trevor, 2001). Several factors have been noted as having a significant effect on job satisfaction. Specifically, Gaertner (1999) notes that role ambiguity, role conflict and workload all have a negative relationship with job satisfaction. Riza and colleagues (2016) noted that those who have been with organizations longer are more likely to report lower levels of job satisfaction. Even though they found the opposite with age, such that age and job satisfaction are positively related. Interestingly, organizational commitment may be affected by the behaviors of others in the workplace, such that a distressing interaction with one's superiors appears to impact an employee's level of organizational commitment (Leiter & Maslach, 1988). The same work found that those distressing interactions were also positively related to emotional exhaustion (Leiter & Maslach, 1988). It is worth noting that emotional exhaustion, tends to be the visible aspect of burnout, wherein an employee describing themselves as "burnt out" often describe the underpinnings of emotional exhaustion (Maslach, et al., 2001). Burnout may arise from job and organizational characteristics such as (excessive) workload, (low satisfaction with) pay, and perceived fairness, to name a few (Maslach et al., 2001). An excessive workload may be stressful for employees, their ability to recover this (brief) period of stress is known as resilience (Smith, Tooley, Christopher & Kay, 2010; Smith, Wiggins, Christopher & Bernard, 2008). Employees with higher levels of resilience tend to report lower levels of perceived burnout and higher levels of life satisfaction (Upadaya, Vartiainen, Salmela-Aro, 2016).

Along a similar vein, when considering emotional exhaustion in the scope of the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001), feeling exhausted tends to be associated with high levels of job demands paired with low levels of job resources (Bakker et al., 2005). Furthermore, turnover intention appears to be higher in employees who report high levels of job demands and characteristics of burnout (Hu, Schaufeli & Taris, 2011). On the other hand, both job and

personal resources tend to negatively relate to emotional exhaustion (Hakanen et al., 2008; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Additionally, turnover intention appeared to be lower in employees who report elevated levels of job resources (Hu et al., 2011).

The well-being of employees may be, as suggested in self-determination theory (Ryan, Kuhl, & Deci, 1997; Ryan & Deci, 2000), influenced by the satisfaction of three basic psychological needs (e.g., autonomy, competency and relatedness) (e.g., Brien, Forest, Mageau, Boudrias, Desrumaux, Brunet & Morin, 2012; Deci, Olafsen & Ryan, 2017; Gagné & Deci, 2005). On the other hand, when the basic psychological needs are obstructed (compared to when an employee's needs satisfaction is facilitated) employees tend to report more negative aftereffects such as turnover intention (e.g., Van den Broeck, Ferris, Chang & Rosen, 2016). Along a similar vein, turnover intention was found to be negatively related to satisfaction with pay (Currall et al., 2005; Williams et al., 2006) and job satisfaction (Van Breukelen et al., 2004). Interestingly, a novel interaction was found between job satisfaction and turnover suggesting that when there is period in which a relative ease of finding a new employment opportunity occurs (e.g., many jobs available) the negative effect of job satisfaction on turnover strengthens (Trevor, 2001).

Chapter 1: Co-author authorization form

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On the modern workplace: Factors related to commitment, well-being and turnover intention.

(Title of thesis or dissertation)

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Chapter 1: On the Foci of Work Commitment: Satisfaction and Work-Life Conflict as Antecedents

Abstract

Introduction: Building upon the vast empirical investigations on work commitment along with the extensive research on job satisfaction, pay satisfaction and work-life conflict, we examined the latter as antecedents in relation to three related (though different) foci of work commitment.

Aim: This study examined the differential relationships of job satisfaction, pay satisfaction and work-life conflict on three foci of work commitment: organizational commitment, career-oriented commitment and commitment to organizational career.

Method: A brief anonymous online questionnaire containing six measures was completed by full-time employees ($N = 377$).

Results: We found that job and pay satisfaction were positively related to the three foci of work commitment. Furthermore, work-life conflict was positively related to career-oriented commitment and commitment to organizational career whereas life-work conflict was negatively related to those foci of work commitment. Overall, job satisfaction was the most influential of all three antecedents.

Conclusion: The results of the present study contribute to the advancement and development of work commitment theory by investigating the potential differential impact of various antecedents on several forms of commitment to careers and the organization.

Keywords: Foci of work commitment, job satisfaction, pay satisfaction, work-life conflict, structural equation model.

1.1 Introduction

Commitment in the organizational context, as various conceptualizations, has been the subject of empirical analysis for nearly five decades (Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian, 1974). A general definition of commitment would be “a volitional psychological bond reflecting dedication to and responsibility for a specific target” (Klein, Molloy & Brinsfield, 2012, p.137). Conceptually speaking, commitment has been described as an attitude, a behavior or a course of action (e.g., Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Solinger, van Olfeen & Roe, 2008). Along a similar vein, given the possibility of various forms of work commitment, all of which exemplify pronounced attitudes, even with similar antecedents they may not have the same impacts across the board (e.g., Hackett, Lapierre & Hausdorf, 2001; Wiener & Vardi, 1980).

Given the broad definition of work commitment (e.g., Klein et al., 2012), it is unsurprising that many forms are now studied, such as to the organization (e.g., Porter et al., 1974), the profession (Lee, Carswell & Allen, 2000), the career (Ellemers, de Gilder & van den Heuvel, 1998) and to one's career within the organization (Lapointe, Vandenberghe, Mignonac, Panaccio, Schwarz, Richebé & Roussel, 2019). Even with such a plethora of foci of work commitment (see Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005 for review), it has been argued that extant literature exists on the relationships between various foci of commitment (Hackett et al., 2001). Of the few studies that simultaneously included various foci of commitment in their research models (e.g., Carmeli & Freund, 2004; Cohen, 2000; Van Steenbergen & Ellemers, 2009) all were hypothesized to relate to the same outcome variable (in their respective study). Though in Meyer and colleagues (2002) where they test the three components of organizational commitment simultaneously, they posit that personal characteristics (as an antecedent) will be the same for the components.

As it relates to foci of commitment, Reichers (1985) originally posited that the employee is, figuratively, at the center of a circle and is surrounded by various foci of commitment. The foci of commitment were placed at distances denoted by an arrow wherein the length of the arrow was representative of the perceived distance between the employee and the specific foci of commitment. For example, coworkers are much closer to an employee than professional associations and as such, it is unsurprising that an employee's degree of commitment to various foci can also vary given that a separate attitude is indicative of each foci of commitment (Wiener & Vardi, 1980).

Due to persistent difficulties with measurement choices, the specificities of the relationship between antecedents and foci of work commitment must be thoroughly established (Mayer & Schoorman, 1998). Similarly, assuming that employees exhibit varying degrees of commitment to

distinct aspects of their work life (Wiener & Vardi, 1980), which may be influenced in part by distance (e.g., Reichers, 1985), it is important to alleviate these differences by using conceptually similar foci of work commitment. To this end, following the example of Van Steenbergen and Ellemers (2009) and others (e.g., Becker, 1992; Carmeli & Freund, 2004; Cohen, 2000; Redman & Snape, 2005) three conceptually related foci of work commitment were chosen in the present study. These include: affective organizational commitment (AOC) which refers to an employee's emotional attachment to their organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991), career-oriented commitment, as the name suggests relates to an individual's career progression and advancement, and lesser so to the company (Ellemers et al., 1998) and finally commitment to organizational career which refers to an employee's commitment of having a career within an organization (Lapointe et al., 2019).

In viewing the three present foci of work commitment in the scope of Reichers (1985) conceptualization, they could be seen as being of varying distance from the employee. This is further reflected in Reichers (1985) model, as both organizational commitment (e.g., the organization; Meyer & Allen, 1991) and career commitment (e.g., the career; Ellemers et al., 1998) would represent distinct circles and commitment to career within the organization (Lapointe et al., 2019) would be located between them. Similarly, by adopting the perspective of Allen and Meyer (1990) which refers to AOC as an employee's "want to stay with an organization", we could similarly view the other foci of work commitment as "wants". For example, career-oriented commitment would be an employee's "want to advance the career" and commitment to organizational career would be an employee's "want to stay with an organization to advance their career". In other words, these three forms of commitment represent a desire (e.g., Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

The common essence of desire relates to the recent proposition that “commitment operates in a similar manner and has similar antecedents and consequences, regardless of context or target” (Klein et al., 2012, p.136). This suggests that even though there may be many different forms of or targets of commitment, there may be similarities in their relationships with organizational antecedents and outcome variables. With antecedents comprising situational variables which may influence their course of action (e.g., to stay with an organization or career; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Though, it has been suggested that antecedents (e.g., personal variables) may influence each facet of organizational commitment (i.e., affective, normative, continuance; Meyer & Allen, 1991) differently (Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999). By extension, one could surmise that antecedents (e.g., job satisfaction and pay satisfaction) may also differentially predict various foci of commitment based on previous work that investigated the role of various bases of commitment differentially predicting outcomes (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005; O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986).

Interestingly, Becker (1992) notes that elucidating the differential effects of various foci and bases of work commitment (e.g., Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005; O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986) does not align with the traditional and widely accepted view of work commitment (e.g., Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982). Unsurprisingly, minimal research has investigated the varying impact of the drivers of different (though theoretically related) forms of commitment. Doing so with three forms of commitment that are conceptually similar would facilitate testing the proposition by Klein and colleagues (2012) that regardless of commitment target (e.g., organization, career, organizational career) the antecedents would be similar. Examples of this can be found in the literature, for example, Carmeli and Freund (2004) used job involvement as an antecedent to two foci of commitment: organizational (affective and continuance) and career.

The antecedent (i.e., job involvement) was similarly related to affective and career commitment, whereas when looking at their relation to the outcome variable (i.e., job satisfaction) they varied in strength. Similarly, work-family conflict was noted as being differentially related to three forms of organizational commitment (Lyness & Thompson, 1997). Together, suggesting that various antecedents may differentially relate to different foci of work commitment.

Both organizational commitment and career-oriented commitment have been extensively studied (e.g., Aryee & Tan, 1992; Cohen, 1992). Common antecedents for these two foci of commitment include: age (e.g., Katz, Rudolph & Zacher, 2019; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), tenure (e.g., Blau, 1985; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2002), job satisfaction (e.g., Goulet & Singh, 2002; Tett & Meyer, 1993), work-life conflict (e.g., Colarelli & Bishop, 1990; Zhang, Griffeth & Fried, 2012) and pay satisfaction (e.g., Arye, Chay & Chew, 1994; Kuvaas, 2006). These antecedents are important given that they may affect commitment and influence additional outcomes, such as absenteeism, turnover intentions and actual turnover (e.g., Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982; Steers, 1977). To this end, some have suggested that elevated levels of work-life conflict could result in employees feeling less committed to their organization, by way of an imbalance of reciprocity between employee and employer (Homans, 1961; Siegel, Post, Brockner, Fishman & Garden, 2005). Additionally, the saliency of these antecedents in the modern work context also contributes to the need to study them simultaneously in relation to various foci of work commitment (e.g., Siegel et al., 2005).

The aim of the present study is to elucidate the relationships between several drivers of three different (though related) forms of work commitment: affective organizational (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993), career-oriented (Ellemers et al., 1998) and organizational career (Lapointe et al., 2019). The present study will advance the field of work commitment research in several ways.

First, the results will contribute to the explanation of the varying importance of drivers in relation to each foci of work commitment. Second, the results will synthesize findings of three different (though related) foci of work commitment and allow for a more thorough understanding of the workplace variables that may act as drivers of these forms of work commitment.

1.2 Theoretical Background

Commitment theory

Commitment in the organizational context has been extensively studied and by consequence a plethora of definitions and models exist to this day (for a review, see Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). As previously mentioned, employees may not only be committed to entities (e.g., organization, supervisor) but behaviors (e.g., career advancement) as well (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Of the earliest definitions, Porter and colleagues (1974) sought to define organizational commitment as “the strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization” (p.604). This view includes three broad factors such that employees identify with the organization’s values, they work hard in their job and they want to stay in the organization (Porter et al., 1974). Later definitions, such as the one by Meyer and Allen (2001) followed a similar vein, wherein they proposed that commitment relates to the “employees’ relationship with the organization” (p. 67) and their decision to continue with or depart from the organization.

Several models of organizational commitment have been tested since the definition proposed by Porter and colleagues (1974). One such model addressed the psychological attachment to the organization, comprising of three factors: compliance, identification and internalization (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Another model elucidated the relationships between organizational commitment and indicators of organizational effectiveness (e.g., absenteeism, turnover and

operating expenses; Angle & Perry, 1981). Undoubtedly, the most widely cited model would be the three-component model of organizational commitment, comprising of affective, continuance and normative components (Meyer & Allen, 1991). These components represent commitment to remain with the organization as a psychological state, which include the desire (i.e., affective component), the need (i.e., continuance component) and obligation (i.e., normative component). (For a critique of the three-component model, see Solinger et al., 2008). Of the three components elucidated by Meyer & Allen (1991), affective commitment has been the focus of a plethora of work commitment research given the noted relationships and impacts it has with work-related variables, such as turnover intention, actual turnover, absenteeism and stress (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005; Meyer et al., 2002).

Foci of work commitment

The foci of work commitment comprise a multitude of bases, perhaps the most recognizable being AOC, defined as “the employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization” (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p.67). AOC has been found to play an important role in various employee behavioral outcomes (see Meyer et al., 2002 for review). Mowday and colleagues (1982) suggested that the antecedents of AOC were broadly placed into four groupings of characteristics: personal (e.g., age and tenure: Steers, 1977), work experience-related (e.g., job satisfaction), job-related (e.g., work-family conflict and pay satisfaction) and organizational.

From the moment an individual becomes an employee for the first time, to their retirement, this long stretch of time and the decisions made during it, make up their career (Meyer et al., 1993). An employee’s personal career is shaped based on the profession, job, organization and the decisions they make or have made. The degree to which an individual commit’s to advancing

their career, such as through attaining a higher position encompasses their career-oriented commitment (Ellemers et al., 1998). Even though higher job change and voluntary turnover are noted among those with higher levels of career-oriented commitment, satisfaction with the job and pay were found to be positively related to this form of commitment (Ellemers et al., 1998).

Recently, Lapointe and colleagues (2019) presented commitment to organizational career, defined as “individuals’ commitment to the goal of pursuing a long and successful career in an organization” (p.2). Differing from career-oriented commitment (Ellemers et al., 1998), commitment to organizational career relates to who an employee wishes to become and their aspirations within their current organization vis-à-vis long tenure and career advancement. It also relates to how an employee endeavors to achieve the goal of a long and marked career within an organization.

Thus, the main difference between the career-oriented commitment and commitment to organizational career, is that the prior relates to advancing in one’s profession (regardless of organization; Ellemers et al., 1998) and the latter refers to advancing one’s career in their present organization (Lapointe et al., 2019). Given that this form of commitment has recently been proposed, the present study is among the first to investigate the role of satisfaction and work-family conflict in relation to it. Though, based on the organizational career success literature (e.g., Wiese, Freund and Baltes, 2002), it should positively relate to pay satisfaction, job satisfaction and lower work-family conflict.

Job Satisfaction and work commitment

A considerable amount of time of one’s life is spent at work, as such it is important to understand employees emotional state when referring to one’s job; commonly known as job satisfaction

(Locke, 1969). Perhaps the most widely studied antecedent of commitment (AOC) would be job satisfaction which has been found to be positively related to it (Lok & Crawford, 2001; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006). Suggesting that an employee who is content with their job will likely demonstrate stronger attachment to their organization and subsequently less voluntary turnover (e.g., Tett & Meyer, 1993). Similarly, job satisfaction has been found to be positively related to career-oriented commitment (Goulet & Singh, 2002; Zhang, Wu, Miao, Yan & Peng, 2014). Suggesting that employees satisfied with their job are also more likely to report stronger commitment to their current careers

One should note; however, that there remains disagreement regarding the role of job satisfaction as an antecedent of AOC. Specifically, in some longitudinal work no support was found (e.g., Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Dougherty, Bluedorn & Keon, 1985; Wong, Hui & Kenneth, 1995). Few longitudinal samples yielded significant relationships, though in one case job satisfaction appeared to mediate AOC (Scott-Ladd, Travaglione & Marshall, 2005). Given the lack of consensus in the literature, it is important to test both constructive replications of existing literature (when possible, to rectify lack of consensus) and investigative hypotheses that are theoretically grounded, though have not been previously empirically investigated. To this end, we propose two constructive replication hypotheses and one investigative hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: Job satisfaction will be positively related to affective organizational commitment

Hypothesis 2: Job satisfaction will be positively related to career-oriented commitment

Hypothesis 3: Job satisfaction will be positively related to commitment to organizational career

Work-life conflict and work commitment

Employees primarily occupy two (of many) roles, such as the work role and the non-work role (e.g., family life, social life). Sometimes, these roles may collide and spill into one another causing the boundary between each to become blurred. A great deal of empirical work has been conducted on role boundaries (e.g., Kossek, Ruderman, Braddy & Hannum, 2012; Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2006). With boundaries comprising physical and behavioral strategies which “serve to structure and demarcate the various roles an individual maintains in different domains” (Olson-Buchana & Boswell, 2006, p. 433). The degree to which roles are integrated (e.g., overlap) or segmented (e.g., separation), for example: elevated levels of work and life role integration suggest there is no separation between the two roles (Nippert-Eng, 1996). Elevated levels of work and life role segmentation suggests that there is a clear separation between the two roles (Nippert-Eng, 1996). (For a review on role segmentation-integration, see Ashforth, Kreiner & Fugate, 2000 and for work-family interactions see Shockley & Singla, 2011).

It is important to differentiate the directionality of the roles conflict given that some empirical work demonstrates a relationship between work interfering with family (e.g., Casper, Harris, Taylor-Bianco & Wayne, 2011), family interfering with work (e.g., Netemeyer, Boles & McMurrian. 1996) and organizational commitment; whereas others have not (e.g., O’Driscoll, Ilgen & Hildreth, 1992). For example, when the family role spills over into the work role, an employee may feel reduced engagement at work as their resources are reduced by the burden of the family role (Shaffer, Harrison, Gilley & Luk, 2001).

Interestingly, work-family conflict was found to be positively associated with AOC (Allen, Herst, Bruck & Sutton, 2000; Zhang, Griffeth & Fried, 2012) while family-work conflict was found to be negatively associated with AOC (Zhang et al., 2012). Simply put, employees whose

home-life affects their work-life are less likely to be committed to their current organization; however, those whose work-life affects their home-life report higher levels of commitment to their organization. Suggesting that directionality of domain (i.e., work and family) conflict may influence an employee's organizational commitment. Given that commitment to organizational career has yet to be empirically tested with the variables of conflict between work and family roles, the present work posits that the directionality of relationships would be similar to that of AOC. In addition to being conceptually related, the work by Lapointe and colleagues (2019) noted a positive correlation between AOC and commitment to organizational career ($r = .59, p < .01$). Conflict between work and family roles was found to be negatively related to career-oriented commitment (Colarelli & Bishop, 1990). Suggesting that employees whose roles conflict may be less committed to their career, simply because their family role interferes with their work role (e.g., Siegel et al., 2005). Taken together, the present findings suggest that conflicting roles differentially impacts various foci of work commitment. To this end, we propose the following two constructive replication hypotheses and one investigate hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4: (a) Work-to-life conflict will be positively related to and (b) life-to-work conflict will be negatively related to affective organizational commitment

Hypothesis 5: (a) Work-to-life conflict and (b) life-to-work conflict will be negatively related to career-oriented commitment

Hypothesis 6: (a) Work-to-life conflict will be positively related to and (b) life-to-work conflict will be negatively related to commitment to organizational career

Pay satisfaction and work commitment

The pay an employee receives from their organization has previously been described as a quintessential organizational reward and of great importance to individuals (Heneman & Judge, 1980). Commonly studied together (e.g., Lievens, Anseel, Harris Eisenberg, 2007) the dimensions of global pay satisfaction (e.g., level, benefits, raise and structure/administration: Heneman & Schwab, 1985), with the first three dimensions reflecting an employee's satisfaction with their overall of pay (e.g., current salary, size, take home pay), satisfaction with their benefits (e.g., insurance and pensions) and satisfaction with their raises (e.g., annual). The actual pay (e.g., dollar amount) has been found to positively relate to global pay satisfaction (Judge, Piccolo, Podsakoff, Shaw & Rich, 2010) although an employee's perception of their pay, instead of the dollar amount itself, relates more strongly to an employee's perception relating to the organization (Williams, McDaniel, & Nguyen, 2006).

An employee's satisfaction with their pay may relate to their work commitment given that pay is seen as a resource and leaving their organization or changing careers may put this resource at risk (e.g., Currall et al., 2005; Law & Wong, 1998). Along a similar vein, an employee's perception of their satisfaction with pay and perhaps certain dimensions in particular (e.g., raises) may signal to the employee that they are valued and treated fairly by the organization and may identify more with their organization (Dulebohn & Martocchio, 1998; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Tekleab, Bartol & Liu, 2005).

The relationship between satisfaction with pay and work commitment varies depending which empirical work is analyzed. For some, there was no statistically significant relationship (e.g., Gaertner, 1999), in others there was a statistically significant relationship (e.g., de la Torre-Ruiz, Vidal-Salazar & Cerdón-Pozo, 2019; Kuvaas, 2006) and then lastly, certain dimensions did not achieve significance (e.g., satisfaction with benefits: de la Torre-Ruiz et al., 2019; Kuvaas,

2006). More specifically, pay satisfaction also positively relates to affective organizational commitment (Jayasingam & Yong, 2013; Panaccio, Vandenberghe, & Ben Ayed, 2014) and career-oriented commitment (Aryee, Chay & Chew, 1994). Which suggests that employees who are satisfied with their overall level of compensation (e.g., pay level, benefits, raises) report higher levels of emotional attachment to their organization and higher commitment towards their current career. This may occur given that employees who are satisfied with their pay (and by consequence, actual pay level: Judge et al., 2010) the more committed they will be to their organization vis-à-vis an unwritten norm of reciprocity to the organization (Lee & Bruvold, 2003). Taken as a whole, the established literature provides a mixture of results and as such, the following hypotheses tend to clarify the relationships between pay satisfaction and various foci of work commitment. To this end, we propose the following constructive replicative hypotheses and one investigative hypothesis:

Hypothesis 7: Pay satisfaction will be positively related to affective organizational commitment

Hypothesis 8: Pay satisfaction will be positively related to career-oriented commitment

Hypothesis 9: Pay satisfaction will be positively related to commitment to organizational career

Personal characteristics: Age and tenure

Since the earliest research on work commitment, personal characteristics have been assessed for their relation to commitment (e.g., Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Steers, 1977). In the case of AOC, both age and tenure have been found to be positively correlated with this form of work commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Vandenberghe et al., 2017). Career-oriented commitment

has been found to be higher in younger and inexperienced employees which may motivate them to voluntarily change jobs within their organization or quit to take on a new job elsewhere, in order to advance their careers (Ellemers et al., 1998). Preliminary findings suggest that age and tenure are not related to commitment to organizational career (Lapointe et al., 2019).

1.3 Methods

Sample and Procedure

The present study utilized a confidential online questionnaire, which took between five and ten minutes to complete was administered through Qualtrics (Qualtrics, Provo, UT) to panel participants across the United States. Members of the panel were solicited to participate via an email which included a brief description of the study and the four eligibility requirements. These requirements included they must be employed on full-time basis, that they do not work exclusively from home, that they are not self-employed and that they have a few coworkers. No restrictions relating to industry or company size were imposed. Participants were greeted with a consent form and were asked to indicate informed consent to participate. Upon completion of the survey, participants were compensated the equivalent of US \$2.50 in points to their panel participant account.

The total number of usable responses (i.e., completed surveys) was 377. The responses were completed primarily by female participants (78%). The average age of participants was 41.53 years ($SD = 12.41$), with an average of 20.22 years of work experience ($SD = 12.07$) with 8.95 years being the average organizational tenure ($SD = 6.12$). Participants worked on average 42.08 hours per week ($SD = 5.41$) and averaged 5.30 hours of overtime per week ($SD = 7.20$). Over half the participants (56.5%, $n = 213$) had an Associate's degree/diploma or higher education. Nearly two thirds of participants (59.4%, $n = 222$) had one child/step-child or more in their care.

Measures

All measures, unless otherwise specified are scored using a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from Strongly disagree (1) to Strongly agree (5). Reverse scored items were corrected prior to analysis.

Organizational commitment. Proposed by Meyer and colleagues (1993), the six items, half of which are reverse scored evaluate participants' affective organizational commitment. An example item from the original scale: "I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own". The internal consistency of the scale in the present study was $\alpha = .86$.

Career-oriented commitment. Participants' commitment towards their career was assessed with the five-item measure developed by Ellemers and colleagues (1998). A five-point Likert scale is used to evaluate the importance, ranging from "Not at all" (1) to "Very much" (5). An example item from the scale: "My career plays a central role in my life". The internal consistency for the scale in the present study was $\alpha = .88$.

Commitment to organizational career. Recently developed and validated by Lapointe and colleagues (2019), the five-item scale with one reverse scored item assesses individuals' commitment to their career within their current organization. A sample item being "Having a career within this organization is really important to me". A high internal consistency ($\alpha = .91$; Lapointe et al., 2019) has been reported for the scale, comparable to the present study $\alpha = .86$.

Job satisfaction. The Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire Job Satisfaction Subscale (MOAQ-JSS; Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins & Klesh, 1979) was chosen to evaluate employees' perceived global satisfaction with their job. Consisting of three items ("All in all I am satisfied with my job", "In general, I don't like my job" and "In general, I like working

here”), the second item is reversed scored. The internal consistency of the subscale in the present study was $\alpha = .91$.

Work-life conflict. Participants reaction to when their work and life (i.e., nonwork) begin interfering with one another was assessed with a four-item measure developed by Olson-Buchanan & Boswell (2006). The boundary interruptions are evaluated with two items, respectively. One item for the work to life interruptions is “I get upset or annoyed when I am interrupted by work-related problems during my ‘off-work’ hours” and one for the life to work interruption is “I find it hard to enjoy my work when I am interrupted by personal/family life at work.” The internal consistency found in the present study for the work to life interruptions dimension was $\alpha = .82$ and for the life to work interruptions was $\alpha = .83$.

Pay satisfaction. Employees self-reported pay satisfaction was measured with 12 items across three dimensions (level, benefits and raises) from the Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire (PSQ; Heneman & Schwab, 1985). Participants used a five-point Likert scale ranging from “Very dissatisfied” (1) to “Very satisfied” (5). An example item from each dimension would be “My take home pay” (Pay level, $\alpha = .97$), “My benefit package” (Benefits, $\alpha = .96$) and “My most recent raise” (Raises, $\alpha = .92$). As mentioned, and noted by Panaccio and colleagues (2014), dimensions of the PSQ (Heneman & Schwab, 1985) are commonly highly correlated ($r_s = .65-.83$). As such, we followed a similar procedure created a single second-order factor for overall pay satisfaction. The internal consistency of the aggregated (12-item) measure was ($\alpha = .96$).

Control variables.

Both age and tenure were assessed with one-item questions.

1.4 Results

Model Construction

Given the high correlations among the dimensions of the pay satisfaction questionnaire (Heneman & Schwab, 1985), it was decided that pay satisfaction would be modelled as a second-order factor comprising three theoretical dimensions (i.e., level, raise and benefits) comprising four items each. This partial disaggregation approach (Bagozzi & Edwards, 1998) differs from the other variables (e.g., commitment, job satisfaction and work conflict) included in the model which were modelled using total disaggregation (Bagozzi & Edwards, 1998). First, the total disaggregation approach posits that "...items are treated individually, and factors are represented at the component, facet, or global level..." (Bagozzi & Edwards, 1998, p.49). The partial disaggregation approach follows that of the total disaggregation approach; however, as was the case in the present study, [pay satisfaction] items were averaged into subsets. In simple terms, given the high correlations between the three dimensions of pay satisfaction (i.e. level, raises and benefits), a second-order partial disaggregation model "captures the shared variance across factors" (Bagozzi & Heatherton, 1994, p.41). As such, the partial disaggregation model, as was the case in the present study, allowed for a better model fit.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted using Mplus 7.31 (Muthén & Muthén, 2010) to test the discriminant validity of our constructs. The maximum likelihood estimation method was applied to the covariance matrix to analyze the structure of the data. First, as it relates to fit indices, the present work utilized several commonly used goodness of fit indices. For example, following the example of Hooper and colleagues (2008), we retained three absolute indices (i.e., model chi square, root mean square error of approximation [RMSEA] and standardised root mean square residual [SRMR]) and two incremental fit indices (i.e., comparative fit index [CFI] and the Tucker-Lewis index [TLI]) to assess the model fit. The goodness of fit indices retained (i.e., CFI, TLI,

SRMR and RMSEA) are frequently used in research and are commonly referred to as global fit indices (Lance, Beck, Fan & Carter, 2016). (For a review of structural equation modeling and fit indices, see Hu & Bentler, 1998; Iacobucci, 2010; Niemand & Mai, 2018).

The results presented in Table 1 indicate that the proposed 7-factor model displays an adequate fit to the data ($\chi^2_{(303)} = 836.16, p < .001, CFI = .92, TLI = .91, SRMR = .06, RMSEA = .07$). The fit of the hypothesized model was tested using the chi-square differential test against several other more parsimonious models, created by grouping together related constructs. The fit of the hypothesized model was significantly ($p < .001$) better than the fit of the five alternative models. For example, Table 1 indicates that a five-factor model that groups together the three forms of commitment into one factor yielded a significantly lower fit ($\Delta\chi^2_{(11)} = 847.86, p < .001$) compared to the hypothesized 7-factor model. Taken together, these results support the discriminant validity of our measures.

Correlations, means and standard deviations

Table 2 reports the descriptive statistics and correlations for the study variables. Organizational commitment correlated positively with career-oriented commitment ($r = .45, p < .01$), commitment to organizational career ($r = .69, p < .01$), job satisfaction ($r = .77, p < .01$) and pay satisfaction ($r = .56, p < .01$). Career-oriented commitment correlated positively with commitment to organizational career ($r = .58, p < .01$), job satisfaction ($r = .38, p < .01$) and pay satisfaction ($r = .36, p < .01$). Commitment to organizational career correlated positively with job satisfaction ($r = .64, p < .01$) and pay satisfaction ($r = .52, p < .01$). Work-to-life conflict was negatively correlated with organizational commitment ($r = -.42, p < .01$), career-oriented commitment ($r = -.24, p < .01$), commitment to organizational career ($r = -.36, p < .01$), job satisfaction ($r = -.44, p < .01$) and pay satisfaction ($r = -.38, p < .01$).

Table 1

Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Measurement Models: Fit Indices

	χ^2	<i>df</i>	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf
1. Theoretical Model with 7 factors	836.16*	303	.92	.91	.07	.06	–	–
2. Model with 6 factors:								
Grouping job and pay satisfaction	1285.63*	309	.85	.83	.09	.06	449.47*	6
Grouping work-life conflict and life-work conflict	1063.36*	309	.88	.87	.08	.07	227.20*	6
3. Model with 5 factors, grouping 3 types of commitment	1684.02*	314	.79	.77	.11	.09	847.86*	11
4. Model with 3 factors grouping work-life conflict & 3 types of commitment	2356.14*	321	.69	.66	.13	.10	1519.98*	18
5. Model with one factor	2833.84*	324	.62	.58	.14	.11	1997.68*	21

Note. $N = 372$ -373. *df* = degree of freedom; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual; RMSEA = root-mean-square error of approximation.

Table 2

Summary of Bivariate Correlations, Means, and Standard Deviations for Scores on the Study Measures

Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1. Org. Commitment	(.86)							3.42	1.04
2. Career Commitment	.450*	(.88)						3.49	0.91
3. Comm. to Org. Career	.688*	.584*	(.86)					3.33	1.10
4. Job Satisfaction	.774*	.375*	.641*	(.91)				3.94	1.06
5. Work-Life Seg.: Work-to-Family	-.420*	-.240*	-.357*	-.442*	(.82)			2.78	1.30
6. Work-Life Seg.: Family-to-Work	-.074	.044	.008	-.086	.349*	(.83)		2.29	1.15
7. Pay Satisfaction	.561*	.364*	.516*	.544*	-.375*	-.058	(.96)	3.13	1.12

Note. On the diagonal and in parentheses are the reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha). * $p < .01$. $N = 373$

Except for the positive correlation between work-to-life and life-to-work conflict ($r = .35, p < .01$), all other correlations between life-to-work conflict and the study variables failed to achieve statistical significance.

Age was positively correlated with organizational commitment ($r = .11, p < .05$) and negatively with career-oriented commitment ($r = -.17, p < .01$). The correlation between commitment to organizational career and age ($r = .06, n.s.$) failed to achieve statistical significance. Tenure was positively correlated with both organizational commitment ($r = .14, p < .01$) and commitment to organizational career ($r = .18, p < .01$). Whereas for career-oriented commitment ($r = -.07, n.s.$) the correlation did not achieve statistical significance.

Hypothesis testing

To investigate the influence of the drivers on the various forms of commitment, a structural equation model utilizing Robust Maximum Likelihood estimation was conducted using Mplus 7.31 (Muthén & Muthén, 2010). The standardized estimates for the theoretical model ($\chi^2_{(351)} = 843.89, p < .001, CFI = .91, TLI = .90, SRMR = .06, RMSEA = .06$). As can be seen, the direct effects to organizational commitment from job satisfaction ($b = 0.665, p < .001$) and pay satisfaction ($b = 0.144, p < .01$) were significant. These results support hypotheses 1 and 7. Given that both work-to-family conflict ($b = 0.028, ns$) and family-to-work conflict ($b = -0.085, ns$) were non-significant, we reject hypothesis 4a and 4b. Neither age ($b = 0.000, ns$) or tenure ($b = 0.007, ns$) were found to be related to organizational commitment.

The direct effects of job satisfaction ($b = 0.226, p < .01$), pay satisfaction ($b = 0.176, p < .05$), family-to-work conflict ($b = -0.205, p < .05$) and work-to-family conflict ($b = 0.189, p < .01$) on career-oriented commitment achieved statistical significance and as such, hypotheses 2, 5a, 5b and 8 are supported. Age was found to be negatively related to career-oriented

commitment ($b = -0.015$, $p < .001$), whereas tenure ($b = -0.001$, ns) failed to achieve statistical significance.

The last form of commitment, that of commitment to organizational career yielded a comparable number of significant direct effects. Specifically, job satisfaction ($b = 0.525$, $p < .01$), pay satisfaction ($b = 0.218$, $p < .01$), work-to-family conflict ($b = 0.131$, $p < .05$) and family-to-work conflict ($b = -0.167$, $p < .05$) were all statistically significant. As such, hypotheses 3, 6a, 6b and 9 are supported. Tenure was found to be positively related to commitment to organizational career ($b = 0.015$, $p < .001$), whereas age ($b = -0.006$, ns) failed to achieve statistical significance.

1.5 Discussion

Theoretical implications

The results of the present study contribute to the extensive work commitment literature given that it is among the first to simultaneously investigate three different foci of work commitment. Similarly, the present findings are among the first to investigate the antecedents of a recently proposed foci of work commitment, that of commitment to organizational career (Lapointe et al., 2019). By viewing the three foci of work commitment in the lens of Klein and colleagues (2012) conceptualization, an initial understanding of the relative influence of various antecedents can be elucidated. Determining the relative influence of various antecedents across different foci has important contributions for future empirical investigations on work commitment.

Corroborating previous findings, both job and pay satisfaction was positively related to the three foci of work commitment (e.g., Aryee et al., 1994; Goulet & Singh, 2002; Jayasingam & Yong, 2013; Lok & Crawford, 2001). The relationships suggest that employees who are more satisfied with their job and their overall pay (i.e., level, raises and benefits; Heneman & Schwab,

1985) tend to be more committed to their organization, their career within the organization and their career in general. The relationship between work-family conflict, as evidenced in the literature (e.g., Shaffer et al., 2001; Siegel et al., 2005) is not clear cut across various foci of work commitment. For example, family-to-work conflict was negatively related to career-oriented commitment and commitment to organizational career, whereas work-to-family conflict was positively related to career-oriented commitment and commitment to organizational career. The hypothesized relationships of each to organizational commitment were not found to be (statistically) significant.

Simply put, employees whose family life spills over into their work life may be less committed to their careers and careers within the organization, whereas those whose work life spills over into their family life may be more committed. Previous findings suggest this may occur in part due to resource allocation, wherein, family life spilling over into work life occupies resources usually used in the work domain which may consequently affect performance and engagement (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Katz & Khan, 1978). Interestingly, O'Neil and Greenberger (1994) suggest that individuals who report feeling (highly) committed to their work and life (e.g., family), could potentially experience conflict between these two spheres as well. Taken together, the present results and literature suggest a reverse causality with conflict between work and life and commitment may exist. For example, those who are generally more committed to their career or career within the organization may have less time for their life outside work as a consequence and thus report feeling spillover and varying degrees of conflict between the two.

Practical implications

Managers could utilize the present results in a practical context by focusing on the concept that various factors related to the workplace differentially impact various foci of work commitment. For example, both job and pay satisfaction, as the results suggest, tend to significantly contribute to the three foci of commitment. Such that employees who are satisfied with their job and their pay, tend to be more committed to the organization, their career and their career within the organization. To this end, managers who generally ensure their employees are satisfied with their job and their level of pay, may reap the benefits of elevated work commitment.

Though, it is worth noting that some organizational variables, such as work-family conflict impact the three foci of work commitment differently. For example, the influence of the relationship varies based on the directionality of conflict, such that family-to-work conflict was negatively related and work-to-family conflict was positively related to career-oriented commitment and commitment to organizational career. Managers could potentially attenuate the negative impacts and bolster the positive impacts with proactive work-life balance policies which allow employees options such as flex time, remote work or family support programs.

Limitations and directions for future research

Given that the present study employed a cross-sectional design and utilized only self-report measures, which similarly to much of the empirical research in management, presents a series of limitations. A frequent limitation, as Podsakoff and colleagues (2003) suggest, arises given that data collected from self-report questionnaires at a single time point may be affected by common method variance. Two forms of method variance may arise and their impact on the results may differ depending on the source (Baumgartner & Weijters, 2012). Simply, common (i.e., shared method) method variance tends to inflate, and uncommon (i.e., unshared) method variance tends

to attenuate the magnitude of the relationship between various study variables (Spector et al., 2019; Williams & Brown, 1994).

Given the anonymity of participants, one must (within reason) trust that the answers they put are truthful and accurate, though some may suggest that there is no guarantee of this. Similarly, given the geographic homogeneity of participants, all of whom reside and work in the U.S., wherein, a sole and relatively small sample from a single country may present some limitations to generalizability of results. To this end, we suggest replications of the present study in regions around the world with a diverse (e.g., age, tenure and parental status) participant pool using multiple data collections over a period (e.g., 3 months). The replications could enable the study of the potential changes in different foci of commitment over time as well as the interrelationships they may demonstrate. Finally, future work could be conducted to further elucidate the differing impact of work-to-family and family-to-work conflict on the foci of work commitment, as the present results imply the importance of differentiating both directions.

1.6 Conclusion

In conclusion, bolstering commitment may be difficult in the organizational context given the presence of multiple foci of work commitment in conjunction with a plethora of antecedents and potential outcomes. To this end, the present study investigated but a few of the many foci of work commitment and even fewer of their potential antecedents that are present in the conventional workplace. In advancing work commitment theory, this study does so by being one of the few to simultaneously evaluate foci of commitment that cross organization and careers targets using three important antecedents (e.g., Carmeli & Freund, 2004; Lyness & Thompson, 1997). This important contribution allows for a greater understanding of work commitment as many foci are simultaneously at play in the organizational context.

Additionally, the inclusion of two separate directions of work-family conflict (i.e., work-to-family and family-to-work) contributes to the scant research on the relationship between work-family conflict and work commitment. Along a similar vein, the vast literature on the antecedents of work commitment (e.g., Cohen, 1992) tends to view them equally, rarely differentiating the magnitude of the relationships. Rather than viewing all antecedents as equally impactful, this present work suggests that each may have a unique relationship with various foci of work commitment and considering these unique relationships would notably advance work commitment theory.

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Chapter 2: Co-author authorization form

Authorization by co-authors of an article included in a master's thesis or doctoral dissertation

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HEC MONTRÉAL

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2. Article

Authors: Hoare, C. & Vandenberghe, C.

Title: Are They Created Equal? A Relative Weights Analysis of the Contributions of Job Demands and Resources on Well-Being and Turnover Intention.

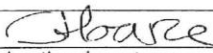
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For each article published or submitted for publication, the student must briefly describe his/her role in the research work and, if applicable, the extent of his/her contribution to the article in comparison with those of the other co-author(s). If an article is in preparation, the student must describe his/her current or planned contribution to the research work and the article.

Conducted the literature review, conceptualized the hypotheses, ran the analyses and wrote the text. All was done under the supervision and guidance of Dr. Vandenberghe.

	27/11/2019
Student's signature	Date

4. Declaration by all other co-authors

As co-author of the above-mentioned article, I authorize Corey Hoare to include the article in his/her ☒ master's thesis / ☐ doctoral dissertation, entitled:

On the modern workplace: Factors related to commitment, well-being and turnover intention.

(Title of thesis or dissertation)

Dr. Christian Vandenberghe		28/11/2019
Co-author	Signature	Date
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Co-author	Signature	Date

Chapter 2: Are They Created Equal? A Relative Weights Analysis of the Contributions of Job Demands and Resources on Well-Being and Turnover Intention

Abstract

Introduction: Building upon the Job Demands-Resources model (Demerouti et al., 2001) and the vast research on employee turnover intention and well-being, we examined a variety of demands and resources in relation to these outcomes.

Aim: This study examined the differential impact of job demands, personal and job resources on two organizational outcomes: turnover intention and emotional exhaustion.

Method: A brief confidential online questionnaire containing fourteen measures was administered to full-time employees ($N = 373$).

Results: We found that job demands were positively related to emotional exhaustion and that personal and job resources were negatively related to employee's turnover intention. Individual demands and resources accounted for different amounts of variance in the outcome variables.

Conclusion: The study informs our understanding of and contributes to the advancement of JD-R theory to encompass various job demands, personal and job resources and their differential impact on emotional exhaustion and turnover intention.

Keywords: Job demands-resources model, personal resources, emotional exhaustion, turnover intention, relative weights analysis.

2.1 Introduction

A recent survey by consulting firm Deloitte noted that over three quarters (77%) of full-time professionals in the U.S. reported feelings of burnout linked to their current job (Deloitte, 2018). The same survey notes that nearly a third of employees surveyed reported that lack of support from superiors, time pressure and long work hours contribute to their feelings of burnout (31%, 30% and 29%, respectively). The survey also reports that nearly 4.2 in 10 employees have voluntarily left a job because they felt high levels of perceived burnout. Understandably, the above-mentioned factors have been found to be strongly correlated with burnout (Lee & Ashforth, 1996) as well as with turnover (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner, 2000). Though, the relationship may be more nuanced as certain job or work-related characteristics have been found

to interact, and in certain instances alleviate or prevent burnout (Bakker, Demerouti & Euwema, 2005; for a review of the literature on turnover, see Hom, Lee, Shaw & Hausknecht, 2017; and for burnout, see Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004).

Given that various factors have been found to influence employees' experience of burnout and consequent voluntary turnover, the purpose of the present paper is to investigate the relationship between various job, organizational and personal characteristics, and burnout and turnover intention. The present study, as described in the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001), is based on the idea that negative job-related characteristics (i.e., job demands) should contribute to emotional exhaustion and positive job-related characteristics (i.e., job resources) should relate to disengagement. Our purpose is to examine the relative importance of demands and resources to predict emotional exhaustion and turnover intention as specific work outcomes, which has not been addressed in previous research. A recent review by Schaufeli and Taris (2014) noted that in most studies that used the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001), it is assumed that individual demands and resources are created equal. As such, the purpose of this article is twofold: (1) test the revised JD-R model with emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions as the outcomes and (2) determine the relative importance of each individual demand and resource to predict the target outcomes. In isolating the individual contributions of each demand and resource the present study contributes to refine our understanding of the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014, 2017; Demerouti et al., 2001).

2.2 Theoretical Background

The Job Demands-Resources Model

The JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001) has been depicted by some as a descriptive model of employee well-being (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014), wherein the basic postulates are that (1) job

demands (e.g., workload) are commonly related to health ailments (i.e., exhaustion) and (2) job resources (e.g., support) are commonly related to motivational outcomes (i.e., engagement; Bakker & Demerouti, 2014) (for a review of the JD-R model, see Bakker & Demerouti, 2014, 2017; Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). In its original conceptualization (i.e., Demerouti et al., 2001), the JD-R model did not account for the antecedents or processes underlying job demands and resources and its outcomes (e.g., exhaustion and disengagement; Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). However, the model has been widely validated using longitudinal (e.g., Mauno, Kinnunen & Ruokolainen, 2007; Schaufeli, Bakker & Van Rhenen, 2009; see Lesener, Gusy & Wolter, 2019 for a meta-analysis of longitudinal studies) and cross-lagged (e.g., Hakanen, Schaufeli & Ahola, 2008) designs, and among cross-national (e.g., Brough, Timms, Siu, Kalliath, O'Driscoll & Sit, 2013; Van den Broeck, De Cuyper, De Witte & Vansteenkiste, 2010) and international (e.g., Bakker, Demerouti & Euwema, 2005; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti & Schaufeli, 2007) samples. The extensive research on the model has led some to suggest that the JD-R model can be envisioned as a theory (e.g., Bakker & Demerouti, 2014). When various job and workplace characteristics are analyzed using the model, one can elucidate their impact on employees (e.g., well-being, motivation and job performance) and make predictions based on perceived level of demands and resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014).

The demands to exhaustion pathway, referring to the *health impairment process* (or strain process: Brough et al., 2013) due to job demands occurs given they are often taxing and draining as an individual's ability to cope with them is surpassed (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014; Bakker, Demerouti & Schaufeli, 2003a). Exhaustion in this context refers to a facet of burnout (Maslach, 1993; Maslach et al., 2001). One of the earlier conceptualizations of burnout came from Freudenberg (1974, 1975) who suggested that an individual afflicted with burnout is drained of

their energy and becomes exhausted following a period of considerable demands. The earliest operationalization of burnout occurred arose from Maslach and Jackson's (1981) seminal work wherein a three-component model of burnout (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and a reduction in personal accomplishment) was presented. Simply, Maslach and colleagues (2001) define burnout as "a prolonged response to chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors on the job" (p. 397). Feeling emotionally overstrained and concurrently feeling drained of emotional resources are common hallmarks of emotional exhaustion (Maslach, 1993; Maslach et al., 2001). Moreover, depersonalization represents an employee that detaches themselves from aspects of their job whereas a reduction in personal accomplishment arises from the perception of not achieving work goals or completing tasks as satisfactorily as before (Maslach, 1993; Maslach et al., 2001). Though there are three components of burnout, it is commonly reported that emotional exhaustion is thought to be the most physically noticeable quality of burnout (e.g., fatigue on one's face) and consequently the main pillar of burnout syndrome (Maslach, 1993; Maslach et al., 2001).

The resources to disengagement pathway, referring to the *motivational process*, occurs due to job resources given that they are often important for the satisfaction of an individual's basic psychological needs (Bakker et al., 2003a; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Outside the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001), both job demands and resources have been found to be related to a variety of outcomes. First, job demands were found to be positively related to work-home interference (Bakker, ten Brummelhuis, Prins & van der Heijden, 2011; DiRenzo, Greenhaus & Weer, 2011) and work-family conflict (Hall, Dollard, Tuckey, Winefield & Thompson, 2010) and negatively related to satisfaction of basic needs (Albrecht, 2015; Van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte & Lens, 2008).

Job resources, on the other hand, have been found to be negatively related to work-home interference (Bakker et al., 2011), and positively related to satisfaction of basic needs (Van den Broeck et al., 2008), work engagement (Hakanen et al., 2008; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007) and two types of commitment: continuance (Bakker, Demerouti, de Boer & Schaufeli, 2003b) and affective (Bakker et al., 2003b; Hakanen et al., 2008) commitment. Similarly, Bakker and colleagues (2003a) reported that involvement (i.e., organizational commitment and dedication) mediated the positive relationship between job resources (e.g., social support) and turnover intentions, as such a reduction in the turnover intentions of call-center employees was noted.

Following a prolonged period where job resources are lacking, employees will feel the negative and draining effects of job demands and may consequently feel less work motivation and exhibit job withdrawal behaviors (e.g., Bakker et al., 2003b) in order to shelter themselves against exhaustion (Bakker, Demerouti & Euwema, 2005; Demerouti et al., 2001). At play are also the possible interactions between job demands and job resources; wherein, an abundance of resources equips employees with the necessary tools to handle the impact of job demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014; Bakker et al., 2005; Demerouti et al., 2001). Specifically, employees reporting high levels of job demands (e.g., role overload) and low levels of job resources (e.g., autonomy) reported elevated feelings of being exhausted (Bakker et al., 2005). Similarly, Hu and colleagues (2011) found that employees reporting elevated levels of job demands (e.g., workload) also reported feelings of burnout which led to a greater intention to leave the company. Elevated levels of job resources (e.g., job control) were associated with higher self-reported engagement and a lesser intent to quit. In several instances, job resources were found to be negatively related to exhaustion (Hakanen et al., 2008; Hu et al., 2011; Van den Broeck et al., 2010). Job resources have also been found to be positively related to personal

resources (e.g., self-efficacy), and the latter were found to be negatively related to exhaustion (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Recently, Bakker and Demerouti (2017) proposed that personal and job resources may be analogous and by extension complimentary (e.g., Schaufeli, 2017).

As one can ascertain, the JD-R model is flexible, not only in its definition of demands and resources, as will be described below, but also to which outcome either is related (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017; Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). The flexibility, such that a wide range of job, workplace, organizational and personal characteristics may be related to an employee's well-being and engagement contributes to the theoretical value of the model (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). As such, it is no surprise that the composition of the JD-R model varies across organizational settings, types of employees, and across industries and professions (Lesener et al., 2019; Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). The flexibility of the model was borne out of critiques of previously researched models of job stress (e.g., demand-control model: Karasek, 1979; and the effort-reward imbalance model: Siegrist, 1996) relating to the simplicity of the models, and fueled by recent shifts in the nature of jobs (Albrecht, 2015; Bakker & Demerouti, 2014).

Job Demands

Job demands “refer to those physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort” (Demerouti et al., 2001, p. 501), including workload (Albrecht, 2015; Bakker et al., 2003a, 2003b; Hakanen et al., 2008; Van den Broeck, 2008, 2010), work overload (Bakker et al., 2005, 2011; Schaufeli, Bakker & Van Rhenen, 2009; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007), role stressors (i.e., role ambiguity and role conflict: Albrecht, 2015; Crawford, LePine & Rich, 2010) and work-home interference/conflict (Bakker et al., 2004, 2005; Mauno, Kinnunen & Ruokolainen, 2007; Schaufeli et al., 2009; Van Den Broeck et al., 2008, 2010).

Role Stressors. Employees face a variety of stressors throughout the workday, commonly known as the three role stressors: role overload, role conflict and role ambiguity (King & King, 1990; Rizzo, House & Lirtzman, 1970; Schaubroeck, Cotton & Jennings, 1989) (for a review, see Jackson & Schuler, 1985; Örtqvist & Wincent, 2006). In line with the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001), role stressors can be conceptualized as demands given that they often elicit a negative appraisal from employees (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). Role stressors differ from other job demands such as emotional demands (e.g., Albrecht, 2015), cognitive demands (e.g., Bakker et al., 2011) and organizational changes (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007) as they are relatively linked to one another and focus on the individual's work role (e.g., Bowling et al., 2017).

Role overload reflects the perception that one has too many responsibilities given the available resources (Rizzo et al., 1970; Schaubroeck et al., 1989). Role conflict occurs when the employee is exposed to conflicting expectations from superiors or organizational actors (Bowling, et al., 2017; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek & Rosenthal, 1964; Katz & Kahn, 1978; Rizzo et al., 1970). Role ambiguity refers to situations where tasks are ambiguously defined and instructions are unclear (Kahn et al., 1964; Katz & Kahn, 1978; King & King, 1990; Rizzo et al., 1970). The three work role stressors have been found to be positively related to one another (Bowling et al., 2017; Eatough, Chang, Miloslavic & Johnson, 2011; Rizzo et al., 1970), and to positively relate to turnover intention (Fried, Shirom, Gilboa & Cooper, 2008; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Örtqvist & Wincent, 2006) and emotional exhaustion (Örtqvist & Wincent, 2006). They have also been found to be negatively related to job satisfaction (Bowling et al., 2017; Eatough et al., 2011; Jackson & Schuler, 1985; Örtqvist & Wincent, 2006) and organizational commitment (Jackson & Schuler, 1985; Örtqvist & Wincent, 2006). Thus, we propose the following constructive replication hypothesis.

Hypotheses 1, 2 and 3: Role overload (H1), role ambiguity (H2), and role conflict (H3) will be positively related to (a) turnover intention and (b) emotional exhaustion.

Work-Life Balance. Work-family conflict is indicative of the degree of perceived conflict between various roles an employee occupies (e.g., work role, family role; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), where an imbalance may reduce resources and consequently cause a stress reaction (e.g., exhaustion or turnover intention; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999) (for reviews of work-family conflict and work-life balance, see Michel, Kotrba, Mitchelson, Clark, & Baltes, 2011). An imbalance is generally categorized in one of three ways: (1) time, where an individual does not have enough time for each role; (2) strain, reflecting the stress an individual may feel because the work demands are hardly compatible with the family life; and (3) behavior, where an individual must act differently in different roles (e.g., director versus parent; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

Since the conceptualization of work-family conflict, there have been other more specific forms of role balance presented. For example, work-family balance relates to the balance (e.g., time), involvement and satisfaction with the balance between one's role at work and their role at home (e.g., family; Greenhaus et al., 2003). Both work-family conflict and work-family balance are relatively restrictive as they do not relate to all the roles an individual may have. As such, Keeney and colleagues (2013) furthered the Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) definition by presenting the concept of work interfering with life which describes how an individual's work role may reduce their involvement in other roles (e.g., family, leisure and friends). Similarly, Brough and colleagues (2014) defined work-life balance as "an individual's subjective appraisal of the accord between his/her work and non-work activities and life more generally" (p. 2728).

Work interfering with life (e.g., Keeney, Boyd, Sinha, Westring & Ryan, 2013) and work-family conflict (e.g., Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985) have been found to be positively related to

exhaustion (Reichl, Leiter & Spinath, 2014; Zhang, Griffeth & Fried, 2012) and turnover intention (Boyar, Maertz Jr., Pearson & Keough, 2003; Keeney et al., 2013). Work-life balance was found to be negatively related to turnover intention (Brough, Timms, O'Driscoll, Kalliath, Siu, Sit & Lo, 2014) and positively related to job satisfaction (Keeney et al., 2013; Michel, Mitchelson, Kotrba, LeBreton & Baltes, 2009). Lastly, family-work conflict has been found to be positively related to turnover intention (Zhang et al., 2012).

Hypothesis 4: Work-life balance (i.e., indicative of a good balance) will be negatively related to (a) turnover intention and (b) emotional exhaustion.

Given that job demands have been found to be more commonly (positively) related to exhaustion (e.g., Bakker & Demerouti, 2014), one would expect them to be of greater weight (than resources) in terms of relative importance.

Hypothesis 5: Job demands will account for the most variance in emotional exhaustion.

Resources

Job resources “refer to those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that may do any of the following: (a) be functional in achieving work goals; (b) reduce job demands and the associated physiological or psychological costs; (c) stimulate personal growth and development” (Demerouti et al., 2001, p.501). The stated definition suggests that resources are valued by employees, a modification that has been proposed by Schaufeli and Taris (2014). Noting resources permit an employee to not only to be psychologically engaged in their tasks but also to perform them (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Many resources have been empirically examined, such as resilience (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014; Upadaya, Vartiainen & Salemla-Aro, 2016), leadership (Nahrgang, Morgeson & Hofmann, 2011; Upadaya et al., 2016; Schaufeli & Taris, 2014), social climate (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014), job autonomy (Bakker et al., 2005;

DiRenzo et al., 2011; Van den Broeck et al., 2010), opportunities for professional development (Bakker et al., 2004; Crawford et al., 2010; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007, 2009), pay satisfaction (Crawford et al., 2010; Schaufeli & Taris, 2014), and person-organization fit (Jin, McDonald & Park, 2018; Mackey, Perrewé & McAllister, 2017).

Several researchers noted the importance of differentiating personal resources from job resources (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011; Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). Personal resources are individual characteristics that help employees interact with the environment and relate to their personal resiliency. Job resources refer to aspects of the job or work environment (e.g., pay satisfaction and leadership) that may alleviate the negative impact of job demands, facilitate work tasks, and aid in professional development (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). Both personal and job resources have an impact in the workplace (e.g., task achievement) in addition to their influence on employees' learning, development and well-being (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014).

Job resources comprise structural job resources and social resources (Tims et al., 2012). The former refer to resources such as opportunities for development and autonomy, which permit an employee to increase their knowledge, grow within the position and apply their knowledge. The latter refer to resources such as social support and supervisory coaching, which permit an employee to help bolster the feeling of relatedness and feeling supported (Tims et al., 2012). As such, job resources influence emotional exhaustion, such that when job resources increase, emotional exhaustion decreases (e.g., Bakker et al., 2004; Van den Broeck et al., 2010).

Conservation of Resources theory. Similar to the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001), Conservation of Resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989) proposes that individuals “strive to retain, protect, and build resources” (p. 513) with the loss or reduction of these resources being a threat to their well-being (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll, Johnson, Ennis & Jackson, 2003) (for a review

of COR theory, see Halbesleben, Neveu, Paustian-Underdahl, & Westman, 2014). COR theory and the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001) vary in their conceptualization of resources. In the former, there are four types of resources: objects (e.g., a home), conditions (e.g., tenure), personal characteristics (e.g., resilience) and energies (e.g., knowledge; Hobfoll, 1989). Resource loss in the workplace may lead employees to want to quit their position in order to regain the lost resources or prevent further resource loss (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1989; Hobfoll, 1989). Regardless of which resource-oriented theory one refers to, each faces a similar problem as it relates to the inclusion of resources. For example, critiques of these theories (e.g., COR theory and the JD-R model) occur in part given the broad definition and categorization of what a resource is (Halbesleben et al., 2014). This potential issue is further nuanced given that generally, a resource is inherently positive (i.e., beneficial) and as such, anything beneficial in the eyes of an employee could be viewed as a resource (Gorgievski, Halbesleben & Bakker, 2011; Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2015). Along this line, Halbesleben et al. (2014) considered resources to be “anything perceived by the individual to help attain his or her goals” (p.1338).

Personal Resources: Resilience. Stress may arise from a variety of contexts and over prolonged periods of time (e.g., Ganster & Rosen, 2013). As such, individuals possess varying abilities relating to how they recuperate from stressful periods (e.g., a tough deadline at work) or a stressful event (e.g., job loss). This is known as resilience (Smith, Tooley, Christopher & Kay, 2010; Smith, Wiggins, Christopher & Bernard, 2008) (for a review see Fletcher & Sarkar, 2013; Richardson, 2002). The definition proposed by Smith and colleagues (2008, 2010) encompasses previous conceptualizations of resilience, such as the idea that resilience is a process of overcoming stress and adverse events through the use resilient qualities (e.g., support systems and self-esteem) (Richardson, 2002). As resilience relates to the ability to recuperate from

stressful periods, unsurprisingly, it has been found to predict reduced burnout (e.g., emotional exhaustion; García & Calvo, 2012; Upadaya et al., 2016).

Personal Resources: Life Satisfaction. Shin and Johnson (1978) conceptualized life satisfaction as an individual's overall evaluation of the quality, based on personal indicators (e.g., health, wealth), of their current state (for a review see Erdogan, Bauer, Truxillo & Mansfield, 2012). The importance of life satisfaction has been noted when investigating subjective well-being (Erdogan et al., 2012) in addition to happiness and positive affect (Diener, 1984). In addition to the broad definitions of life satisfaction, some researchers also differentiate between the factors that influence life satisfaction either by viewing it as a top-down approach or a bottom-up approach (Erdogan et al., 2012). The former explains life satisfaction as relating to personality characteristics that do not fluctuate over time and the latter refers to life satisfaction as the sum of satisfactions derived from a variety of life domains (e.g., family, work, school; Rojas, 2006). Life satisfaction could be viewed as a personal resource based on Hobfoll's (1989) definition of resources, specifically when related to personal characteristics. Life satisfaction would be a proxy for satisfaction in a variety of domains (e.g., Rojas, 2006) that facilitate goal achievement (e.g., Erdogan et al., 2012). The latter being a key element in the classification of what is considered a resource (Halbesleben et al., 2014). In line with the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001) and the relationship between resources and emotional exhaustion, life satisfaction has been found to be negatively related to emotional exhaustion (Zhang et al., 2012).

Hypotheses 6 and 7: Personal resources (i.e., resilience: H6 and life satisfaction: H7) will be negatively related to (a) turnover intention and (b) emotional exhaustion.

Job Resources: Basic Psychological Needs. Humans are motivated in a variety of ways. Self-determination theory (SDT; Ryan, Kuhl, & Deci, 1997; Ryan & Deci, 2000) posits that in

the organizational context, once an individual is employed, their work performance and personal well-being are influenced by the motivation (autonomous vs. controlled) oriented towards various aspects of their job (e.g., pay, workload, job attributes). The satisfaction of three basic needs (i.e., autonomy, competence and relatedness) has been found to mediate the relationship between an individual's job characteristics and their motivation and personal well-being (e.g., Deci, Olafsen & Ryan, 2017) (for a review of SDT see Deci et al., 2017; Van den Broeck, Ferris, Chang & Rosen, 2016). The three basic needs and their relevance to psychological growth, and physical and mental well-being have been investigated (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Van den Broeck et al., 2016), and as such appear to fit with the definition of resources in the JD-R model (e.g., Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli & Taris, 2014).

In a review on the role of SDT and work motivation, Gagné and Deci (2005) suggested that when a workplace facilitates the satisfaction of the three basic needs, employees will report higher job satisfaction and well-being, and reduced exposure to role stress. This because the facilitation of need satisfaction strengthens employees' motivation to complete their tasks, which leads to positive aftereffects (Gagné & Deci, 2005). The opposite occurs when needs satisfaction is obstructed, such that less satisfaction of the basic needs relates to more negative aftereffects. One of these aftereffects could be turnover intention, wherein it has been noted that while autonomy and relatedness were negatively related to turnover intention, competence was positively related to it (Van den Broeck et al., 2016). This diverging result may occur since a competent employee could easily transition to a different organization (Fugate, Kinicki & Ashfort, 2004). All three needs were noted as being positively related to well-being (Brien, Forest, Mageau, Boudrias, Desrumaux, Brunet, & Morin, 2012). Similarly, the basic needs negatively relate to emotional exhaustion (Albrecht, 2015; Van den Broeck et al., 2008).

Hypotheses 8 and 9: Relatedness (H8) and autonomy (H9) will be negatively related to (a) turnover intention and (b) emotional exhaustion.

Job Resources: Servant Leadership. Leaders generally adopt one of many leadership styles. For example, in their review, Avolio et al. (2009) discuss several leadership models such as authentic, transformational, ethical, or servant leadership, and leader-member exchange (LMX). Leaders have an impact on subordinates through their leadership style or behaviors (e.g., Mackey, Frieder, Brees & Martinko, 2017; Reina, Rogers, Peterson, Byron & Hom, 2018). For example, Harms et al. (2017) found that both transformational leadership and LMX were negatively related to subordinate stress and burnout, while abusive leadership was positively related these outcomes. In the context of the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001), servant leadership may be unique as it “stresses personal integrity and focuses on forming strong long-term relationships with employees” (Liden, Wayne, Zhao & Henderson, 2008, p.162) (for a review see van Dierendonck, 2011). Servant leaders achieve this relationship through communication with employees to thoroughly understand their needs (Liden et al., 2008).

Viewed as a resource, the presence of a servant leader could have impacts on subordinate turnover intention and well-being (i.e., emotional exhaustion). Corroborating this view, when servant leadership was applied at the organizational level (e.g., retail stores), this idea of a serving culture was found to be negatively related to turnover intention (Liden, Wayne, Liao, Meuser, 2014). Additionally, servant leadership was found to be negatively related to burnout (Upadyaya et al., 2016).

Hypothesis 10: Servant leadership will be negatively related to (a) turnover intention and (b) emotional exhaustion.

Job Resources: Job Opportunities. Job attributes refer to a multitude of categories such as opportunities (e.g., promotion, learning, professional development and growth), financial rewards (e.g., earnings and benefits) and locational advantages (e.g., leisure activities, social life; Konrad, Ritchie Jr., Lieb & Corrigan, 2000; Turban, Campion & Eyring, 1992). Job attributes conceptualized as opportunities have been found to be positively related to an employee's relocation decision acceptance (Turban et al., 1992). Similarly, opportunities for professional development (e.g., learning new things) paired with influence at work as a latent job resources variable has been found to be negatively related to turnover intention (Van der Heijden, Peeters, Le Blanc & Van Breukelen, 2018). Opportunities to learn and develop, as part of a job resources variable, were found to be negatively related to burnout (Schaufeli et al., 2009). In multiple instances (e.g., Bakker et al., 2011; Van der Heijden et al., 2018; Schaufeli et al., 2009), opportunities to learn have been categorized as a job resource. As such it will likely be more strongly related to turnover intention (e.g., the motivational process) rather than emotional exhaustion (e.g., the health impairment process).

Hypothesis 11: Job opportunities will be negatively related to (a) turnover intention and (b) emotional exhaustion.

Job Resources: Pay Satisfaction. Heneman and Schwab (1985) tested four dimensions of pay satisfaction: level, benefits, raise and structure/administration. The first, pay level satisfaction, as they describe refers to an employee's satisfaction with their current salary, its size, their take-home pay and overall level of pay. As one would expect, actual pay (e.g., pay level) has been found to be positively related to overall satisfaction with pay (Judge, Piccolo, Podsakoff, Shaw & Rich, 2010). Though, an employee's perception of their pay, rather than the actual dollar amount, relates more strongly to an employee's behavior (or perception) within (or

relating to) the job (or organization; Williams, McDaniel, & Nguyen, 2006). One could view pay satisfaction, as being the positive response to level of financial rewards. As such, according to Schaufeli and Taris (2014), pay level satisfaction could be conceptualized as a job resource. Perceptions and behaviors resulting from pay (dis)satisfaction may include turnover intention and actual turnover, with pay satisfaction found to be negatively related to both (Currall, Towler, Judge & Kohn, 2005; Williams et al., 2006).

Hypothesis 12: Pay satisfaction will be negatively related to (a) turnover intention and (b) emotional exhaustion.

Job Resources: Person-Organization Fit. The congruence between an employee's values and those of the company is known as person-organization fit (Chatman, 1989). Person-organization fit is subjective as it relates to an individual's perception of their organization's values (e.g., Katz & Kahn, 1978). Person-organization fit can be viewed as a resource (e.g., Mackey et al., 2017) as it may provide employees reprieve from the stress of job demands (e.g., role overload; Edwards, 2008). Simply, an employee who perceives a strong fit with their organization but also faces significant job demands, may better be able to handle the latter's draining effects as their values are reflected in the organization. Those with higher levels of perceived fit were found to report higher levels of job satisfaction, job level and salary than those with lower levels of perceived fit (Bretz & Judge, 1994). Person-organization fit has been found to be negatively related to turnover intention (Cable & Judge, 1996; Jin et al., 2018) and emotional exhaustion (Siegall & McDonald, 2004).

Hypothesis 13: Person-organization fit will be negatively related to (a) turnover intention and (b) emotional exhaustion.

Relative Importance of the Predictors

Regression analysis commonly used in organizational science does not partition the variance explained in the dependent variable by each independent variable. Relative-importance analysis (LeBreton, Hargis, Griepentrog, Oswald & Ployhart, 2007) partitions the variance explained in the dependent variable by each predictor variable, even if intercorrelations are significant between predictors. Briefly, the relative importance of a variable encompasses said variable's unique portion of the variance accounted for in the regression model (R^2) while also considering the unique portion accounted for by other predictors (Johnson, 2000; LeBreton et al., 2007). As such, relative importance analysis is complimentary and supplementary when using regression analysis (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2011) (for a review see LeBreton et al., 2007; Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2011; Tonidandel, LeBreton & Johnson, 2009). In the context of the present study, relative importance analysis contributes in several keyways. First, in the scope of the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001), there are many possible demands and resources, which are likely correlated with one another. Second, with regression analysis alone, it would be difficult to attempt to differentiate the individual contributions of several predictors. Relative importance analysis using the tool (i.e., RWA Web) created by Tonidandel and LeBreton (2015) addresses these concerns (e.g., Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2011).

First, in using RWA Web (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2015) users are provided with the R^2 for the model, the raw relative weight, rescaled relative weight, confidence intervals around the raw weights and confidence intervals test of significance. The most important distinction being between raw relative weights and rescaled relative weights. The former refers to “an additive decomposition of the total model R^2 and can be interpreted as the proportion of variance in [the criterion] that is appropriately attributed to each [predictor]” (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2015, p. 123; LeBreton et al., 2007). The latter refers to the value that is calculated by taking the raw

relative weight and dividing it by the variance accounted for by the model to yield a proportion attributable to the predictor in the variance explained in the criterion (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2015). In sum, by supplementing multiple regression analysis with relative importance analysis, the present study would be among the first to distinguish the relative importance of various demands and resources on work outcomes (i.e., turnover intention and emotional exhaustion).

2.3 Methods

Sample and Procedure

This study utilized a ten-minute confidential online questionnaire administered through Qualtrics (Qualtrics, Provo, UT) to panel participants across the United States. Members of the panel received an email with a brief description of the study and eligibility requirements for participation. These requirements included that they (1) are employed on full-time basis, (2) do not work exclusively from home, (3) are not self-employed and (4) have a few coworkers. There were no constraints relating to industry, company size or position. Prior to beginning the questionnaire, participants were met with a consent form outlining the context of participation and were given the choice to participate (or not). Upon completion of the survey, participants were compensated the equivalent of US \$2.50 in points that could be used towards the purchase of gift cards. All data were anonymous. A total of 377 participants completed the survey, with the majority (78%) being female. The average age was 41.53 years ($SD = 12.41$), and average organizational tenure was 8.95 years ($SD = 6.12$). Participants worked on average 42.08 hours per week ($SD = 5.41$) with an average of 5.30 hours of overtime per week ($SD = 7.20$). Nearly three fourths of the sample ($n = 277$) had at least a high school diploma.

Measures

A five-point Likert type scale was used for all items. Unless otherwise specified, the scale anchor points were *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5).

Work Outcomes.

Turnover intention. Proposed by Michaels and Spector (1982) and elaborated by Cohen (1999), the three-item measure evaluates participants' intention to quit their organization. An example item is "I think a lot about leaving this organization" ($\alpha = .94$).

Emotional exhaustion. Emotional exhaustion was assessed using the five highest loading items of the emotional exhaustion scale of the original Maslach Burnout Inventory: General Survey (MBI-GS; Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach, & Jackson, 1996). A five-point Likert type scale ranging from *never* (1) to *everyday* (5) was used. An example item is "These days, I feel used up at the end of a work day." The original and reduced emotional exhaustion scales from the MBI-GS (Schaufeli et al., 1996) demonstrated high internal consistency across samples (e.g., $\alpha = .87-.89$; Taris et al., 1999; Lapointe, Vandenberghe & Panaccio, 2011, respectively). The reliability for this scale was .92 in this study.

Job Demands.

Role ambiguity and role conflict. The two six-item scales developed by Bowling et al. (2017) were utilized. Participants were asked to rate their agreement with the items based on their current job. An example from the role ambiguity scale was "I am not sure what is expected of me at work" and one for role conflict was "I have to deal with competing demands at work." The reliability for the role ambiguity and role conflict scales was .86 and .94, respectively.

Role overload. Originally presented in the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (MOAQ; Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins & Klesh 1979), the three-item role overload scale as described by Schaubroeck et al. (1989) was utilized. An example item is "I have too much work to do everything well." The reliability for this scale was .77.

Work-life balance. To measure employees' perceptions of their work-life balance over the last quarter, the four-item measure by Brough et al. (2014) was used. An example item is "Overall, I believe that my work and non-work life are balanced" ($\alpha = .83$).

Resources

Personal resilience. The six-item Brief Resilience Scale (Smith, Dalen, Wiggins, Tooley, Christopher & Bernard, 2008) was used to measure resilience. An example item is "I usually come through difficult times with little trouble" ($\alpha = .88$).

Life satisfaction. Diener et al.'s (1985) five-item measure was used to assess life satisfaction. An example item is "I am satisfied with my life" ($\alpha = .90$).

Servant leadership. Originally measured with a twenty-eight-item scale comprising seven dimensions (Liden, Wayne, Zhao & Henderson, 2008), servant leadership was measured with the seven-item, short-form version of the original scale, which comprises the highest loading item from each dimension (Liden, Wayne, Meuser, Hu, Wu & Liao, 2015). An example item is "My leader puts my best interests ahead of his/her own." The reliability of the long- and short-form are comparable ($\alpha = .86-.97$; Liden et al., 2008; Liden et al., 2015; and $\alpha = .80-.89$: Liden, 2014; Liden et al., 2015, respectively). The reliability in the present study was .91.

Basic psychological needs. The need for autonomy (4 items) and relatedness (4 items) subscales from the Basic Psychological Needs at Work scale (Brien, Forest, Mageau, Boudrias, Desrumaux, Brunet, & Morin, 2012) were used in this study. Example items include "My work allows me to make decisions" and "When I'm with the people from work, I feel understood," respectively. The reliability for these scales was .82 and .93, respectively.

Job opportunities. An adapted version of Turban et al.'s (1992) six-item, perceptions of job attributes subscale (i.e., type of work) which relates to opportunities, was utilized in this study.

Participants were asked to report their level of satisfaction (1 = *very dissatisfied*; 5 = *very satisfied*) with the type of work in their current position. Adaptations of this measure are noted in several studies (e.g., Ostroff & Clark, 2001; Turban, Forret, & Hendrickson, 1998). A typical item is “To use new technology” ($\alpha = .91$).

Pay satisfaction. A four-item scale from the Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire (PSQ; Heneman & Schwab, 1985) was used to measure pay level satisfaction. Participants were asked to report their level of satisfaction (1 = *very dissatisfied*; 5 = *very satisfied*) with their pay. An example item is “My take home pay” ($\alpha = .97$).

Person-organization fit. The three-item measure developed by Cable and Judge (1996) was used to assess person-organization fit. Participants assessed their perceived fit by answering each item using a five-point Likert type scale ranging 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*completely*). An example item is “To what degree do you feel your values ‘match’ or fit this organization and the current employees in this organization?” ($\alpha = .93$).

2.4 Results

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory factor analyses were conducted using Mplus 7.31 (Muthén & Muthén, 2010) to test the discriminant validity of our constructs. The maximum likelihood estimation method was applied to the covariance matrix to analyze the structure of the data. The results presented in Table 1 indicate that the proposed 14-factor model displays a good fit to the data ($\chi^2_{(1988)} = 3633.86, p <$

Table 1

Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Measurement Models: Fit Indices

	χ^2	<i>df</i>	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf
1. Theoretical Model with 14 factors	3633.86*	1988	.91	.91	.05	—	—
2. Model with 13 factors:							
Grouping relatedness and autonomy	3922.94*	2001	.90	.89	.05	289.08*	13
Grouping life satisfaction and work-life balance	4531.70*	2001	.87	.86	.06	897.84*	13
Grouping life satisfaction and resilience	4500.30*	2001	.87	.86	.06	866.44*	13
Grouping opportunities and pay satisfaction	4654.75*	2001	.86	.85	.06	1020.89*	13
Grouping P-O fit and work-life balance	4477.17*	2001	.87	.86	.06	843.31*	13
3. Model with 13 factors:							
Grouping role overload, conflict, ambiguity	4283.36*	2013	.88	.87	.06	649.50*	25
Grouping relatedness, autonomy, opportunities	4624.64*	2013	.86	.85	.06	990.78*	25
4. Model with 11 factors, grouping 4 demands	4944.50*	2024	.85	.84	.06	1310.64*	36
5. Model with 7 factors, grouping 8 resources	8448.93*	2058	.66	.65	.09	4815.07*	70
6. Model with 4 factors grouping 8 resources & 4 demands	9686.89*	2073	.60	.59	.10	6053.03*	85
7. Model with one factor	11770.55*	2079	.49	.48	.11	8139.69*	91

Note. $N = 372$ -373. *df* = degree of freedom; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; RMSEA = root-mean-square error of approximation.

.001, CFI = .91, TLI = .91, RMSEA = .05). The fit of this model was tested against several alternative models using the chi-square differential test. These more parsimonious models were created by combining two or more factors. The fit of the 14-factor model was significantly ($p < .001$) better than the fit of all the alternative models. For example, Table 1 indicates that a four-factor model that groups together all four demands into one factor and all eight resources into one factor yielded a significantly lower fit ($\Delta\chi^2_{(85)} = 6053.03, p < .001$) compared to the 14-factor model. Taken together, these results support the discriminant validity of our measures.

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Table 2 reports the descriptive statistics and correlations for the study variables. Turnover intention correlated positively with emotional exhaustion ($r = .61, p < .01$), role overload ($r = .39, p < .01$), role ambiguity ($r = .44, p < .01$) and role conflict ($r = .44, p < .01$). Emotional exhaustion correlated positively with role overload ($r = .60, p < .01$), role ambiguity ($r = .39, p < .01$) and role conflict ($r = .55, p < .01$). Turnover intention and emotional exhaustion were negatively related to work-life balance ($r = -.46, p < .01$; and $r = -.53, p < .01$, respectively), resilience ($r = -.22, p < .01$; and $r = -.37, p < .01$, respectively), life satisfaction ($r = -.37, p < .01$; and $r = -.39, p < .01$, respectively), servant leadership ($r = -.57, p < .01$; and $r = -.55, p < .01$, respectively), relatedness ($r = -.58, p < .01$; and $r = -.60, p < .01$, respectively), autonomy ($r = -.49, p < .01$; and $r = -.45, p < .01$, respectively), job opportunities ($r = -.60, p < .01$; and $r = -.51, p < .01$, respectively), pay satisfaction level ($r = -.55, p < .01$; and $r = -.45, p < .01$, respectively) and person-organization fit ($r = -.58, p < .01$; and $r = -.52, p < .01$, respectively).

Multiple Linear Regressions

To investigate the influence of various job demands and resources on turnover intention and emotional exhaustion, two linear regression analyses were conducted. Table 3 presents the linear

Table 2

Correlations, Means, and Standard Deviations for the Study Variables

Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1. Turnover Intention	(.94)														2.32	1.37
2. Emotional Exhaustion	.61*	(.92)													2.64	1.13
3. Role Overload	.39*	.60*	(.77)												2.37	0.98
4. Role Ambiguity	.44*	.39*	.38*	(.86)											1.88	0.79
5. Role Conflict	.44*	.55*	.60*	.46*	(.94)										2.63	0.94
6. Work-life balance	-.46*	-.53*	-.53*	-.29*	-.46*	(.83)									3.70	1.02
7. Resilience	-.22*	-.37*	-.26*	-.20*	-.19*	.24*	(.88)								3.51	0.93
8. Satisfaction with life	-.37*	-.39*	-.24*	-.21*	-.25*	.38*	.34*	(.90)							3.22	1.03
9. Servant Leadership	-.57*	-.55*	-.36*	-.41*	-.44*	.44*	.26*	.41*	(.91)						3.29	1.01
10. Relatedness	-.58*	-.60*	-.35*	-.47*	-.47*	.40*	.29*	.41*	.67*	(.93)					3.62	1.06
11. Autonomy	-.49*	-.45*	-.32*	-.50*	-.36*	.41*	.34*	.35*	.50*	.62*	(.82)				4.19	0.70
12. Job opportunities	-.60*	-.51*	-.29*	-.44*	-.29*	.42*	.25*	.52*	.67*	.59*	.52*	(.91)			3.52	0.94
13. Pay satisfaction Level	-.55*	-.45*	-.35*	-.32*	-.33*	-.35*	.23*	.46*	.57*	.47*	.30*	.60*	(.97)		3.07	1.26
14. P-O Fit	-.58*	-.52*	-.29*	-.36*	-.37*	.43*	.24*	.49*	.68*	.66*	.52*	.65*	.51*	(.93)	3.46	1.10

Note. On the diagonal and in parentheses are the reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha).

* $p < .01$.

Table 3

Linear Regression of the Demands and Resources on Turnover Intention and Emotional Exhaustion

Predictor	Turnover Intention	Emotional Exhaustion
Role Overload	.024 (.07)	.296*** (.05)
Role Ambiguity	.056 (.08)	-.046 (.06)
Role Conflict	.079 (.07)	.143** (.06)
Work-life balance	-.103* (.06)	-.131** (.05)
Resilience	.012 (.06)	-.132*** (.05)
Satisfaction with life	.097* (.06)	-.013 (.05)
Servant Leadership	-.021 (.08)	-.013 (.06)
Relatedness	-.140* (.07)	-.242*** (.06)
Autonomy	-.068 (.10)	-.015 (.08)
Job opportunities	-.214*** (.08)	-.100 (.07)
Pay satisfaction - Level	-.215*** (.05)	-.040 (.04)
P-O Fit	-.166** (.07)	-.051 (.05)
R^2 (Adjusted R^2)	.55 (.53)	.59 (.58)
F	35.608***	42.707***
df	12,351	12,351

Note. $N = 364$. Regression weights are reported as standardized coefficient betas. The standard errors are reported in parentheses.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

regression results wherein the standardized beta coefficients are included. First, the overall model with turnover intention as the dependent variable was significant ($F(12, 351) = 35.608, p < .001, R^2 = .55$). Of the four demands, only work-life balance was significantly related to turnover intention ($\beta = -.103, p < .05$), while role overload ($\beta = .024, ns$), role ambiguity ($\beta = .056, ns$) and role conflict ($\beta = .079, ns$) were non-significant. When considering the resources, life satisfaction was significantly related to turnover intention ($\beta = .097, p < .05$), while resilience was not ($\beta = .012, ns$). In terms of job resources, relatedness ($\beta = -.103, p < .05$), job opportunities ($\beta = -.214, p < .001$), pay level satisfaction ($\beta = -.215, p < .001$) and person-organization fit ($\beta = -.166, p < .01$) were significantly related to turnover intention. Servant leadership ($\beta = -.021, ns$) and autonomy ($\beta = -.068, ns$) did not achieve statistical significance. These results provide (partial) support to Hypotheses 4a (work-life balance), 7a (life satisfaction), 8a (relatedness), 11a (job opportunities), 12a (pay level satisfaction) and 13a (person-organization fit), while Hypotheses 1a (role overload), 2a (role ambiguity), 3a (role conflict), 6a (resilience), 9a (autonomy) and 10a (servant leadership) are rejected.

The regression model for emotional exhaustion was significant ($F(12, 351) = 42.707, p < .001, R^2 = .59$). When considering the demands, role overload ($\beta = .296, p < .001$) and role conflict ($\beta = .143, p < .01$) were positively related to emotional exhaustion while work-life balance ($\beta = -.131, p < .01$) and role ambiguity ($\beta = -.046, ns$) were non-significant. When considering the resources, resilience ($\beta = -.132, p < .001$) was negatively associated with emotional exhaustion while life satisfaction was not ($\beta = -.013, ns$). In terms of job resources, relatedness ($\beta = -.242, p < .001$) was negatively related to emotional exhaustion while servant leadership ($\beta = -.013, ns$), autonomy ($\beta = -.015, ns$), job opportunities ($\beta = -.100, ns$), pay level satisfaction ($\beta = -.040, ns$) and person-organization fit ($\beta = -.051, ns$) did not achieve statistical

significance. These results provide (partial) support to Hypotheses 1b (role overload), 3b (role conflict), 4b (work-life balance), 6b (resilience), 8b (relatedness), while Hypotheses 2b (role ambiguity), 7b (life satisfaction), 9b (autonomy), 10b (servant leadership), 11b (job opportunities), 12b (pay level satisfaction) and 13b (person-organization fit) are rejected.

Relative Weight Analyses

The results of the univariate relative weight analysis are presented in Table 4. First, with turnover intention as the dependent variable, the resource variables of job opportunities (8.4%) and pay level satisfaction (8.3%) account for approximately the same amount of variance, followed by person-organization fit (7.3%) and relatedness (6.5%). Together, these job resources account for over half (30.5%) of the variance of turnover intention. On the other hand, the job demand of work-life balance (3.9%) accounted for a modest amount of the explained variance in turnover intention. In sum, the job resources accounted for a much greater amount of variance explained in turnover intention than job demands.

In contrast, job demands accounted for a larger portion of explained variance in emotional exhaustion than the resources. Specifically, role overload (12.3%) accounted for the most while role conflict (7.5%) and work-life balance (6.7%) accounted for roughly the same amount of explained variance. Together, these job demands accounted for nearly half (26.5%) of the explained variance in emotional exhaustion. Interestingly, the personal resource of resilience (3.9%) and the job resource of relatedness (7.4%) accounted for a notable amount of explained variance. In sum, job demands accounted for a greater amount of variance explained in emotional exhaustion, the results supporting Hypothesis 5. However, the contribution of resources (i.e., resilience and relatedness) was sizeable as well.

Data Integrity: Multicollinearity, interactions and response bias

Given the number of predictors tested in the regression models, it is important to analyze the possibility of multicollinearity between the predictors. In the present study, these concerns did not come to fruition first because the bivariate correlations between predictors did not exceed .80 (Field, 2013). Similarly, the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and the Tolerance were all within acceptable ranges (Bowerman & O'Connell, 1990; Field, 2013; Menard, 1995). Specifically, the VIF of predictors did not exceed a value of 10 and the Tolerance was always above 0.2. In both regression models the Tolerance scores ranged from .39 to .81 and the VIF scores ranged from 1.235 to 2.470.

Additional correlation analyses were conducted to ascertain the possible interaction that participant age and life satisfaction may have on turnover intention. Previous empirical work has noted that age and life satisfaction are positively related (to a certain age; Chen, 2001) and that age and turnover intention are negatively related (Ng & Feldman, 2009). In the present study, the correlation between age and life satisfaction ($r = -.02$, ns) was not found to be statistically significant; though age was found to be negatively related turnover intention ($r = -.17$, $p < .01$). It is worth remembering that turnover intention and life satisfaction ($r = -.37$, $p < .01$) were found to be negatively related. Taken as a whole, these results suggest the presence of a possible interaction of age and life satisfaction on turnover intention. To this end, an interaction term (age and life satisfaction) was added to a separate regression analysis where all study variables were included, and the dependent variable was turnover intention. The model previously described was significant ($F(12, 351) = 34.896$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .54$); however, the age and life satisfaction interaction failed to achieve statistical significance ($\beta = -.058$, ns). This result suggests that though age and life satisfaction may be independently related to turnover intention, together they do not interact in predicting turnover intention.

Along a similar vein to possible interaction effects, the possibility of response bias exists across all forms of research that require participant responses. For example, Podsakoff and colleagues (2003) suggest that responses to questionnaires may be influenced by participants comprehension of the questions being asked, their judgment and choices relating to response selection. Taken together, these response factors may be reflected in an above average length of time spent responding to the questionnaires. As such, it is important to determine whether time spent responding is related to the results. The relationship of duration (in seconds; $M = 1313.72$, $SD = 1997.74$) and each variable was tested and for the most part yielded results that were not statistically significant. Only role overload ($r = .12$, $p = .02$) and resilience ($r = -.10$, $p = .05$) were found to relate to response duration.

Further verification was conducted to determine the normality of the distribution of data, as such the standardized Z scores were calculated for duration (in seconds) of participants. The standardized Z scores that exceeded ± 3 units ($n = 6$), the outliers, were replaced with the initial mean ($M = 1313.72$, $SD = 1997.74$). Following this, the new mean was relatively lower ($M = 1105.42$, $SD = 867.47$) and subsequent correlation analyses failed to achieve statistical significance across all study variables. The conclusion being that time spent responding to the questionnaire does not appear to influence the results in a statistically significant manner.

Additional measures were employed to guard against response bias and increase data integrity. A total of 1,239 responses were collected, of these 862 responses were removed primarily for spending one minute or less responding to the survey, for failing one of three dummy questions, inconsistent responding (e.g., several questions on company size did not match) or not working full-time (i.e., 30 hours per week or more), working exclusively from

Table 4

Relative Weight Analysis Results for Relative Importance of Predictors

Variables	Turnover Intention				Emotional Exhaustion			
	Raw relative	Rescaled	95% Confidence Interval		Raw relative	Rescaled	95% Confidence Interval	
	Weight	Weight	Lower bound	Upper bound	Weight	Weight	Lower bound	Upper bound
Role Overload	0.022	3.933	-0.004	0.039	0.123	20.682	0.071	0.160
Role Ambiguity	0.035	6.295	0.006	0.056	0.017	2.940	-0.011	0.029
Role Conflict	0.032	5.829	0.004	0.053	0.075	12.694	0.037	0.102
Work-life balance	0.039	7.142	0.008	0.064	0.067	11.286	0.026	0.098
Resilience	0.005	0.089	-0.019	0.010	0.039	6.575	0.004	0.065
Satisfaction with life	0.016	2.971	-0.007	0.024	0.025	4.135	-0.005	0.041
Servant Leadership	0.054	9.862	0.022	0.088	0.039	6.571	0.009	0.056
Relatedness	0.065	11.743	0.031	0.088	0.074	12.464	0.034	0.103
Autonomy	0.042	7.624	0.012	0.067	0.028	4.700	-0.000	0.042
Job opportunities	0.084	15.354	0.049	0.115	0.037	6.16	0.004	0.054
Pay satisfaction - Level	0.083	15.140	0.042	0.120	0.032	5.350	0.003	0.050
P-O Fit	0.073	13.216	0.035	0.104	0.038	6.442	0.006	0.056

Note. $N = 364$. Turnover Intention (model $R^2 = 0.55$). Emotional exhaustion (model $R^2 = .59$). Raw Relative Weights in boldface are significant results from Table 3.

home or being self-employed. Lastly, two responses were removed given that they were classified as “speeders” for answering questions too quickly (i.e., not enough time to read).

2.5 Discussion

Theoretical Implications

The results of the present study contribute to the literature given that it is among the first to take a demands-resources perspective on both well-being and turnover intention. Our findings indicate that the previously described dual processes may in fact have a degree of cross-over (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017) such that both well-being and turnover intention were related to some demands and resources.

Partially consistent with Örtqvist and Wincent (2006), two of three role stressors, role overload and role conflict were positively related to emotional exhaustion. This suggests that as an employee’s workload increases and conflicting requests are received, their well-being may suffer. An employee’s perception of a good balance between their work and personal life was related to lower turnover intention and emotional exhaustion. These findings corroborate work by Brough et al. (2014) and Zhang et al. (2012), suggesting that workplaces which facilitate or even promote work-life balance might benefit from a lower turnover rate and experience less consequences related to exhausted employees (e.g., Keeney et al., 2013; Reichl et al., 2014).

Although life satisfaction has been found to be negatively related to emotional exhaustion (Zhang et al., 2012), the results of this study did not corroborate that finding. Surprisingly, satisfaction with life was positively related to turnover intention although the bivariate correlation demonstrated that they were negatively correlated. Practically speaking, using Erdogan and colleagues’ (2012) bottom-up approach wherein various spheres of life such as work and personal life (Rojas, 2006) influence life satisfaction, an employee can be satisfied with their job, content with their personal life, and still want to quit. Indeed, the stability from

their spheres of life may allow them to pursue different opportunities, secure greater resources or foresee the possibility of resource loss (e.g., Grandey & Cropanzano, 1989; Hobfoll, 1989) by pursuing a different job.

A significant finding of the study is that the four statistically significant job resources (i.e., relatedness, job opportunities, pay level satisfaction and person-organization fit) accounted for over half the variance in turnover intention (30.5%) and the three statistically significant job demands (i.e., role overload, role conflict and work-life balance) were responsible for almost half the variance in emotional exhaustion (26.5%). The relative importance of the job resources contributing to turnover intention suggests that employees may attribute similar importance to various domains of their job and workplace, such that an employee wants to easily relate to their coworkers, their personal values to match with those of the organization, receive a satisfactory pay, and be given opportunities to learn and develop on the job. Whereas the relative importance of job demands contributing to emotional exhaustion suggests that a workload unfeasible to complete has the largest impact on an employee's well-being. Role conflict and work-life balance are of similar importance.

Finally, personal resilience and having relatable coworkers as job resources negatively contribute to employee ill-being. The findings suggest that being able to effectively manage the stress induced by, for example a heavy workload, feeling close with one's coworkers may reduce the perception of feeling burned out (e.g., Van den Broeck et al., 2008).

Managerial Implications

Practically speaking, employees with not only challenging (but reasonable) work in a resource-balanced organizational environment appear to perform best in their job (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014). This study suggests that resources bear more heavily as contributors to

reduced turnover intention, with demands being more strongly related to employee well-being. Managers would be wise to account for different aspects of the job and work environment having different (meaningful) outcomes. First, a resource-rich organizational environment could potentially reduce employee turnover intention and consequently the rate of voluntary turnover. On the other hand, a demand-heavy organizational environment may lead to employee ill-being, and consequently employee turnover intention (Richer, Blanchard & Vallerand, 2002).

Having too much work and not enough time to complete, known as role overload, was found to be the factor most strongly related to reduced employee well-being. By simply monitoring subordinates' workloads and deadlines, managers could alleviate the possibility of an employee's work-related decline in well-being. Moreover, given that both personal resilience and degree of relatedness to coworkers were found to be negatively associated with emotional exhaustion, managers could bolster personal resilience of employees and team-bonding activities to alleviate the possibility of employees feeling burned out.

Limitations and Future Research

As is the case with most empirical research in management, the present study utilized self-report measures and the data was cross-sectional. Both of which, according to Podsakoff and colleagues (2003), may be affected by common method variance. Along a similar vein, Baumgartner and Weijters (2012) suggested that method variance and consequent bias differ in their impact depending on the source. Both common (i.e., shared method) method variance and uncommon (i.e., unshared) method variance can affect the relationships between different study variables (Spector, Rosen, Richardson, Williams & Johnson, 2019). The former tends to inflate, and the latter tends to attenuate the magnitude of the relationship between various study variables (Spector et al., 2019; Williams & Brown, 1994).

By using online panel data, where participants are anonymous, it could be suggested that participants may be inclined to answer randomly or untruthfully. Additionally, another limitation with the use of online panel data arises given that the participants lived and worked in the U.S., suggesting that the generalizability of the findings within or outside of the U.S. would be hard to ascertain without further samples. As such, we suggest that the study should be replicated in a variety of regions around the world with a diverse (e.g., tenure, education, and industry) participant pool. Moreover, as the present study utilized a single time-point, future research should gather longitudinal data to elucidate the effects of demands and resources over time.

2.6 Conclusion

In conclusion, supporting employees can be difficult given the multitude factors at play. For example, the present study evaluated twelve unique variables covering a wide range of factors related to the typical work environment. In the scope of the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001) these represent a fraction of the possible demands, resources and outcomes that could influence one another. As such, this study offers an empirical approach to discerning the influential factors relating to employee turnover intention and their well-being. Specifically, the present study contributes to the vast JD-R model centered literature by being among the first to elucidate the relative importance of various demands and resources in relation to two distinct work-related outcomes: turnover intention and employee well-being. The inclusion of personal resources, job-related resources, and job demands, advances JD-R theory to include the potential impact of employee's personal characteristics. Rather than viewing various demands and resources as equal, this study suggests the unique impact of each individual demand or resource on employee turnover intention and well-being. Similarly, with the addition of turnover intention, which could be viewed as a more consequential form of disengagement behavior than the original conceptualization, allows for further development of JD-R theory.

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Conclusion

The results and consequent implications are noteworthy given that they make theoretical contributions to commitment theory and JD-R theory (e.g., Demerouti et al., 2001), as well as elucidate several implications for managers.

First, many of the present hypotheses were replicative in nature; however, when taken together then provide new insights into the relationships between study variables. For example, though many of the relationships between our three antecedents (i.e., job and pay satisfaction, and work-life balance) and foci of work commitment have already been elucidated, few studies have simultaneously investigated their impact. Furthermore, the hypotheses relating to commitment to organizational career (Lapointe et al., 2019) were exploratory and thus, contribute to the growing academic literature on this new focus of work commitment. Simply, these exploratory hypotheses lay the groundwork for future research on work commitment. By basing the essay in the scope of Klein and colleagues (2012) conceptualization, we made the first attempt at clarifying the influence of antecedents across three foci work commitment. Understandably, future work should be undertaken to replicate and refine these initial findings and the potential relationships.

Given that the findings related to job satisfaction and pay satisfaction are in line with previous research, it is worthwhile to highlight the directionality of work-family conflict and its unique effects (e.g., Shaffer et al., 2001; Siegel et al., 2005). Notably, when family life spills over into work life, self-reported scores of career-oriented commitment and commitment to organizational are generally lower. On the other hand, when work spills over into family life, self-reported scores of career-oriented commitment and commitment to organizational are generally higher. This difference may arise from an imbalance in resource allocation, such that if one were to

assume that they were allocated equal resources, when one's family life spills over to work, it takes away resources from the latter and consequently may reduce their engagement (Katz & Khan, 1978).

In terms of the second essay, again many hypotheses were replicative, though in the scope of the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001) they provide new insights into the role of demands and resources in relation to two important organizational outcomes: employee well-being and volunteer turnover intention. With the present work, we noted that some resources and demands affected well-being and turnover intention which suggests that they do not act in a single path (e.g., Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). Though generally speaking, the results fall in line with the assessed empirical literature. For example, four resources (i.e., relatedness, job opportunities, pay level satisfaction and person-organization fit) were responsible for a significant amount of the variance accounted in turnover intention, more so than job demands in the present work. Along a similar vein, three job demands (i.e., role overload, role conflict and work-life balance) accounted for a substantial amount of variance in emotional exhaustion. Simply, having certain resources available may be associated with lower intention to leave one's job, though excessive job demands may exhaust those same employees. Interestingly, the present work found that a good balance (or at least a perception thereof) between work and family was associated with both lower levels of emotional exhaustion, but also lower levels of intention to quit (e.g., Keeney et al., 2013; Reichl et al., 2014).

Regarding personal resources, the present work notes that satisfaction with life was positively related to turnover intention and resilience was negatively related to emotional exhaustion.

Taken together these results could be interesting given that an individual who is able to adequately recover from stressful events (e.g., a resilient person) who may also be satisfied with

their life in general may not be emotionally exhausted but may still want to find an employment opportunity other than their current one.

The implications for managers rest on the premise that even small modifications to the workplace could have markable effects on employees. As previously mentioned, work-life balance (or conflict) is important antecedent to career-oriented commitment (Ellemers et al., 1990) and commitment to organizational career (e.g., Lapointe et al., 2019) and predictor of emotional exhaustion and turnover intention. As such, managers could work to ensure that their current company policies reflect an appropriate balance between the two spheres of life. For example, they could offer flex-time or other alternative scheduling measures to facilitate the balance for parent employees, for example. Managers should also pay attention to the directly of conflict (e.g., work-to-family vs. family-to-work) given the differential impacts they may have on employee's commitment.

Similarly, by taking our results from the revised JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001), managers could reasonably assess a variety of demands and resources present in their workplace. This may also give them the opportunity to hear from their employees which resources may be missing and would ultimately enrich their work environment and reduce potential turnover intention (e.g., Richer, Blanchard & Vallerand, 2002). Similarly, managers could determine which demands may be considered to burdensome and adjust an employee's workload, for example. Managers would be wise to do so given the potential negative impacts of having too many demands has on employees, such as turnover and lower well-being (Richer et al., 2002). Lastly, being aware that resources and demands account for a large portion of variance in both well-being and turnover intention, managers could anticipate the potential negative impacts by ensure that adequate resources are available and that demands are reasonable.

In conclusion, the present work presents an initial foray into several new paths of empirical research relating to work commitment, well-being and turnover intention. The findings enrich our understanding of JD-R theory (e.g., Demerouti et al., 2001) and that of work commitment. Many avenues of future work could build on the present results, while taking into consideration the limitations.

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