THRIVE OR SURVIVE?: A CRITICAL EVALUATION OF THE MODERATED MEDIATING EFFECTS OF JOB RESOURCES ON EMPLOYEE PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING LEADING TO THE INTENTION TO QUIT

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Abstract: According to the Department of Labor, employees are leaving their organizations at higher-than-expected rates. This departure is being called "The Great Resignation." These departures are causing significant impacts on organizations. Could the effects or job demands – strain produced because of work –significantly impact employee psychological well-being, which leads to the employee resignation? Existing job demand-and-control models narrowly explain how job demands impact psychological well-being. Using an internet survey method, this study explores the role of job demands influence on burnout, negative affect, job dissatisfaction, and the intention to quit. Understanding that job demands are high is irrelevant if employees lack resources to mitigate these demands. By extending the Job Demand-Resource Model, this study performs a moderated mediation model exploring the impact of job demands on turnover intentions through psychological well-being. Job resources – systems designed to improve work's social, psychological, and physical effects – are tested for interaction effects. Utilizing a constructed survey, this study tests thirteen hypotheses and examines how employee resources moderates-mediate the effect of job demands on burnout leading to intention to quit. Job resources are statistically significant in moderating-mediating the effects of high job demands on burnout and the subsequent intention to quit.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Today's organizations face significant challenges in operations, whether locally or international; for example, climate change, economic disparity, social-political deterioration leading to conflict, and now the "Great Resignation" (Eisenhardt et al., 2016; Ferraro et al., 2015; G. George et al., 2016; Hill et al., 2010; Horn, 2021; Sull, 2022). Geographical boundaries, political affiliation, financial strength, and social influences are essential to organizational vitality, but they may not be enough for corporate survival in the future (French et al., 2017; McEntire et al., 2010).

Globalization created a network of complex systems and interdependencies, establishing a system in which "normal accidents" occur (Perrow, 1999). These complex interdependent systems, which are likely fragile and promote efficiency and profitability, are currently being impacted by the pandemic recovery. With COVID causing significant disruptions to operations and supply chains, organization survival is a vital concern for all stakeholders (Carnevale & Hatak, 2020). To add to the worry, how employees choose to respond will significantly influence their organization's performance (Wang et al., 2003).

Senior management, alongside human resource management, must reconsider the process of work for their organization. Regardless of location, industry, and tenure, the workforce is changing to the altering work and social conditions brought on by COVID (Chattopadhyay, 2021; Mehta, 2021). For instance, many organizations elect to downsize office spaces to allow more employees to work from home. Additionally, many organizations are shifting to automation over an unskilled labor force (Lund et al., 2021). These changes may be altering how employees value their work within their organization. When employees have negative attitudes towards their work, they are more likely to leave the organization (Al-Badarneh et al., 2019; Paillé, 2010).

Classical management theories, such as Weber's bureaucratic management model or McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y, still have connections to organizational management today (Lawler et al., 2015). Most noticeably is the relationship between work production and compensation. Under Theory X, employees have an inherent disdain towards their employer. Their employer requires work to be performed, and they shall receive compensation by doing so. Thus, the horse is drawn to the carrot, creating work output. Theory Y is the opposite of Theory X. Theory Y proposes that work is good and that employees will seek out more responsibilities under the right conditions. Neither Theory X nor Theory Y explains why people choose to leave organizations. Organizations must understand why employees are exiting now if the organization expects to thrive in this recovery period (Sull, 2022).

Problem Statement

Employees are leaving their employers alarmingly – 4.5 million employees quit in November 2021 (*Job Openings and Labor Turnover Survey,* 2022). This rate is roughly 3% of the total eligible non-agriculture workforce size. The reasons for their departure are not well understood. Yet, certain elements brought on by COVID may be increasing the rate of employee turnover.

Elements such as work-family conflict– the incompatibility of employees' work and family roles – brought on by working from home may significantly affect psychological well-being (Giurge & Bohns, 2020; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77). Kofman and Garfin say, "Home is not always a haven"(2020, S199). In recent years, Employers began offering more family-friendly policies, such as flexible schedules, working from home options, and childcare subsidies to promote greater employee benefits and retention (Golden et al., 2006; Latura, 2020).

Nevertheless, COVID-19 is accelerating the implementation of these policies. The boundary separating work from home appears very blurry from the observer. The effects of job stressors brought on by COVID-19 are undoubtedly impacting workers worldwide. COVID-19s rapid emergence and fast-spreading effects caused many organizations to shift rapidly, with employee downsizing being the worst outcome for many (Falk et al., 2020). The impacts of COVID-19 on the workforce are beginning to appear – The Great Resignation.

Therefore, now is the time to explore the implications of COVID-19 on employees' job demands and resources. Are job demands negatively impacting employees' psychological well-being leading them to quit? Are job resources improving

employees' psychological well-being, thus decreasing the likelihood of quitting? How might job resources moderate the effects of job demands on employees' psychological well-being? While previous job stress research provides insights, research to date does not readily incorporate the unique challenges COVID-19 related job demands and resources have on employee psychological well-being leading to the intention to quit.

Overview of the Framework

This study expands upon Demerouti et al.'s (2001) Job Demand-Resource Model (JD-R) to determine the impact of job stressors and job resources on employees' psychological well-being - conceptualized here as emotional exhaustion/burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction - and subsequent turnover intentions during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Job demands include the physical, psychological, social, and organizational work attributes placed on an individual because of their proximate role within an organization (Demerouti et al., 2001). Job demands include physical workload, time pressure, recipient contact, physical environment, and shift work. On the other hand, job resources are the physical, psychological, social, and organizational attributes that help individuals accomplish goals, improve psychological well-being, and promote self-efficacy. Job resources are conceptualized in the Demerouti et al. (2001) model as feedback, rewards, job control, participation, job security, and supervisor support. Both job demands and job resources are evident in any organization (Bakker et al., 2004; Bakker & Demerouti, 2018); however, the impact of demands and the availability of resources are unique to individual organizations.

The JD-R model posits that job demands increase individual job stressors, while job resources decrease individual job stressors. When job demands outweigh the job resources available to the employee, employee exhaustion and disengagement increase, leading to employee burnout and, in turn, a greater likelihood to quit (Demerouti et al., 2001). The JD-R model proposes that job demands positively affect burnout (disengagement and exhaustion). But when job resources are high, the positive impact of job demands on burnout reduces, and consequently, employees are less likely to want to quit (Baeriswyl et al., 2016; Bakker et al., 2003; Bakker et al., 2005; Demerouti et al., 2009).

Practical Importance

This study is timely and necessary, considering the apparent changes in the workforce and the rising employee turnover during COVID. Previous crisis literature (Balfour & Neff, 1993; Bedford et al., 2020; Ross & Ross, 2005) argues that increased job demands are likely causing low psychological well-being, which increases the likelihood of employee intention to quit. COVID-19 is a novel opportunity for researchers to study job demand impacts because of its unique influences on all areas of society. Pandemics have been noted throughout history; however, current technology and the information age mean that society is more connected than ever before (Rutz et al., 2020). When employees work from home, they face a unique experience that differs from employees working in their traditional work environment.

It's already been reported that COVID-19 is widening the gap between blue-collar and white-collar jobs (Coibion et al., 2020). A recent news article, using Goldman Sach's

data, reported half of the employees who resigned in 2021 were baby boomers (Olen, 2022). This generational departure is expected since baby boomers were predicted to delay retirement in 2007 (NPR, 2007). Yet, this assumption requires empirical analysis to substantiate the claim. Why are there so many employees choosing to leave now as the economy improves? Blue-collar workers are often deemed essential. Thus, they were required to continue working on job sites during the pandemic. Take, for instance, assembly line workers. They were still needed to be on the assembly line working close to their fellow workers.

Other effects of COVID-19 on employees include mounting job insecurity, increasing the reliance on technology over people, and blurring work-and-home lines (Hite et al., 2020). For those who lack these elements, psychological well-being is likely to suffer, which may increase the likelihood of quitting. Existing JD-R models have not considered the dimension of intention to quit via moderation. This study will extend the JD-R model to include expected turnover intention, arguing that employees will rely on their rights, social support, and benefits to survive this disruption.

Aim and Objectives

This proposed study Aims to:

Critically evaluate the moderating effects of job resources on psychological well-being when job demands are high and its subsequent impact on turnover intentions.

The supporting objectives are:

1. Construct a comprehensive literature review pertaining to job demands, job resources, psychological well-being, and turnover intentions within the workplace

2. Assess the impacts of COVID-19 on job demands and job resources, and psychological well-being

3. Evaluate the indirect effects of job demands on turnover intentions via psychological well-being and interaction effects from job resources.

4. Construct a scale to measure *Employee Rights* as prescribed by the hypothesized model posited

5. Integrate the intention to quit within the Job Demand-Resource model

The Job Demand Resource Model for burnout (Demerouti et al. 2001) first introduced our understanding of job demands and job resources' impact on burnout. But with COVID's impact, it is necessary to reimagine how this model may be working and why people are quitting their jobs. Chapter 2 will expand upon the existing literature and the extension of the JD-R model with the intention to quit outcome variable included. Chapter 3 will describe the methodological approach to select variable components and scales, survey design, and collection methods. Chapter 4 explores the data analysis approach with results included. Chapter 5 provides a discussion section on what organizations and individuals might consider regarding the analysis results. Finally, Chapter 6 will give concluding thoughts, limitations, and future exploration opportunities.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORY DEVELOPMENT

This chapter demonstrates the rationale for this study by examining prior academic works to inform the thirteen hypotheses that underpin this study. Existing job demand models are too simplistic and thus inefficient in exploring the complex role of job resources moderating the effects of job demands on intentions-to-quit. This study seeks to address this gap with a moderated mediation model. This model, though more complex, is necessary to address component effects simultaneously versus serially. Each component of the model - job demands, job resources, psychological well-being, and intention to quit - is examined to establish its usage, strengths, and weaknesses. Consequently, this study will add to the existing body of literature on job demands during the times of COVID. More importantly, job resources are necessary to the employee workforce to manage their well-being.

Classical Management Theory

Work is simply the process of completing a task. Work can be different for different industries, professions, or organizations. Work costs something – whether physically or mentally. Meaning work should be efficient and cost-effective. Classical

management theory begins with Fredrick Taylor's work (Taylor, 1911) which focuses on the scientific management system. This system approach considers the best way to approach work by simplifying tasks (Meadows, 2008). There may be great complexity within a system. To reduce complexity requires a reduction of processes to steps. Steps should be reduced to a simple, repeatable task – like the Ford assembly line. This simplification process reduces failures, increases productivity, and ultimately improves profits.

Now Taylor's work focuses on processes, Frank and Lillian Gilbreth concentrate on increasing efficiency by repeatedly identifying the best way to do a task. There theory centers around reducing the number of motions within a job (Gilbreth & Gilbreth, 1919). If you decrease the number of activities, you can improve the time it takes to produce something, as each action takes time to complete. Individuals are not going to extend their efforts beyond what is necessary. Employees will do what is required to complete a task with the least amount of energy used.

However, employees are not robots, and with more significant economic expansions in the 1950s, the importance of employee well-being began to emerge. Scholars have attempted to understand what causes burnout, by examining the conditions and motivations of employees (Maslach et al., 2001). Freudenberger (1974) first identified burnout as exhaustion brought on by "excessive demands on energy, strength, or resources" (p.73). Originally, burnout was first believed to be a social issue dedicated to specific fields such as human services, education, and healthcare professionals (Maslach et al., 2001). But, burnout could happen to anyone for several reasons (Schaufeli et al., 2009).

Turnover can have negative impacts on organizations and individuals, whether it is a job vacancy or mental health impacts (Bauer & Hämmig, 2014). The impact of employee departure may also create long-term impacts to an organization, and possibly threaten the survivability of the organization (Jackofsky & Peters, 1983). The connection between burnout and turnover intentions was first identified by Mobley (1982). Burnout and turnover have a documented history within the classical management theories (Hom et al., 2017; Schaufeli et al., 2009). Yet, classical management theory does not identify what antecedents or predictors lead to burnout. Thus, a new view of management began to develop.

Job Demand Theories

Previous works have explored the idea of job demands (or job stressors) on employee psychological well-being and turnover intentions (Bakker et al., 2005; Batt & Valcour, 2003; Demerouti et al., 2001; Hom et al., 2017; Williams & MacDermid, 1994; Wright & Cropanzano, 2000). The first model to do so is the Job Demand-Control Model (DCM) (Karasek, 1979), which identified the relationship between job demands (performance measurements) and employee well-being (job stress). In Karasek's model, job demands have a negative effect on psychological well-being. However, by increasing job control, employees can reduce the negative impact on their psychological well-being. In other words, when employees feel stress from performance measurements, their overall stress level can be reduced by giving the employee latitude to adjust their work process. Therefore, the stress level is the dependent variable, workload (job demand) is

the independent variable, and job control acts as a moderating variable. The DCM model proposes two predictive outcomes (Karasek, 1979):

1. When job demands increase, employee psychological well-being decreases.
2. When employees have a greater sense of control, then the employee's psychological well-being increases.

Karasek identified several limitations to his original study: not distinguishing role differences, not accounting for social support, and not identifying employee perception of demands and job control (1979).

In response to Karasek's model, Johnson & Hall proposed the Job Demand-Control-Support Model (1988), which identified the role of social support in reducing job stressors' negative effect on employee well-being. However, both models have little empirical support for predicting job demands and psychological well-being in white-collar jobs (lawyers, accountants, financial analysts) within the literature.

Siegrist (1996) forwarded the Effort-Reward Imbalance Model (ERI), which focuses on work environment stress and its influence on employee health outcomes. Siegrist believed that adverse health effects provided little rewards for the employee (1996). Employees do not receive benefits from working in dangerous conditions. The imbalance of work-to-reward leads to increased employee stress, which further complicates an individual's health and well-being. In other words, if the reward does not sufficiently overcome the demands, then job strain occurs. The most significant takeaway from the ERI model is the idea that a single variable -employee control - cannot account for reducing employee stress (Siegrist, 1996).

These models may be overly simplistic and too generalized to use for today's organizations. The DCM and ERI models do not extend broadly enough to cover all types of jobs and work classes. Moreover, the ERI model does not predict organizational outcomes such as absenteeism. These models also do not account for potential interaction effects between predictors and dependent variables; hence, they are overly simplistic. And of course, there is still the prevalent issue of why employees will stay in high-stress roles even when the reward is insufficient.

Job demands are job stressors produced by the physical, social, and psychological conditions created by the organization's work attributes (Demerouti et al., 2001). Job resources are the benefits inherent to the organization: these are meant to improve psychological well-being and promote self-efficacy. Demerouti et al. (2001), therefore, proposed a new model, the Job Demand-Resource Model (JD-R), with the components of job demands and job resources informed by Lee and Ashforth (1996). The proposed study describes specific dimensions for both aspects of employees' work environments in detail below.

The Job-Demand Resource model attempts to explain the impacts of job demands and the availability of resources on the employee's overall well-being (Bakker & Demerouti, 2018). As stated earlier, Bakker et al. (2005) believed the existing burnout models were too simplistic and overgeneralized – one variable cannot explain all possible combinations. Autonomy – employee control – was the first component to be arbitrarily selected to attempt to explain burnout (Karasek, 1979). Yet, no clear explanation is provided for why autonomy is universally significant. Thus, the JD-R model seeks to

eliminate singularity and emphasis the interactive effects of one variable on another variable.

The JD-R model treats both job demands (negative impacts) and job resources (positive impacts) as multidimensional components – processes – that can predict future actions, such as burnout or employee turnover. Figure 1 is the conceptual model Bakker et al. (2001) used to describe the effects of pathways between model components. In this model, job demands – described as mental, emotional, and physical effects – have a positive relationship with strain and a negative association with motivation. Job resources have a positive relationship with motivation but a negative relationship with strain. The influence of job demands and job resources may buffer the effects and thus moderate or mediate the impacts of strain and motivation. Both strain and motivation have positive or negative effects, with some described organizational outcomes. In the Bakker et al. (2001) model, they tested for burnout.

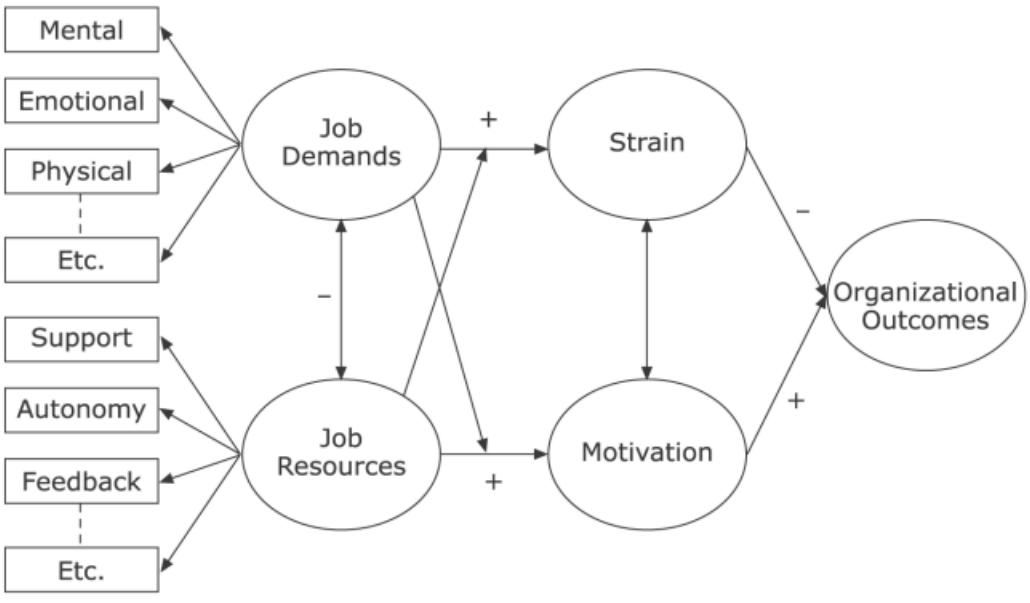


Fig. 1: The Job Demand Resources Model (Baker et al. 2001)

The JD-R model is quite adaptable. There is justification to use this model for analyzing the impacts of COVID-19 on employee turnover intentions. The fact remains employees are experiencing demands and challenges to the changing work conditions brought on by COVID. Employees may be – more than likely are – looking to their resources to buffer the influence demands have on their psychological well-being. These pathways between demands and resources may have a cumulative effect on their psychological well-being (conceptualized as burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction). This research project seeks to extend the present JD-R model by eliminating the strain and motivation components from the pathways. And add psychological well-being as an outcome variable, plus turnover intentions.

Job Demands

Bakker and Demerouti (2001) identified role ambiguity, conflict, and work expectations as relevant dimensions of job demands leading to burnout. However, there are several other job demands that need to be considered during the COVID-19 pandemic. The workforce has experienced a drastic change in a relatively short time frame. How then are employees able to understand what is expected of them? Do work performance expectations significantly impact their psychological well-being? What about the obligation to come to work sick? Figure 2 depicts the existing job demand dimensions with new components for model testing.

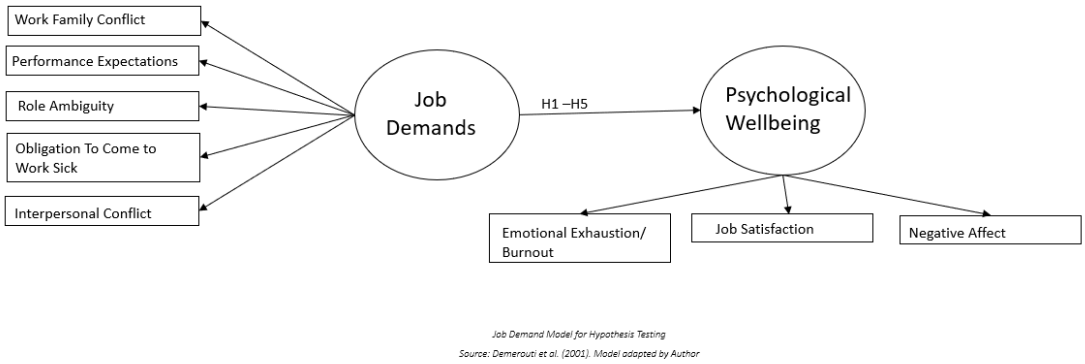


Fig. 2: Job Demands Model for Hypothesis Testing H1 thru H5

Work-Family Conflict

Work-Family Conflict is employees' continual efforts to balance their work and family roles. Even during non-crisis times, firefighters, medical personnel, military service members, and law enforcement experience greater demands on balancing work and family life than the average employee (Sulistiawan, 2018). The fulfillment of job demands and role responsibilities often creates a barrier to meeting family demands and vice versa. Work-family conflict (WFC) arises when the job demands negatively affect the individual's psychological well-being (Sulistiawan, 2018).

Before COVID, children went to schools, family members went to their place of work, and the routines were predictable and established. But in March 2020, these routines ended abruptly for most. Many families and individuals were asked to shelter in place. Suddenly, children had to learn from home. Parents were pulled in multiple directions to appease employers and educational institutions. This stress certainly brought on higher occurrences of conflict, evident with an increase in domestic violence

cases resulting from COVID (Kofman & Garfin, 2020). These influences have certainly created a unique opportunity to examine WFC in the context of COVID.

Demerouti et al. (2012) identify overtime hours, high workloads, and deadline-driven performance measures as significant WFC drivers. When it comes to WFC, job demands and job resources appraisals coincide (Bakker et al., 2003). This means that when the employer demands higher workloads or excessive overtime requirements, the employee will evaluate their resources to reduce the job strain, such as scheduling vacation time or offloading some responsibilities to another employee if they are able to do so.

Inversely, a spillover effect can occur when the family demands disrupt an individual's work performance. This spillover effect is called family-work conflict (FWC) (Grant-Vallone & Donaldson, 2001). When family demands are high, then the level of FWC increases (Zhang & Liu, 2011). FWC can affect satisfaction levels. For instance, when an employee experiences an increase in FWC, the employee's perceived job satisfaction significantly decreases (Ford et al., 2007). Chiu et al. (1998) observed strong correlations between job satisfaction, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction. This correlation suggests that a balance must exist between family satisfaction, job satisfaction, and life satisfaction. Employees who perceive their job demands to be less conducive to their family life balance experience higher WFC levels. This belief is captured in this model's design by measuring employee rights, benefits, job dissatisfaction, and intention to quit. This is supported by Grant-Vallone & Donaldson work that demonstrates WFC is a significant predictor of employee well-being (2001). Accordingly, these factors inform Hypothesis One below:

- *Hypothesis 1: Work-Family Conflict will be positively associated with burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction (poor psychological well-being).*

Performance Expectations

Work and family roles can impact a person's physical and psychological well-being. Individuals are rarely playing just one role at a time. For instance, an assembly line worker may also be a wife-mother or a husband-father. Their concerns about their family's well-being may emerge in the workplace, impacting their performance. Research by Grant and Donaldson (2001) and Leigh (1991) shows family demands are statistically significant predictors of employee performance and presence. However, employees still have specific performance measures that must be met to achieve their employer's expectations. Failure to do so may result in disciplinary actions or termination.

COVID certainly created unique challenges for managers and employees. Katz & Kahn (1978) identified this inter-role conflict and its impact on meeting role expectations and their work performance. Whether or not employees can meet their employer's expectations is primarily based on their access to knowledge, tools, resources, and timeline. Employees are often evaluated based on some established performance review process (Motowidlo, 2000). Employees have goals or performance measures set to benchmark their successes or failures. With COVID's arrival, performance measures may no longer be as easily understood or defined. The sudden economic retraction impacted many sales targets and profit margins in the early months of COVID (Vasileiou, 2021). So, performance expectation may be creating more significant stress and uncertainty, thus increasing the negative effect on job demands. Accordingly, these factors inform Hypothesis Two below:

- *Hypothesis 2: Unclear performance expectations will be positively associated with burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction (poor psychological well-being).*

Role Ambiguity

Role conflict and role ambiguity are commonly used variables for chronic job stressor studies (Bowling et al., 2017; González-Romá & Lloret, 1998; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Rizzo et al., 1970; Schuler et al., 1977). Role ambiguity is defined as the lack of clarity for a position (Schuler et al., 1977), or in other words, not understanding how to do the job prescribed by the employer. Role ambiguity can occur in short periods, such as an employee taking on a new task at work. Or it can endure over time, as time constraints do not limit role ambiguity. This stressor can be detrimental to an employee's belief about the future. For this reason, both short- and long-term role ambiguity questions should be included in the model.

If employees are unsure of how to perform their role, then certainly impacts to psychological well-being are possible. Role ambiguity, left uncorrected, can lead to psychological harm, such as anxiety, depression, and frustration (Jex & Beehr, 1991). These stressors may lead to an employee's bleak view of the future. For some individuals, establishing a home office and working with the lack of IT support may create stress. Or, the sudden changes in processes and procedures -COVID related – is making it difficult to know how to get the job done. For this reason, examining psychological well-being as an outcome variable is essential for human resources managers to understand the potential long-term impact of WFH. Accordingly, these factors inform Hypothesis Three below:

- *Hypothesis 3: Role ambiguity will be positively associated with burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction (poor psychological well-being).*

Obligation to Come to Work Sick

The obligation to come to work sick (OCWS), also known as presenteeism, is the perceived idea that employees must come to work despite being sick (Aronsson et al., 2000). Miraglia & Johns (2016) found employees who come to work sick are neither fully-engaged nor fully productive. Long-term effects on employees who maintain a high level of presenteeism while ill show a high correlation with failing health (Gustafsson & Marklund, 2011). Long-term effects include negative job attitudes, withdrawal from work, exhaustion, and decreased psychological well-being (Lu et al., 2013; Miraglia & Johns, 2016). Being present does not equate to being productive at work; thus, presenteeism may be a more significant threat to the organization's desired goals.

The mental health impact on the workforce because of COVID-19 is undoubtedly a concern for employers and human resources departments. According to the Society of Human Resources Managers, mental health illness during COVID-19 impacts employees at alarming rates: a 33-percent decrease in mental health well-being and a 33-percent increase in alcohol or substance usage (Wilkie, 2020). Mental health illness is a silent disease that may go undetected (Kovand et al., 2011).

When individuals WFH, there may be a higher likelihood of employees suffering in silence. The social process of talking with colleagues may naturally encourage treatment for those impacted with mental illness (Britt & Mcfadden, 2012). Conversely, mental health is likely decreased if employees are isolated from one another (Kovand et

al., 2011). The obligation to come to work sick may have some positive effects on mental health through social contact. Although, to do so may risk infecting colleagues depending on the prevalent illness.

Unplugging from emails and other electronic mediums while being sick is tricky for employees at home. Yet, working while sick may be expected for some employees, especially if you are working from home. This has not been tested to the researcher's knowledge, and the contribution of this variable may be significant to understanding employee commitments during pandemics. The impact of working while sick is likely increasing the effects of burnout and job dissatisfaction. Accordingly, these factors inform Hypothesis Four below:

- *Hypothesis 4: Obligation to Come to Work Sick will be positively associated with burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction (poor psychological well-being).*

Interpersonal Conflict

Karasek specifically identifies stressors of job demands to include "job-related personal conflict" within the Demand-Control Model (1979, p. 291). Personnel conflict arises when two or more individuals have competing interests. This interpersonal conflict is evident by the unfavorable exchange between parties where hostility, aggression, or contempt occurs during the argument (Ilies et al., 2011). Interpersonal conflict is not the same as bullying, workplace incivility, or disrespect (Andersson & Perason, 1999; Duffy et al., 2002; Ilies et al., 2011). Two employees can be engaged in the conflict but still maintain a professional composure. Instead, interpersonal conflict is the active bargaining of self-completing interests. Over time, this interpersonal conflict

can lead to an employee's negative affect towards work, decreased psychological well-being, and ultimately, an individual leaving an organization (Prone, 2000; Vittengl & Holt, 1998; Zohar, 1999).

Interpersonal conflict is not unique to organizational contexts. Interpersonal conflict occurs throughout all social groups. Through hiring, employees form social networks with their own rules, policies (formal and informal), language, and behaviors (Prone, 2000). These groups are created artificially through people entering and exiting an organization. Interpersonal relationships differ between supervisors and coworkers (Kasl, 1998). Understanding how supervisors versus coworkers influence an employee's psychological well-being contributes to the management literature. Regardless, the interrelationship formed in these groups has a significant impact on an individual's psychological well-being (S. Cohen & Willis, 1985). Indeed, interpersonal conflict is negatively correlated with job satisfaction ($r = -.32$) and positively correlated with turnover intentions ($r = .41$) (Prone, 2000). The posited model of employees with high interpersonal conflict with their peers and supervisors is most likely to affect their psychological well-being negatively. Accordingly, these factors inform Hypothesis Five below:

- *Hypothesis 5: Interpersonal Conflict will be positively associated with burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction (poor psychological well-being).*

Job Resources

The second element of the JD-R model is Job Resources (JR). JR extends to both internal and external benefits employees receive from their work performance. Demerouti

(2001, p. 501) describes job resources, internal or external, as the physical, psychological, social, and organizational attributes that can: (a) help achieve work goals; (b) reduce job demands on psychological well-being, and (c) promote employee growth and development. Figure three visually illustrates the five variables explored in this study.

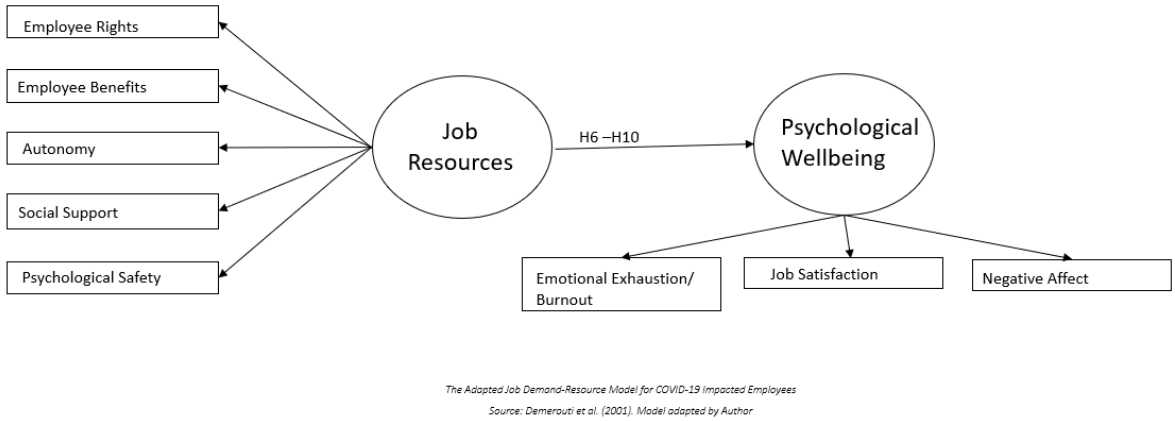


Fig.3: Job-Resource Model for Hypothesis Testing H6 thru H10

Employee Rights

Since workers created labor unions in the mid-19th century, employers have fought to prevent the employees' collective bargaining power. As early as 1806 - in *Pennsylvania Commonwealth v. Pullis* - the Philadelphia mayor sued shoemakers for attempting to set a price for their labor (*Philadelphia Cordwainers,* 1806). The mayor's court believed that collective action, in the form of price setting, is "unnatural" and contrary to the rational economic principles of supply and demand. The court determined that the shoemakers committed criminal conspiracy to price setting, detrimental to the public good (Compa, 2014). This case would be the first of many cases tried in courts

throughout the U.S. as employees began fighting for their basic-fundamental rights of job protection and wage fairness.

By the 1980s, labor unions' power began failing to protect employees because of adverse U.S. Supreme Court rulings, the Regan administration's controversial policies such as the termination of 11,000 striking federal air traffic controllers & the establishment of the Regan Labor Board (Farber & Western, 2002), and the National Labor Relations Board (NLRB) (Des Jardins & McCall, 1985) which resulted in a massive decline in labor union membership and an increase in right to work laws (Farber & Western, 2002, 2016; Molz, 1987). Today, employees are more vulnerable than the previous generation, brought on by changing business practices, such as outsourcing, the gig economy, and increases in technology (machine learning, robotics, and automation) (Molz, 1987; Todoli-Signes, 2017).

Thurow (1980) argues that employees are never satisfied. When given some rights, the desire for more rights grows, and ultimately economic inefficiencies will produce job loss, profit loss, and organizational failure (Molz, 1987). Employers wish to manage these risks by utilizing the concept of at-will employment. Employment-at-Will (EAW) is the belief that either party (employer or employee) can choose to terminate their relationship at any time, by request of the other party (Molz, 1987). EAW comprises of three elements: job security, employment at will, and legal property right (Hiley, 1985). Employee job security is the employee's belief that their job is protected. Employment at will is the legal right for any party to terminate the employment relationship. Traditional property rights are the vested rights that an employee has

obtained some legal rights to their job, as provided under the 14th Amendment. These three elements are used to measure the variable, employee's rights within this study.

With EAW, both the employer and employee believe in having equal power, except when there is a labor surplus (Abraham, 1983). COVID-19 has created an abundant labor surplus due to layoffs, furloughs, and organizational failures (Falk et al., 2020). The use of unemployment insurance, labor union protections, and job retraining is fundamental to stabilizing this unequal power distribution (Cappelli, 1984; Topel, 1983). This study will critically evaluate the belief that employee rights are a job resource. However, these rights may not be as powerful as once believed since the failing union membership rates and the requirement for greater educational demands for technology-related roles. Employees with fewer rights will experience more significant strain from job demands, leading to low psychological well-being. Accordingly, these factors inform Hypothesis Six below:

- *Hypothesis 6: Employee Rights will be negatively associated with burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction (poor psychological well-being).*

Employee Benefits

Employee benefits - originally called fringe benefits - were of minor importance to employees and employers alike when first offered (McCaffery, 1992). However, today employees view them as a must-have before considering applying for an open position (Pytlovany, 2020). Employee benefits are provided in a variety of programs and offerings. Sometimes, the organization pays for the benefit, e.g., workers' compensation and employee assistance programs (EAP). Other times the benefits require employees to

contribute towards the costs, health and disability insurance, and tuition reimbursement, to name a few. So, to define employee benefits is quite convoluted and non-conforming (Lengnick-Hall & Bereman, 1994). Employee benefits should not include pay, as pay is a fundamental right of employment.

Four significant benefits standards, used by human resources professionals, utilize different definitions to describe benefits (McCaffery, 1992). From these works, employee benefits are not paid wages for time worked. It must be made widely available to the employee population to be considered a benefit. It cannot be contingent on the employee's performance for consideration. Secondly, the benefit must cost the employer something. It is not a benefit if the employer can give it away. Third, the benefits definition is conceptualized around the benefit offerings. For instance, the United States Chamber of Commerce (Glance, 2014) includes the following as employee benefits: medical, dental, and vision coverage, 401(k) options, paid time off, paid holidays, employee assistance programs, tuition reimbursement, childcare assistance, and short-term and long-term disability insurance. Finally, the benefit must be discretionary and eligible for elimination by the employer.

Models explain complex situations by reducing components into tangible domains (Fischer, 1991). The reality of what is and is not an employee benefit is subjective and often interpreted differently by the provider or beneficiary. To date, no working employee benefit models exist. But there are fundamental components to assist in developing a future model, such as organizations must exist to provide benefits to an employee. If an organization does not exist, neither do the employees nor the benefits.

The benefit must increase the employee's well-being. Otherwise, the prescribed benefit would be a job demand. The benefit must be exclusive to the organization; otherwise, it is a public good, common resource, or a toll good. Finally, the benefit must be discretionary and not obligated under an employment contract or collective bargaining agreement. Employee benefits allow companies to attract quality employees, increase overall employee satisfaction, and minimize the effect of employee turnover (Milkovich & Newman, 1993; Mitchell, 1982, 1983).

Employees who have access to benefits will have more tools available to cope with the strain produced by their job demands. Access to benefits is not a novel concept. Leigh (1991) reports an inverse relationship between paid sick leave, wages, and absenteeism. When performance improves, employee job satisfaction improves (Wright & Cropanzano, 2000). Employees with family-friendly benefit programs are most likely to experience positive effects on their overall well-being (Gaidhani, 2018). Family-friendly benefit programs include paternal-maternal leave, adoption assistance, dependent sick leave, elder care assistance, child care assistance, and flexible scheduling (Williams & MacDermid, 1994). Employees who utilize their benefits during COVID-19 will experience an increase in their overall psychological well-being. Employees who lack benefits will experience a negative effect on their overall psychological well-being. Accordingly, these factors inform Hypothesis Seven below:

- *Hypothesis 7: Employee Benefits will be negatively associated with burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction (poor psychological well-being).*

Autonomy

Work autonomy is the discretion employers give employees to accomplish their work tasks (Breaugh, 1999). Work autonomy – or lack of independence - correlates to higher turnover, weakened job performance, and lower levels of job satisfaction (Cummings & Molloy, 1977, p. 6; Fried, 1991; Spector, 1986). Work autonomy should be included because of the direct correlation to turnover and performance. By giving employees a choice, employers empower their employees to control their performance. Employees who have greater control over their work have greater efficiency and lower job stress (Williams & MacDermid, 1994).

Work that provides the greatest autonomy (control over schedule and processes) will give the best flexibility to the job demands, reducing work-family conflict, job stressors, and ultimately turnover intentions (Golden, 2006; Hill et al., 2010). By having autonomy, the employee may adjust their schedule to reflect the needs of their family unit or remediate unnecessary steps in producing a final product (e.g., streamlining the submission of a report from the administrative assistant directly to their boss via email). At the same time, someone with less work autonomy may be subjected to higher risk-taking activities during COVID. Employees who engage in blue-collar work may not have the flexibility to adjust their work conditions. Their job stressors may increase because of greater control being placed on the worker by COVID-19 restrictions, their employer, or the government. Accordingly, these factors inform Hypothesis Eight below:

- *Hypothesis 8: Autonomy will be negatively associated with burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction (poor psychological well-being).*

Social Support

Wright et al. (1993) found supervisory support to be a predictor of an individual's psychological well-being. During COVID-19, as employees work from home, they may lack the social support needed to cope with their job stressors. Support is either structural (established social networks) or functional (deliverance of support to an employee) (S. Cohen & Willis, 1985). Structural support networks exist by establishing a social network within an organization. However, to ensure the status of the network is maintained in this study, a control variable is required to account for organizations that experienced a layoff, furlough, or shutdown versus organizations that did not experience employee workforce reductions. Functional social support may include instrumental support, assisting another employee with getting things done, or emotional support, best understood as empathetic listening and discussing stress (Beehr et al., 2000).

Social support is negatively associated with job strain (Beehr, 1995; Kahn & Byosiere, 1991). As social support increases, the employee's ability to cope with their job demands improves. Those with less social support are more likely to experience increased job stressors. COVID-19 creates a more significant roadblock for assisting fellow employees in accomplishing job-specific tasks. So, employees may rely more heavily on emotional support to cope with job stressors. Emotional support varies by the encounter, but three communication topics can be categorized: talking about good things at work, talking about bad things at work, and non-work issues (Beehr et al., 1990). Accordingly, these factors inform Hypothesis Nine below:

- *Hypothesis 9: Social Support will be negatively associated with burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction (poor psychological well-being).*

Psychological Safety

Psychological safety focuses on individual inclusion and team performance, preceding innovation (Clark, 2020). Psychological safety occurs when an employee takes a risk to collaborate or share information and knowledge (Edmondson & Lei, 2014). If the employee has a positive psychological safety experience, more collaboration transpires. However, if the experience is negative, the employee is more likely to withdraw and not contribute new ideas to future projects (Edmondson, 2004). As Clark (2020, p. 12) opines, organizations that lack psychological safety face grueling market competition "are galloping to extinction.".

When an organization lacks psychological safety, production costs increase, employee absenteeism rises, turnover increases, and employee performance declines (Dollard et al., 2012). Unfortunately, most organizations focus on physical hazard reduction versus mental hazard reductions (Australian Productivity Commission, 2010). Employers who focus on workplace accident reductions by analyzing the physical space but not exploring the social dimension are unlikely to improve safety performance.

Clarke (2020) argues that psychological safety consists of four elements: (1) inclusion, (2) safe to learn, (3) safe to contribute, and (4) safe to challenge. Inclusion may be defined differently by academic scholars, but it generally means to be accepted as you are (Hodkinson, 2011). Yet, there are four universal components for inclusion: (1) the organization accepts you as is, (2) there is no barrier for entry, (3) the organization promotes collaboration, and (4) equality is paramount (Wilson, 2010). When organizations are safe to learn and contribute, they are more likely to experiment with

new ideas, admit errors, and ask for help (Edmondson, 1999). Accordingly, Hypothesis Ten below:

- *Hypothesis 10: Psychological Safety will be negatively associated with burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction (poor psychological well-being).*

The Moderating Role of Job Resources

The job resources above also serve to moderate the relationships between job demands and psychological well-being. When job resources are high, the negative impact of job demands on psychological well-being improves. For example, role ambiguity is a significant job stressor for employees, but social support may reduce ambiguity. When employees seek guidance and advice from their colleagues, job stress reduces. This study proposes social support may buffer the effects of role ambiguity on employees. Employees with more robust social support from their employer, bosses, colleagues, and customers may have more defined role expectations.

Additionally, social support reduces interpersonal conflict. Peeters et al. (1995) examined the adverse effect of interpersonal conflict on administrative assistants. Their study found that social support is a significant buffering effect on interpersonal conflict. However, a limitation in this study is participants are asked to record stressful events. Thus, only events that are subjectively triggered as stressful to the participant are recorded, never mind the issue of the participant introducing stress to others (Ilies et al., 2011). Moreover, FWC and WFC may be buffered when social support is readily available to an employee personally and professionally. Marcinkus et al. (2007) found

social support influences FWC and WFC "as an antecedent, a direct effect, mediator, and moderator" (Sulistiawan, 2018, p. 116).

- *Hypothesis 11: Together, Job Resources will moderate the relationships between Job Demands and burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction (poor psychological well-being), such that the relationship is weaker when Job Resources is high and stronger when it is low.*

Psychological Well-Being

Psychological Well-Being (PWB) is an individual's overall mental and emotional functionality measured in pleasantness (Gechman & Wiener, 1975; Martin, 1984; Russell, 1980). PWB is sometimes confused with happiness (Diener, 1984). However, happiness is a temporal state and does not reflect an individual's overall mental well-being. Therefore, PWB is used to refer to sustained mental well-being, and it composes of three components: a phenomenological event (a belief), an emotional condition (an experience), and a holistic view of their life (Wright & Cropanzano, 2000). PWB uses global constructs - in the posited model, burnout, job satisfaction, and negative affect are the construct - versus a particular variable, e.g., job satisfaction (Kornhauser, 1965; Warr, 1990).

COVID-19's sustained impact is causing significant mental health concerns. Psychological Well-Being decreases during disasters (Brooks et al., 2015, 2016), and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), anxiety disorders, and depression are just a few of the mental illnesses that may emerge afterward (Rubin et al., 2017). According to Spring Health (2020), 76% of surveyed employees displayed burnout indicators, such as

exhaustion, reduced work performance, and negative affect towards their work. Participants stated that they need fewer work hours (30%), more paid time off (30%), more supportive managers (26%), and mental health benefits from their employers (20%).

Previous work causally linked employee performance to employee psychological well-being (Quick et al., 1997; Wright & Bonnett, 1993). Additional works found job satisfaction and psychological well-being are predictors of the other (Diener et al., 1999; Judge & Locke, 1993). Job satisfaction and burnout are often associated with one another, so including them in the posited model is acceptable (Baeriswyl et al., 2016). Negative affect comprises the first and second components of PWB. Both experiences and a belief are necessary to evaluate PWB. As job demands increase, the individual's PWB will likely decrease, ceteris paribus. When job demands are high, job resources can buffer their effects to reduce the negative impacts on psychological well-being.

The Adapted Job Demand-Resource Model for COVID-19 Impacted Employees

Source: Demerouti et al. (2001). Model adapted by Author

Fig. 4: Hypothesis 12 Testing for the Association Between Psychological Well-Being and Turnover Intentions

Burnout

Burnout, first identified by Freudenberger (1974), defined burnout as a state of mental-physical exhaustion created by the individual's work, thus decreasing motivation. Burnout is a slow process (Leiter & Maslach, 2006). Maslach et al. (2003) describe burnout as a fire that runs out of fuel. The smoldering fire is like an employee who runs out of energy to perform in the workplace. Burnout is a commonly studied outcome variable compared to job resources, job demands, and organizational outcomes (Bakker et al., 2004).

There are over 6,000 studies on job burnout; Maslach's (2001) dimensional model is considered the most influential and well-understood (Schaufeli et al., 2009). This model describes three elements of burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and diminished personal accomplishments (1982). Emotional exhaustion comprises feeling overwhelmed and the actual loss of emotional and physical resources to counteract the feeling (Maslach et al., 2001). Emotional exhaustion is the foundation of job burnout and is often the most expressed feeling towards job motivation loss (Schaufeli et al., 2009). When psychological well-being improves, burnout rates decline, and the desire to quit improves. Burnout left uncorrected leads to poor job performance and an increased desire to quit (Al-Badarneh et al., 2019).

Job Dissatisfaction

Job dissatisfaction and burnout are two of the most widely used variables for psychological well-being in work studies (Baeriswyl et al., 2016). Burnout has already

been discussed. However, job dissatisfaction is a negative emotional experience that a person receives from their work (Dormann & Zapf, 2001). Job satisfaction, alternatively, occurs when the individual enjoys the type of work they do (holistic) or where the employee enjoyed their day's tasks (specific) (Ironson et al., 1989). Employees are likely experiencing less connection with their colleagues, increased strain from work-family conflict, and increased demands to meet performance measures despite difficult circumstances. Examining job dissatisfaction during COVID-19 is necessary and timely.

There are correlated variables that impact job satisfaction, and the posited model explores several known antecedent variables. Social support is a significant predictor of job satisfaction (Locke, 1976). When employees have strong social support from their colleagues and supervisors, their expected job satisfaction will be high. Job satisfaction, however, also has external threats. High WFC can affect an individual's job satisfaction (Marcinkus et al., 2007). When WFC is high, then job satisfaction is expected to decrease. Both job satisfaction and burnout have negative associations with the intention to quit (Fried et al., 2008; Hellman, 1997). Intention to quit negatively impacts organization goals and performance (Currall et al., 2005). Thus, understanding employee job dissatisfaction to turnover intentions is essential to improving future organizational performance.

Negative Affect

Subjective well-being is composed of two constructs: positive and negative affect (Diener, 1984). Affect should not be misunderstood as emotions and moods. Emotions and moods are discrete, non-targeted elements of the individual's mental state.

Moreover, affects are subjective feelings that change based on the circumstance (Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008). The influence of one employee's negative affect on a team or organization can severely affect the likelihood of an organization meeting its goals (Michel et al., 2016). Basch and Fisher state workplace circumstances are any events that "stimulate appraisal of and an emotional reaction" to the employee (2000, p. 37).

Both intensity and duration significantly impact employees' negative affect (Gray & Watson, 2000). The effects may be positive or negative, and if they are negative, then there may be a higher likelihood of employee departure. During COVID, employees may have differing viewpoints on how the organization is responding to meet the demands brought on by COVID. If employees don't feel their needs are being cared for, they may exit the organization. During the great resignation, the availability of news jobs is not a significant concern for most individuals (Horn, 2021).

Affect differs from job satisfaction, as the emotional and cognitive beliefs can be different from the actual work performed (Weiss, 2002). Employees can enjoy the type of work they do (job satisfaction) but not necessarily enjoy the people they work for (negative affect). This uneven balance contributes significantly to the harmful effects of employee psychological well-being. Management has a significant influence - both positively and negatively - on their employee's attitudes, psychological well-being, and behavior (Michel et al., 2016). Unfortunately, managers may not take accountability for their actions, and this affects their employees. Accordingly, these factors inform Hypothesis Twelve below:

- *Hypothesis 12: Burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction (poor psychological well-being) will be positively associated with turnover intentions.*

Employee Intention to Quit/Turnover

Unemployment rates in April 2020 were 14.7%, the highest ever recorded (Falk et al., 2020), unemployment levels only fell below 5% in August 2021 (BLS, 2021). The impact on industries varied. For instance, the hospitality and leisure industry's unemployment rate was 39.3%, while service industries experienced growth (Falk et al., 2020). Employees are experiencing the stress of COVID-19, and the amplification of social injustice appears to be widening. Black workers (16.7% unemployed) and young women (36.6% unemployed) are some of the most severely impacted employee layoffs brought on by COVID-19 (Falk et al., 2020). The reason may be caused by burnout, decreasing levels of psychological well-being, and excessive job demands (Mobley, 1982; Schaufeli et al., 2009; Williams & MacDermid, 1994).

To capture the intention to quit variable requires an examination of the resignation process. The employee resignation process often includes a three-stage approach: the formulation stage, an announcement stage, and a notice stage (Klotz & Bolino, 2016). The formulation stage is when employees begin thinking and deciding about whether to leave an organization. This stage is captured in this posited model by exploring whether the employee has thought of leaving their organization. The second stage is the announcement stage, where the employee begins communicating with others their intention to quit. The final step is when the employee tenders their resignation or directly speaks with their employer about leaving.

An employee's decision to quit (cognitive acceptance) is directly related to their actual departure from an organization (physical withdrawal), and the period between deciding to quit versus leaving an organization varies (Klotz & Bolino, 2016; Lee & Mitchell, 1994). When employees finally do leave an organization, their departure produces a financial loss to the company. The company may need to rehire, train, or bear the consequential loss of a vacancy. But there is also the impact on the remaining employee's psycho-social state. Employees naturally develop bonds with one another. When a colleague leaves an organization, a rupture in the remaining employee's mental and emotional state could occur. This may leave the remaining employees' questioning their decision to stay with an organization (Klotz & Bolino, 2016).

Age and loyalty may not be enough to retain employees going forward. As Rubenstein et al. (2018) observe, if older employees are likely to quit, so are the younger employees. Job resources should improve employee retention. But to date, there are no linkages between turnover intentions and benefits. (Sarfraz et al., 2018; Williams & MacDermid, 1994). As a result of COVID-19, employees are quitting, and why they are leaving may be unique to COVID.

Moderated Mediation

This study proposes that job demands lead to poor psychological well-being and, in turn, increased turnover intentions. When job demands are high, the individual's ability to manage the stress and subsequent effects of psychological well-being is significantly influenced by the extent to which job resources are available. When job resources are high, the negative impact of job demands on psychological well-being will

be buffered, and thus, the desire to quit will be reduced. Still, the indirect effects of job demands on turnover intentions via psychological well-being become stronger when job resources are low. Overall, this indirect effect is more substantial when job resources are scarcer and is weaker when job resources are higher. This suggests the presence of moderated mediation (Preacher et al., 2007), meaning that job resources may enhance the indirect effects of job demands on turnover intentions via psychological well-being. To illustrate, if job resources are high, job demand's indirect effects on turnover intentions via poor psychological well-being will be weaker since employees can better cope with job stress. Accordingly, these factors inform Hypothesis Thirteen below:

- *Hypothesis 13: The indirect effect of job demands on turnover intentions via burnout, job dissatisfaction, and negative affect is moderated by job resources, such that the indirect effect is stronger when employees perceive lower job resources and weaker when they perceive higher job resources.*

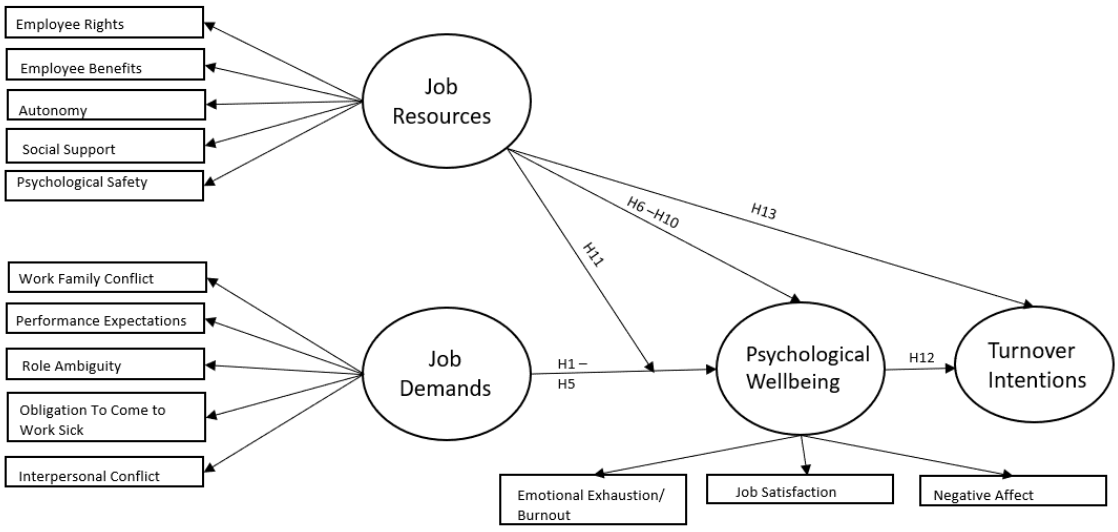


Fig. 5: The Adapted Job Demand-Resource Model for COVID-19 Impacted Employees

Source: Demerouti et al. (2001) Model Adapted by Author

Figure five above represents the posted model for testing the thirteen stated hypotheses. The original JD-R Model pathway included a path from job demands to strain and from job resources to motivation. These two paths were not explored in the posited model, as the component pathways may not explain the reality of job resources' influence on the entire model. This model adaptation is unique and may offer valuable insights into the causes of employee turnover.

This chapter discussed the classical management theories leading up to the creation of the Job Demand Resource Model. The Job Demand Resource Model was introduced, and a detailed examination of job demands, and job resources ensued. Then thirteen hypotheses were presented with operational definitions, justifications for inclusion in the posited model, and expected outcomes. The following chapter will outline this study’s methodological processes, survey design, and research analysis.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter explores this study's ontological and epistemological rationale by examining the research design, data collection, and analysis methods. Each study component should contribute to "a systematic investigation to find answers to problems" (Burns, 2000; McAleavy, 2016, p.109). Without such endeavors, science would never progress. Examining any research question with rigor and relevance requires an established framework. This study uses an online survey method to explore the present realities of the work conditions during COVID-19 and builds upon a previous Department of Labor (2020) qualitative study.

Previous Department of Labor (DOL) Qualitative Study

This study extends a previous Department of Labor qualitative study that examined citizens' concerns about returning to work during COVID-19 (DOL, 2020). This data set offered rich and descriptive text as participants were free to answer or not to answer on the hosted internet platform. Moreover, the questions were simple; for example, "Please share your ideas about what employers and workers can do to reopen

America's workplaces safely." The 287 responses were subjected to content analysis to identify codes, categories, and common themes for worker concerns (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). These findings informed this study by identifying common elements for future examination: these include:

- *Job Resources* included employee rights, job security, safety, benefits, and empowerment
- *Job Demands* included family conflict, role conflict, and obligation to come to work

The previous study has several limitations, which include: no opportunities to follow up with respondents, individuals who lacked access to technology are not included in the study, there is no way to identify demographics of respondents, and the diversity of industries is unknown, even though childcare operators were identified throughout the responses. These themes and limitations shaped the rationale and structure of this study.

Quantitative Methodology

Every well-constructed research design envisions the intended end (Hammond & Wellington, n.d.). The research design facilitates exploring a topic, forming research questions for data collection and analysis. Research design includes exploratory, descriptive, and hypothesis testing (Thomas, 2010). Hypothesis testing seeks to explain the influence of a dependent variable on other examinable variables. Accordingly, this study utilized hypothesis testing to examine how dependent variables influence one or more variables, either directly or indirectly. Studies that use hypothesis testing examine

cluster relationships, independent variables, and two or more variables (Bell & Bryman, 2019).

This study is informed by previous inductive qualitative research; therefore, an online survey method was selected to test the thirteen prescribed hypotheses. Survey research has proven reliable and accurate over the last 50-years (Zikmund et al., 2012) and is beneficial for examining management topics (Bell & Bryman, 2019). Couper (2017) argues that survey research allows a direct and systematic approach for simultaneously analyzing multiple variables. It is an efficient tool for measuring perceptions and experiences when secondary data is unavailable (Sureshchandar et al., 2001). Moreover, survey research is relatively inexpensive, simplistic, and can be deployed rapidly, anonymized, and allows for participant-researcher biases to be minimized (Bailey, 1978; Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Ganster et al., 1983).

Procedures

Qualtrics, a private company that recruits, selects, distributes, and compensates participants, assisted in deploying the survey to a convenience sampled population. This approach is an established and valuable option to disseminate surveys to a broader audience than what may be available to the researcher. All sampled participants were presented with a voluntary consent form and a disclosed personal risk statement per Oklahoma State University's Institutional Review Board ethical guidelines. Generally, survey sizes should be above 300 participants to ensure adequacy. Tabachnick & Fidell (1996) state a general rule of thumb is 300 cases for factor analysis or 50 participants per

factor. This study completed responses are 621, well above the necessary threshold for factor analysis. Participation occurred between September 5th thru September 10th, 2021.

Development of Research Instruments

Several controls were used to minimize systematic error and control spurious correlations, as these can negatively influence the reliability and dependability of this study. Harvill (1991) argues that survey items must be dependable, reliable, and have internal consistency. Nunnally (1967 p. 206) defines reliability as a repeatable measurement, and "any random influence which tends to make measurement different from occasion to occasion is a source of measurement error." Cronbach's Alpha is a common approach used to measure internal consistency (Cortina, 1993). Alpha levels above .70 are considered acceptable, but higher levels above .80 are preferred, indicating high internal consistency (Nunnally, 1978).

The number of items measured is critical for determining acceptable Alpha limits (Cortina, 1993). Each item included in the scale was correlated against the sum of the items. Any item that poorly correlated to the other items was removed, indicating the item is measuring some other construct. Examining the correlations between items will help determine the number of items to include during the scale development.

A scale must also ensure validity by ensuring the "variable is the underlying cause of item covariation" (DeVellis, 2017, p. 83). Validity has three components: content-validity, criterion-related validity, and construct validity (DeVellis, 2017). Criterion-related validity was discussed within the survey distribution method section. This

section, therefore, focuses on the two other major forms of validity: Content Validity and Construct Validity. Content validity is controlled by sampling size, and as stated earlier, this study exceeded the recommended 300 respondents to ensure an adequate sample size. Content validity also ensures the scale development is consistent with the study's conceptual definitions. Accordingly, some scales were intentionally altered to ensure the scale measurement is consistent with the phenomenon under investigation (DeVellis, 2017).

Construct Validity is not of great concern in this study, as established scales are utilized, except for *Employee Rights*. The *Employee Rights* scale will require additional analysis to ensure Construct Validity is met. Construct Validity "is directly concerned with the theoretical relationship of a variable" (DeVellis, 2017, p.95). In other words, does the item behave the way it ought to behave? The hypothesis predicts how the variables will act; it is yet to be determined whether they behave appropriately. Construct Validity is challenging to measure as the association with the item measurement and true score are unobservable. In this instance, Campbell and Fiske's (1959) Multitrait-Multimethod Matrix test was necessary. This test measured related and unrelated items based on correlations. The results of this test are discussed in the results section of this study.

A high Alpha score does not indicate a homogenous single latent variable for scale development. Additional testing is required when attempting to measure a multidimensional construct. Further testing includes a factor analysis of tested items. An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to measure the dimensionality of a construct. An EFA aims to identify the covariance of any latent variables (Costello & Osborne,

2005). Therefore, not all items should necessarily be considered for inclusion. The EFA functions to condense information, determine construct meaning, and identify which items perform better or worse within the construct (DeVellis, 2017). After conducting an EFA, SPSS can create a new unidimensional variable for testing purposes.

Survey Design

The online survey was facilitated in a convenience sample. Convenience samples are efficient for quickly checking survey functionality and controlling costs (Etikan, 2016). Convenience samples are often homogenous and non-random, so inferences should be avoided with this sampling technique. Before launching the online survey, ten surveys were distributed to targeted participants to check for any continuity issues that may cause technical errors while conducting the study. This step helped identify potential mistakes with the survey tool prior to the online distribution. These results were not included in the final analysis.

The screening criteria were minimal for this study. Since COVID-19 impacted the world continually, it was not necessary to screen participants based on geography or age. Instead, the screening criteria were focused on having and holding a job during COVID-19. The screening criteria questions employed are (1) prior to COVID-19, the participant maintained a full-time job, (2) during COVID-19, the applicant held a full-time job, and (3) the individual must not be an officer of their company or corporation. These three constraints were necessary to ensure job demands could be retrospectively considered, and the individual taking the survey does not have control over job resources.

If possible, analyzing job demands from the United States versus other countries could significantly contribute to the field of organizational management, but to conduct such research requires additional sampling and funding. Comparing groups might provide greater meaning, as indicated from blue-collar versus white-collar jobs. This study will provide the basis for requesting funds for further studies in the future.

The survey design consisted of several controls to minimize respondent bias. These controls ensured the reliability and accuracy of the survey instrument. First, several questions were reverse-scored or reverse-worded to control participant response tendencies (Schriesheim et al., 1991) and agreement (Lindell & Whitney, 2001). Reverse-scored or reversed-worded questions slow the respondent's progression through the survey as respondents have a tendency to read a couple of questions and then infer what is being asked of them (Woods, 2006). Reverse-worded questions are not sufficient for reducing this effect. Woods (2006) also recommends reverse-scoring sections of the survey to increase accuracy from respondents.

The intended completion of this survey was 15-minutes or less as previous works suggest that survey length is directly related to responder's willingness to participate (Festinger & Katz, 1965, p. 49), completion rates (Sheatsley, 1983, p. 223), and non-response rates (Anderson et al., 1983). The average completion time for participants was 16 minutes and 31 seconds. Bernstein (1971) warns that survey language can negatively influence scoring, specifically amongst blue-collar workers. To say it plainly, the survey needs to be short-and-sweet to promote higher response rates and accurate reporting.

Cox (1980) found that survey responses should be odd-number based versus even-number to ensure optimal response ratings. Previous works suggest a 7-point and a 9-point scale are less reliable than a 5-point scale as more options are not necessarily better (Elmore & Beggs, 1975; Jenkins & Taber, 1977; Lissitz & Green, 1975). Accordingly, the posed questions utilized a 5-point Likert Scale design to ensure optimal rating (Jenkins & Taber, 1977; Lissitz & Green, 1975). Five-point Likert Scales are suitable for subject-centered scales as they allow respondents to answer multiple questions to represent a single construct (Cox, 1980.

Measures

The internet survey items can be found in Appendix A. The following paragraphs discuss the rationale for scale item inclusion in the final survey design.

Job Demands***:*** Are the demands - physical, cognitive, and emotional - on employees connected with their role assignment (Bakker et al., 2004)? As such, job demands, including the variables: work-family conflict, performance expectations, role ambiguity, obligation to come to work sick, and interpersonal conflict, are included within the posited model. These primary predictor variables are latent variables used to measure the effect of job demands on well-being.

Work-Family Conflict: Work-Family Conflict (WFC) and Family-to-Work Conflict (FWC) were measured using Netemeyer et al.'s five-item scale (1996). WFC questions

focus on how role responsibilities interfere with family values, such as *"The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life."* Vice versa, FWC targeted questions about how family responsibilities interfere with work performance, such as *"I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home."* Netemeyer et al. (1996) used a 3-sample study to develop and validate the measures. These measures have good reliability, α =.88 for WFC and .86 for FWC, using a five-point Likert Scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). Ten scale items (five items for Work-Family Conflict and five items for Family-Work Conflict) were included in the final survey design.

Performance Expectations: Employee job performance and expected performance are essential components of an organization's efficiency and productivity (Colquitt et al., 2011). Meeting organizational goals requires an employee to understand their role and to be able to achieve the demands of their position. The scale developed by Na-Nan et al. (2018) was adopted to measure this construct to gauge employees' performance beliefs (five scale items). The performance expectation scale consists of three aspects: job quality, job quantity, and job time. Examples of the questions used are: *"I can easily achieve the work output my employer requires of fellow workers"* (job quantity), *"The goals set by my employer are achievable"* (job quality), and *"Tasks are normally completed on time"* (job time).

Role Ambiguity*:* This leads to organizational inefficiencies since employees often lack understanding on how to perform. So, Rizzo et al. (1970) established a psychometric role ambiguity scale that uses nine items to capture employee feelings, perceptions, and role understanding. This study adopted three of the nine items, based on the scale item usage in other works (Bowling et al., 2017; González-Romá & Lloret, 1998). The three items used reported high internal consistency (above .80). Modifying a scale to exclude items or add items is consistent with other previous works (Van Der Post et al., 1997). An example of an accepted item from the original scale is, *"You know exactly what is expected of you to do your job."* The Role Ambiguity scale uses a five-point Likert Scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree).

Obligation to Come to Work Sick: Four scale items were included in the final survey. This includes questions such as "*There are other employees who can fill in for you while you are sick*" and "*Your employer rewards those who come to work every day, even while sick."* These questions are informed by Moen et al. (2011) and Laukkanen & Bockerman (2009). In Laukkanen & Bockerman (2009), a significant predictor of employees working while sick is whether they must provide a doctor's note to their employer upon return. The Center for Disease Control and the Occupational Safety and Health Administration discouraged employees from obtaining a doctor's note because it inherently increases the risk of transmission to individuals. So measuring how many employers required doctor's notes might be beneficial for future warning communication.

Interpersonal Conflict: Interactions within the workplace's social environment are a significant predictor of conflict (Dierdorff & Ellington, 2008). According to Schieman & Reid (2008), interpersonal conflict correlates with others' responsibility ($r = .74$, $p<.001$). This construct uses perceptions of injustice ("*I am often treated unfairly at work*"), incompetence (*"I feel others are regularly angry or annoyed at me")*, and targeting (*"I believe others gossip or talk about me behind my back at work")* to measure interpersonal conflict. Five of the original eight scale items were used from Schieman & Reid's (2008) scale, based on factor analysis performed by the authors.

Job Resources: Job Resources are the physical, psychological, social, and organizational attributes that can: (a) help achieve work goals; (b) reduce job demands on psychological well-being; and (c) promote employee growth and development (Bakker et al., 2005). In the posited model, job resources include the variables: employee rights, employee benefits, autonomy, social support, innovation, and psychological safety. These predictors variables measure job resources' positive effect on improving psychological well-being.

Employee Rights: No employee rights scale exists to the Author's knowledge. However, a published article titled "*Toward Development of an Employees' Rights Scale"* provided a baseline set of questions to employ in this study (Gorden, 1978). The adapted questions should produce a reliable score to evaluate how employee rights improve participants' psychological well-being.

The scale was validated using Cronbach's alpha and conducting an Exploratory Factor Analysis using maximum likelihood (ML) with ProMax rotations (Costello & Osborne, 2005). Fabrigar et al. (1999) state maximum likelihood ensures the goodness of fit within the "model and permits statistical significance testing of factor loadings and correlations among factors and computation of confidence intervals" (p.277). As Costello & Osborne (2005) clearly state, the ML "gives you the best results, depending on whether your data are normally-distributed" (p.2). The number of rotations can have an over-exaggerated or under-exaggerated effect on the data, thereby skewing the results. The use of the Scree Test is still the best measure of determining the number of factors. Measuring the number of data points 'above the break' indicates the relevant factors to retain. All factor loadings above .30, with few cross-loadings – preferably no cross-loadings, and the culmination of three items or less is best (Costello & Osborne, 2005). Rotation methods alone do not improve the quality of data results. And each rotation method has strengths and weaknesses. This scale uses a Promax rotation. ProMax allows for correlation among factors - which is important for reliability, as discussed earlier - and it does not eliminate information needed for generalization like the Orthogonal rotations do (Osborne et al., 2011). Examples of employee rights questions are: *"performance reviews are conducted in a professional, confidential manner," "employees trust management efforts to protect their privacy," and "I feel confident that my job is protected from layoffs." There are seven employee rights scale items.*

Employee Benefits: Employee benefits should encourage and promote employee retention. They are derived from membership within the organization, provided by the

organization, are discretionary to its management, and can be eliminated at their discretion (see Fig. 4 for additional information). To derive a scale to measure employee benefits is complicated since agreements on what constitutes an employee benefit are ambiguous. However, Balkin and Griffeth (1993) developed a reliable five-factor scale using principal component analysis with varimax rotation. Their scale consists of retirement ($\alpha = .87$), paid time off ($\alpha = .77$), health care ($\alpha = .74$), income continuation ($\alpha = .74$), and other benefits ($\alpha = .67$). This study adopted nine of their original twenty items (scale items with internal consistency of .70 or more were included in our survey design), with slight modifications for clarity.

Autonomy: This is measured by an employee's ability to schedule their work and control their work process. Pierce and Newstrom (1983) developed a five-point scale to examine autonomy. Their measurement measures the freedom of an employee to determine their work schedule; for instance, "*I have significant control over your work schedule."* Their variable demonstrated good reliability, $\alpha = .90$. The work process is measured using three questions from Langfred's (2000) and Golden's (2006) work. Their scales measure the degree of control to the work process, $\alpha = .80$, using a 5-point Likert Scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). Four scale items were used for the survey.

Social Support: Previous works show that social support is associated with reducing work-related stress: burnout (Brown & O'Brien, 1998), job satisfaction (Eisenberger et

al., 1997), and performance (Gerstner & Day, 1997). So, examining social support's role is important in considering job demands impact individual psychological well-being. Using a social support scale, which considers family & friends, coworkers, and supervisors, are necessary. Imagine the employee at the center of all three influences and how these resources can assist the individual with job strain is high. The adopted scale by Baruch-Feldman et al. (2002) utilizes the three external influences - family friends (α = .91), coworker (α = .87, and supervisor (α = .91) - to examine overall social support with good internal consistency (α = .86). Three scale items were used in the final survey.

Psychological Safety*:* Innovation needs to thrive within an organization (Clark, 2020). Without psychological safety, organizations will be less inclusive, and the willingness to share information becomes more restrictive (Edmondson, 1999). To improve inclusion and innovation, organizations should focus on enhancing an individual's psychological safety. To do so requires improving trust within groups (Newman et al., 2017). To measure this variable requires both individual and group level analysis. Accordingly, five individual items and four group items were used to measure psychological safety as previous studies using the same question with good reliability (Edmondson, 1999; Edmondson & Woolley, 2003).

Psychological Well-being: Psychological Well-being consists of three components: burnout, job satisfaction, and negative affect. All three components are weighed individually, but collectively they form this model's psychological well-being construct.

Burnout: Maslach (1982) originally designed the Burnout Scale with twenty-four items suggested. Rutherford et al. (2011) reduced the scale's dimensions from 24 to 10 items. Rutherford et al.'s (2011) scale decreased the survey size, though survey length is not a predictor of response rates and survey quality (Beebe et al., 2010). Rutherford et al.'s (2011) scale is reliable and valid (χ^2 = 109, df=32, CFI =0.97) and can help reduce response fatigue and acquiescence bias. However, another study used Rutherford's scale and reduced it to five times (Mansour & Tremblay, 2018). Mansour & Tremblay's five-item scale was included in the survey. Their scale dimensions include emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishments. The scale, therefore, utilizes I-statements like "*I feel emotionally drained from my work"* (Mansour & Tremblay, 2018).

Job Dissatisfaction: This is determined by taking Macdonald and MacIntyre's (1997) inverse and generic job satisfaction scale. The initial scale development started with 44 items, and by using factor analysis, they reduced the items to six. Cronbach's Alpha is 0.77. There is no statistical difference between males and females among the six major occupational groups: managerial, administrative, professional occupations; clerical and related occupations; sales; service, processing, machining, product fabrication, construction, transport & equipment. Macdonald and MacIntyre's (1997) scale is appropriate for dangerous professions, job security, and employee control overwork.

Negative Affect: This is a temporal state of unpleasantness, distress, and averse mood conditions (Peeters et al., 1995). The mood states can include anger, contempt, disgust, guilt, fear, and nervousness (Watson & Clark, 1988). To analyze the psychological well-being of an individual, it is vital to understand their mood conditions. For this reason, Watson & Clark (1988) was incorporated within this study as they focus on both positive and negative affect. For this study, only the negative affect scale is used. This scale consists of ten items and asks the respondents to quantify their conditions based on time. For instance, the 5-point Likert Scale uses "All of the time, Most of the Time, Some of the Time, A Little of the Time, and None of the Time." The Negative Affect Scale is reliable, with an Alpha of 0.91.

Turnover Intentions: These are a more reliable predictor than actual turnover because turnover is problematic and not readily discernible (Bluedorn, 1982). Like the other variables discussed, turnover attributes are multi-dimensional, composing thinking of quitting, intention to search, and intention to quit (Dwivedi, 2015). Dwivedi constructed a turnover intention scale, based on the works of others, and his scale is most appropriate for the posited model (Jacobs & Roodt, 2008; Kelloway et al., 1999; Nissly et al., 2005; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Vandeberghe et al., 2002). Dwivedi's turnover intention scale reliability is 0.87. The three-item scale was slightly adapted to achieve clarity for the respondent.

Control Measures: Additional demographic questions are necessary to control any spurious relationships. These additional control measures will include blue-collar versus white-collar, gender, educational attainment levels, age, and income. Further analysis can be performed with these demographic control measures to determine whether meaningful differences exist between subgroups.

Analysis Methods

After data collection, the data analysis will occur in a three-step process. The first step is to examine the participants' characteristics and descriptive statistics. Before analysis, the means, standard deviations, and minimum and maximum values should all be considered. The most effective way to perform this check is with a statistical software program such as Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) 26, which helps organize and sort the collated data. SPSS allows the data to be uniformly coded and easily manipulated for analysis purposes; moreover, the software can handle advanced statistical analysis.

Data can be structured or unstructured; without structure, data provides little, if any, meaning. SPSS provides a framework in which unstructured data can be uniformly structured, except when data is missing. Missing data is inherent in surveys and must be managed somehow (Anderson et al., 1983; Brick & Kalton, 1996). Hair et al. (2010) argue that some missing data is ignorable while others are not, e.g., intentionally choosing not to answer. Managing missing data is often left to the researcher. An

effective technique is to exclude the missing data cases, which should only be done if there are a few missing cases (Anderson et al., 1983).

The researcher can estimate the missing data; however, it is necessary to establish expertise in the field, which was not possible within this study (Mertler & Reinhart, 2017). Furthermore, the researcher can calculate the mean value and replace the missing data with the mean, as this will not influence the overall score. A regression approach, where the missing data becomes the DV and the predictors are the IV, can also be used. This approach has a substantial objective value, but it may not be reliable when using new predictor variables. The missing data was minimized in this study, as participants were compensated for the completed surveys.

The second step is to establish and test the measurements using a series of exploratory factor analyses explained in the *Development of Research Instruments* and *Measurements: Employee Rights* sections. After reliability is verified and measurements validated, the third step can occur. Multiple regression analyses were performed to test hypotheses 1 through 11 & 13 as "the purpose of regression analysis is to estimate the parameters of dependency, not an interdependency relationship" (Donald & Glauber, 1967, p. 93). Please note that interdependency was not problematic: multicollinearity indicates poor research design, and it is a danger to the overall reliability of the survey. All variables were mean-centered to control for multicollinearity effects (Ahearne et al., 2005).

Hypothesis 11 and 13 require PROCESS to test the mediating effect on the x and y variables (Preacher & Hayes, 2004, 2008). PROCESS is a powerful tool to test for

mediation while also testing for indirect effects via rigorous bootstrapping procedures. This technique is preferred over other techniques because of the high reliability and sufficient controls of Type-1 error ratings (K.J. Preacher & Hayes, 2008). This test measures the indirect effects on median bias and skewness by determining the 95% corrected confidence intervals. The test is considered statistically significant if there are no zeros reported in the confidence intervals.

In summary, the goal of any research project is to extend our understanding of the subject under examination. This project utilizes an interpretive approach; though it may resemble post-positivism elements, it is different because of the existing qualitative project undertaken during the early phase of COVID-19. Truth is relevant to the individual's social conditions; therefore, COVID-19 experiences are different for everyone (Bell & Bryman, 2019). Using a developed survey to gather additional information, the researcher aims to explore the range of conditions in which individuals utilize their job resources to mitigate or reduce the strain on job demand leading to poor psychological well-being and ultimately to their likelihood of quitting. The next chapter will discuss the analysis and results of the quantitative testing.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter explores the results of the tested hypothesis. Data processing steps are presented first, followed by descriptive statistics. The third process discussed is an exploratory factor analysis to combine the job demands and job resource constructs. Analytical procedures used to test the hypothesis are presented, and finally, a consolidated chart presents the overall findings of the research hypothesis.

Missing Data Analysis

The online survey platform required a response before moving forward to ensure that missing data did not interfere with the results. This aided in completion as there was no missing data. So, no additional analysis was required for missing data (Brick & Kalton, 1996).

Data Preparation

Before completing data analysis, an evaluation of normality was necessary (Hopkins & Weeks, 1990). Histograms and Q-Q plots were examined for visual

confirmation of normality. Also, scale items were inspected for skewness and kurtosis (acceptable values are between – 2.00 to 2.00)(D. George & Mallery, 2010). Intention to Quit has a skewness of .28 and a kurtosis of -1.15. Since skewness is within the normal distribution, no treatment was necessary. Please note with kurtosis below - 1.00, the distribution is expected to be flatter than a normal distribution, platykurtic. This means the results are less extreme, with fewer expected outliers in the fringes (Hopkins & Weeks, 1990).

Demographic

Table one presents the demographic statistics for all respondents. The average age of respondents is 38.31, with a standard deviation of 10.8. There is a near equal representation of men versus women (51% to 47.8%) and blue-collar versus white-collar employees (50% to 49%).

Table 1: Respondent Demographics (n = 621)

Variable	Description	Mean	Percentage
Age		38.31	
	St. Deviation	10.8	
Gender			
	Male	317	51.00
	Female	297	47.80
	Non-Binary	5	0.80
	Transgender	1	0.20
	Prefer Not To Answer	1	0.20
Type of Work			
	White Collar	309	49.90
	Blue Collar	310	50.10
Married			
	No	317	51.00
	Yes	295	47.50
	Prefer Not to Answer	9	1.40
Veteran			
	Yes	22	3.50
	No	595	95.80

	Prefer Not to Answer	4	0.60
Household Income			
	Less than $25,000	54	8.70
	$26,000 to $49,000	171	27.50
	$50,000 to $74,000	140	22.50
	$75,000 to $150,000	197	31.70
	Greater than $150,000	42	6.80
	Prefer Not to Answer	17	2.70
Race/Ethnicity			
	White	450	72.50
	Black or African American	71	11.40
	American Indian or Alaskan Native	2	0.30
	Asian	60	9.70
	Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	2	0.30
	Other	28	4.50
	Prefer Not to Answer	8	1.30
Hispanic			
	No	528	85.00
	Yes	87	14.00
	Prefer Not to Answer	6	1.00
Education Level			
	Some High School	8	1.30
	High School or GED	204	32.90
	2-yr associate degree	103	16.60
	4-yr bachelor's degree	213	34.30
	Master's degree	74	11.90
	Doctorate	12	1.90
	Prefer Not to Answer	7	1.10

Fifty-one percent of respondents report being married. Only 3.5 percent of respondents identify as veterans, which is lower than the seven percent U.S. Census data. At least 8.7 percent of respondents fall below the household of 4 poverty line ($26,500)—roughly 66-percent of respondents identified as having some education beyond a high school degree. The demographic statistics are similar to the U.S. general population. No additional sampling or controls are necessary for inferences based on demographic information.

Descriptive Statistics

The table below provides the descriptive statistics of each employed job demand with the internal consistency measurement (Alpha). The job demands construct consists of 5 latent variables; (1) work-family conflict (10 scale items); (2) performance expectations (5 scale items); (3) role ambiguity (3 scale items); (4) obligation to come to work sick (4 scale items); (5) interpersonal conflict (5 scale items).

Table 2: Correlation table of Job Demands with Mean, Standard Deviation, and Alpha Reported

Variable	M	S.D.	α	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Intention to Quit	2.62	1.32	.79	-												
2. Burnout	2.82	.88	.73	.45**	-											
3. Job Dissatisfaction	2.39	.87	.84	.55**	.44**	-										
4. Negative Affect	2.04	.95	.92	.40**	.60**	.45**	-									
5. Work-Family Conflict	2.37	.92	.91	.29**	.55**	.21**	.52**	-								
6. Performance Expectations	1.72	.72	.78	.51**	.52**	.61**	.61**	.53**	-							
7. Role Ambiguity	2.29	.94	.78	.36**	.32**	.53**	.34**	.19**	.71**	-						
8. Obligation to Come to Work Sick	2.67	1.16	.75	.10*	.31**	.07	.31**	.47**	.26**	.08*	-					
9. Interpersonal Conflict	2.29	.96	.83	.36**	.57**	.36**	.60**	.66**	.64**	.34**	.40**	-				
10. Age	38.31	10.85	-	-.05	-.12**	.02	-.12**	-.15**	-.05	.02	-.11**	-.03	-			
11. Gender	1.51	.54	-	-.06	-.01	-.01	.03	-.04	-.18*	-.07	.02	-.04	-.11**	-		
12. Blue-Collar	1.50	.50	-	-.02	.00	.02	-.02	0.00	.06	-.06	.08	-.05	.02	-.15**	-	
13. Generation	2.37	.70	-	-.07	-.10*	.04	-.09*	-.15**	-.03	.03	-.12**	-.04	.91**	-.09*	0.01	-

Note: N = 621

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

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The Cronbach's Alpha estimates are between .748 and .908 for each job demands latent variable, which signifies good internal consistency. The job demands items included in the questionnaire are thus reliable and are measuring the intended construct.

Hypothesis 1 thru 5 propose job demands (work-family conflict, performance expectations, role ambiguity, obligation to come to work sick, and interpersonal conflict)

will be positively associated with burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction (poor psychological well-being). Work-family conflict ($r = .55$, $p < .001$), performance expectations ($r = .52$, $p < .001$), role ambiguity ($r = .32$, $p < .001$), obligation to come to work sick ($r = .31$, $p < .05$), and interpersonal conflict ($r = .57$, $p < .001$) each have positive and significant correlations with burnout.

Work family conflict ($r = .21$, $p < .001$), performance expectations ($r = .61$, $p < .001$), role ambiguity ($r = .53$, $p < .001$), and interpersonal conflict ($r = .36$, $p < .001$) also have positive and significant correlations with job dissatisfaction. Obligation to come to work sick is not statistically significant when compared to job dissatisfaction. Finally, work family conflict ($r = .52$, $p < .001$), performance expectations ($r = .61$, $p < .001$), role ambiguity ($r = .34$, $p < .001$), obligation to come to work sick ($r = .31$, $p < .001$), and interpersonal conflict ($r = .60$, $p < .001$) are all significantly and positively associated with negative affect.

Multiple linear regression was performed to test job demands' main (direct) effects on psychological well-being (hypothesis 1-5). Each component of job demands (work-family conflict, performance expectations, role ambiguity, obligation to come to work sick, and interpersonal conflict) must be tested against each psychological well-being variable (burnout, job dissatisfaction, and negative affect) to identify significant predictors. Table 4 displays the results of the multiple regression analysis for job demands on burnout.

Table 3

Regression Results for Hypothesis 1-5.

Independent Variables:	Dependent Variable: Burnout			
	β	Total R^2	Adj R^2	F
Work-Family Conflict	.282***			
Performance Expectations	.067			
Role Ambiguity	.114**			
Obligation to Come to Work Sick	.025			
Interpersonal Conflict	.267***			
		.396	.392	80.810***

Note. N=621; B= Unstandardized Coefficients;

*p<.05

**p<.01

***p<.001

As displayed in table three, the five predictor variables account for 40% of the variance in the dependent variable, burnout (Adj. R^2 = .392, F (5,615) = 80.81, P<.001). The direct effects of work-family conflict (β = .282, p<.001), role ambiguity (β = .114, p<.01), and interpersonal conflict (β = .267, p<.001) is statistically significant and positive on burnout, supporting H1, H3, and H5. Performance expectation and obligation to come to work sick are not statistically significant. Performance expectations and obligation to come to work sick do not support H2 or H4.

Table 4

Regression Results for Hypothesis 1-5.

Independent Variables:	Dependent Variable: Job Dissatisfaction			
	β	Total R^2	Adj R^2	F
Work-Family Conflict	-.059			
Performance Expectations	.363***			
Role Ambiguity	.266***			
Obligation to Come to Work Sick	-.039			
Interpersonal Conflict	.169***			
		.361	.356	69.461***

Note. N=621; B= Unstandardized Coefficients;

*p<.05

**p<.01

***p<.001

Table four (above) displays the results of the multiple regression analysis on job dissatisfaction. The five predictors account for 36% of the total variance when the dependent variable is job dissatisfaction (Adj. R^2 = .356, F (5,615) = 69.46, P<.001). The direct effects of performance expectations (β = .363, p<.001), role ambiguity (β = .266, p<.001), and interpersonal conflict (β = .169, p<.001) is statistically significant. Role ambiguity, performance expectations, and interpersonal conflict are positive, meaning H2, H3, and H5 are supported. H1 and H4 are not statistically significant.

Table five (below) displays the results of the multiple regression analysis with Negative Affect as the dependent variable.

Table 5
Regression Results for Hypothesis 1-5.

Independent Variables:	Dependent Variable: Negative Affect			
	β	Total R^2	Adj R^2	F
Work-Family Conflict	.181***			
Performance Expectations	.252***			
Role Ambiguity	.067			
Obligation to Come to Work Sick	.044			
Interpersonal Conflict	.344***			
		.428	.423	91.913***

Note. N=621; B= Unstandardized Coefficients;

*p<.05

**p<.01

***p<.001

The five predictors account for 43% of the total variance when the dependent variable is negative affect (Adj. R^2 = .423, F (5,615) = 91.91, P<.001). The direct effects of work-family conflict (β = .181, p<.001), performance expectations (β = .252, p<.001),

and interpersonal conflict (β = .344, p<.001) are statistically significant. Work-family conflict, performance expectations, and interpersonal conflict are positive and support H1, H2, and H5. H3 and H4 are not statistically significant.

Table 6: Pearson Correlation Table of Job Resources with Mean, Standard Deviation, and Alpha Scores Reported

Variable	M	S.D.	α	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Intention to Quit	2.62	1.32	.79	-												
2. Burnout	2.82	.88	.73	.45**	-											
3. Job Dissatisfaction	2.39	.87	.84	.55**	.44**	-										
4. Negative Affect	2.04	.95	.92	.40**	.60**	.45**	-									
5. Employee Rights	3.54	.79	.77	-.45**	-.37**	-.73**	-.42**	-								
6. Employee Benefits	3.54	.91	.82	-.41**	-.29**	-.64**	-.28**	.58**	-							
7. Social Support	3.61	1.07	.84	-.29**	-.25**	-.42**	-.21**	.45**	.30**	-						
8. Autonomy	3.56	.966	**.46**	-.20**	-.25**	-.40**	-.23	.44**	.30**	.29**	-					
9. Psychological Safety	3.51	.83	.70	-.37**	-.32**	-.68**	-.34**	.74**	.56**	.45**	.43**	-				
10. Age	38.31	10.85	-	-.05	-.12**	.02	-.12**	-.09*	-.05	-.02	.00	-.08*	-			
11. Gender	1.51	.54	-	-.06	-.01	-.01	.03	.03	.02	.08*	.05	.01	-.11**	-		
12. Blue-Collar	1.50	.50	-	-.02	.00	.02	-.02	.01	-.09*	.04	-.16**	-.05	.02	-.15**	-	
13. Generation	2.37	.70	-	-.07	-.10*	.04	-.09*	-.72	-.05	-.02	.00	-.07	.91**	-.09*	0.01	-

Note: N = 621

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

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table six above displays the descriptions and correlations of Job Resources on the outcome variables. The job resources construct consists of five latent variables; (1) employee rights (7 item scale); (2) employee benefits (5 item scale); (3) social support (3 item scale); (4) autonomy (3 item scale); and psychological safety (6 item scale).

The Cronbach's Alphas for job resources are good with the exception autonomy ($\alpha = .46$). Autonomy's low Alpha score indicates poor reliability and construct validity, and therefore is excluded from the analysis. Hypothesis 6 thru 10 posit job resources (employee rights, employee benefits, social support, autonomy, and psychological safety) are negatively associated with burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction (poor psychological well-being). Employee rights ($r = -.37$, $p < .001$), employee benefits ($r = -.29$, $p < .001$), social support ($r = -.25$, $p < .001$), and psychological safety ($r = -.32$, $p < .001$) all have negative and significant relationships with burnout. Employee rights ($r = -.73$, $p < .001$), employee benefits ($r = -.64$, $p < .001$), social support ($r = -.42$, $p < .001$), and psychological safety ($r = -.68$, $p < .001$) also have negative and significant correlations with job dissatisfaction. Moreover, employee rights ($r = -.42$, $p < .001$), employee benefits ($r = -.28$, $p < .001$), social support ($r = -.21$, $p < .001$), and psychological safety ($r = -.34$, $p < .001$) produce negative and significant correlations with negative affect.

Pearson *r* coefficient measures the linear relationships of job demands and job resources on the outcome variables (burnout, negative affect, job dissatisfaction, and intention to quit). With many Pearson's *r* coefficients among the independent variables being relatively high (above .60), multicollinearity may be an issue in regression analysis with this dataset. Thus, Bartlett's test of sphericity is necessary to measure the effect of correlations on diagonal and off-diagonal. This determines whether the variables are related or unrelated. Bartlett's test of sphericity reports $\chi^2_{(351)} = 7908.27$, $p < .001$. This statistically significant result indicates the variables are correlated and reducing the variables into a single construct. Thus, exploratory factor analysis is appropriate and warranted for hypothesis testing. However, before continuing to an EFA, multiple

regression analysis will need to be performed to test the dependent variables' job resource predictors (burnout, job dissatisfaction, and negative affect).

Hypothesis six thru ten tests the direct effects of employee resources (employee rights, employee benefits, autonomy, social support, and psychological safety on psychological well-being (burnout, job dissatisfaction, and negative affect). Table seven (below) reports the findings of the multiple regression analysis on burnout.

Table 7
Regression Results for Hypothesis 6-10.

Independent Variables:	Dependent Variable: Burnout			
	β	Total R^2	Adj R^2	F
Employee Rights	-.248***			
Employee Benefits	-.088*			
Autonomy	-.078*			
Social Support	-.074*			
Psychological Safety	-.025			
		.161	.154	23.537***

Note. N=621; B= Unstandardized Coefficients;

*p<.05

**p<.01

***p<.001

The five predictors account for 16% of the total variance when the dependent variable is burnout (Adj. R^2 = .154, F (5,615) = 23.537, P<.001). The direct effects of employee rights (β = -.248, p<.001), employee benefits (β = -.088, p<.05), autonomy (β = -.078, p<.05), and social support (β = .074, p<.05) are statistically significant. Employee rights, employee benefits, autonomy, and social support are statistically significant and support H6, H7, H8, and H9. H10 is not supported, as psychological safety was not statistically significant.

Table 8

Regression Results for Hypothesis 6-10.

Independent Variables:	Dependent Variable: Job Dissatisfaction			
	β	Total R^2	Adj R^2	F
Employee Rights	-.422***			
Employee Benefits	-.267***			
Autonomy	-.040			
Social Support	-.053*			
Psychological Safety	-.194***			
		.631	.628	210.63***

Note. N=621; B= Unstandardized Coefficients;

*p<.05

**p<.01

***p<.001

Table eight reports the multiple regression findings of employee resources on job dissatisfaction. The five predictors account for 63% of the total variance when the dependent variable is job dissatisfaction (Adj. R^2 = .628, F (5,615) = 210.63, P<.001). The direct effects of employee rights (β = -.422, p<.001), employee benefits (β = -.267, p<.001), social support (β = -.053, p<.05), and psychological safety (β = -.194, p<.001) are statistically significant. Employee rights, employee benefits, social support, and psychological safety are statistically significant, supporting H6, H7, H9, and H10. H8 is not supported, as autonomy was not statistically significant.

Table 9

Regression Results for Hypothesis 6-10.

Independent Variables:	Dependent Variable: Negative affect			
	β	Total R^2	Adj R^2	F
Employee Rights	-.410***			
Employee Benefits	-.050			
Autonomy	-.049			
Social Support	-.013			
Psychological Safety	-.038			
		.186	.179	28.053***

Note. N=621; B= Unstandardized Coefficients;

*p<.05

**p<.01

***p<.001

Table nine (above) reports the multiple regression findings of employee resources on negative affect. The five predictors account for 18% of the total variance when the dependent variable is negative affect (Adj. R^2 = .186, F (5,615) = 28.053, P<.001). The direct effects of employee rights (β = -.410, p<.001) is statistically significant and supports H6. H7, H8, H9, and H10 are not supported, as employee benefits, autonomy, social support, and psychological safety are not statistically significant.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

An exploratory factor analysis with maximum likelihood option was performed on the following items: work-family conflict; family-work conflict; performance expectations; role ambiguity; obligation to come to work sick; and interpersonal conflict. Twenty-three of the twenty-seven items correlated (.03 or above) with at least one other variable (see Table 10). The original loading used Promax with Kaiser Normalization and suppression of coefficients below .10. The scree plot returned two factors accounting for 44.9% of the variance, with a high correlation between factor 1 and factor 2. A second EFA occurred using Varimax rotation and performing a fixed factor loading of 1 (KMO = .930, p <.001) to control this cross-loading. The fixed factor loading controls for cross-loading and reduces the items to a single final factor – Job Demands. All items below .35 were excluded from the final construct. The selected items account for 45-percent of the total variance. Table 4 displays the coefficients for items included in the

Job Demands construct. The Goodness-of-fit is statistically significant ($\chi^2_{(189)} = 1353.08$, $p < .001$). The items were checked for internal validity ($\alpha = .919$).

Table 10: Exploratory Factor Analysis for Job Demands

EFA: Maximum Likelihood Analysis (Job Demands)	
	Factor
WFC4	0.774
WFC1	0.737
WFC2	0.696
FWC2	0.684
IC2	0.682
FWC1	0.672
FWC5	0.660
WFC3	0.654
IC3	0.651
WFC5	0.651
FWC3	0.639
IC5	0.634
FWC4	0.627
IC1	0.596
IC4	0.534
OCWS1	0.489
PE1	0.451
PE2	0.422
PE3	0.405
OCWS3	0.398
OCWS2	0.390
PE4	0.370
PE5	0.355
RC3	
RC2	
RC1	
OCWS4	

Note: All factors below .35 were deleted from the table. Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood. Rotation Method: Varimax.

Similarly, an EFA was required for establishing the Job Resources variable (employee rights, employee benefits, social support, autonomy, and psychological safety). As previously mentioned, twenty-five items were included in the EFA using the same process. All loadings below .35 were excluded from the final construct, job resources. Table 11 displays the factor loadings of Job Resources (31.7-percent of the total variance). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measurement is .919 ($p < .001$). The goodness-of-fit is statistically significant ($\chi^2_{(252)} = 1752.13$, $p < .001$). The items were finally checked for internal validity ($\alpha = .896$).

Table 11: Exploratory Factor Analysis for Job Resources

EFA: Maximum Likelihood Analysis (Job Resources)	
	Factor
PS5	0.691
ER6	0.669
EB2	0.647
EB3	0.629
ER3	0.628
ER5	0.613
ER4	0.608
EB5	0.597
PS6	0.584
PS2	0.576
EB1	0.547
PS4	0.535
SS3	0.505
SS1	0.499
ER7	0.498
ER1	0.482
SS2	0.46
EB4	0.426
AUT3	0.406
AUT1	0.405
PS1	
AUT4	
PS3	
ER2	
AUT2	

Note: All factors below .35 were deleted from the table. Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood. Rotation Method: Varimax.

Main Hypothesis Testing

To test the direct effects of job demands and job resources on burnout, negative affect, job dissatisfaction (hypothesis 1 thru 12), and turnover intentions (hypothesis 13), PROCESS, version 3.5, and SPSS 26 were used. Each of the models presented was performed using a bootstrapping approach to test for significance at different levels of moderation (Preacher & Hayes, 2004). In the posited models below, job demands are the predictor variable with either burnout, job dissatisfaction, or negative affect as the initial outcome (mediating) variables. The outcome variable was intention to quit. The moderating variable each time is job resources. Figure 8 displays the first tested model using burnout as the mediating variable.

Moderated Mediation Model with Burnout as Mediator

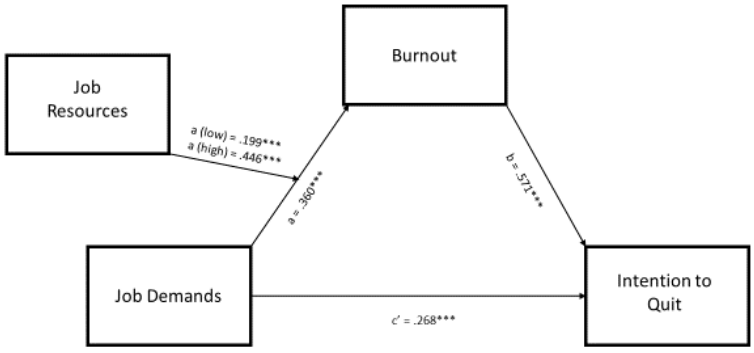


Fig. 6: Burnout Moderated Mediation Mode

The above model (Figure 6) explains 45% of the variance, when burnout is the mediator (Adj. R^2 = .45, F(3) = 165.19, p<.001). Table thirteen displays the conditional effects of job resources on job demands and burnout. Job demands has a positive and significant relationship with burnout (direct effect = .36, SE = .10, t = 3.47, p<.001). Hypothesis 1 thru 5 are supported by this finding.

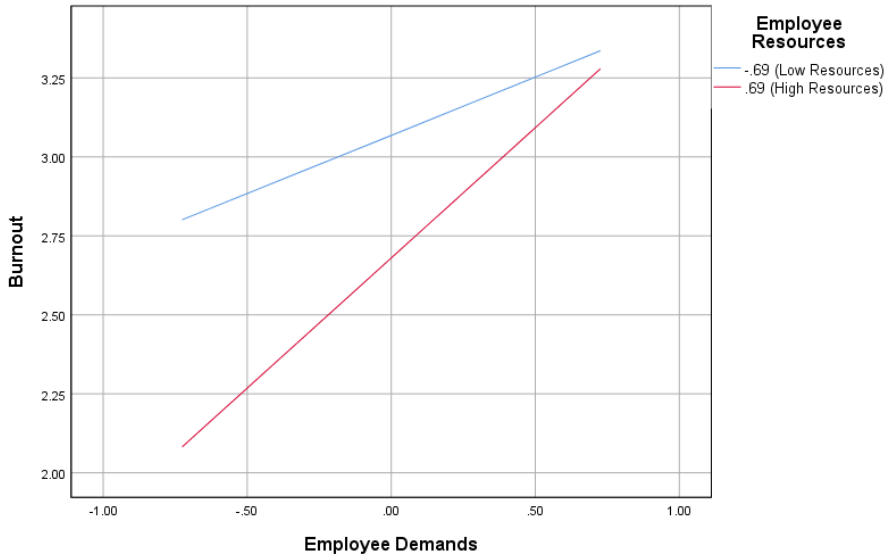
Table 12

Results for Conditional Effects at Values of Job Resources

Independent variable: job demands	Dependent variable: burnout		
Moderator: job resources	β	LLCI	ULCI
Low (- 1SD)	.37(.06)***	.250	.487
Mean	.60(.04)***	.519	.674
High (+ 1 SD)	.82(.05)***	.730	.918

The relationship between job demands and burnout is stronger when job resources are lower (-1 SD below the mean; effect = .37, SE =. 06, 95% CI = .250; .487) and is weaker when job resources are higher (1 SD above the mean; effect = .82, SE = .05, 95% CI .730; .918). To further demonstrate the interaction, I provide simple slopes plots (Figure 7).

Fig. 7: Simple Slope of Moderating Effects



Higher burnout out levels is associated with more likely intentions to quit, β = .57, β se = .07, t = 7.97, p <.001. Overall, the index of moderated mediation is significant (index = 1.79 (95% CI = .11: .26). Since the confidence interval does not cross the zero-threshold, there is a significant moderating effect of job resources on job demands and an indirect effect of burnout. This finding supports hypothesis testing 12.

Table thirteen tests for moderated mediation (hypothesis 6 thru 11). The indirect effect of job demands on turnover intentions via burnout is moderated by job resources. (Unstandardized interaction β = .33, β se = .06, t = 6.05, p <.001The conditional effect was highest with fewer job resources (1 SD below the mean; effect = .20, SE = .04, 95% CI = .12; .29) and lowest with those with greater resources (-1 SD above the mean; effect = 45, SE = .06, 95% CI = .33; .56).

Table 13: Moderated Mediation Results (Burnout and Turnover Intentions Model)

			95% Confidence Interval	
Moderator	*Values*	*Effect*	*Lower*	*Upper*
Job Resources	Low (- 1SD)	.20	.117	.285
	Mean	.32	.236	.411
	High (+ 1 SD)	.45	.333	.562

Index of moderated mediation		95% Confidence Interval	
	Index	*Lower*	*Upper*
	.18	.111	.257

Note: Bias-corrected bootstrapping confidence intervals. Unstandardized estimates are shown.

With high levels of job resources, the effect of job demands on burnout is weakest. Job resources become an essential component of reducing the effect of job demands leading to burnout.

Moderated Mediation Model with Negative Affect as Moderator & Mediator

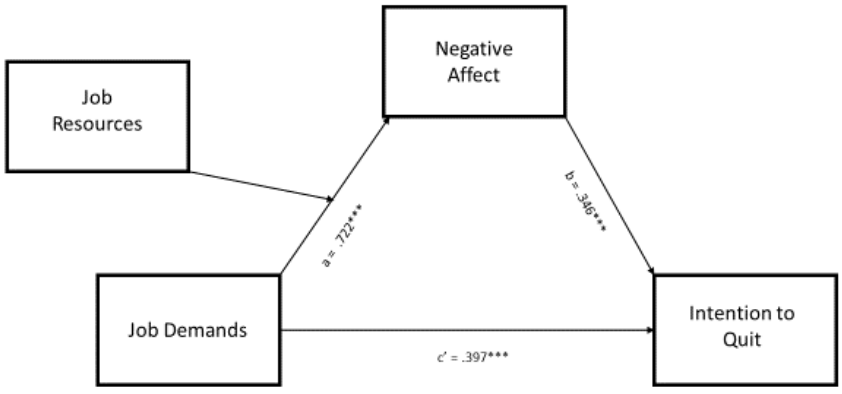


Fig. 8: Negative Affect Moderated Mediation Mode

When negative affect serves as the moderator, 42% of the model can be explained by the variables (Adj. R^2 = .43, F(3) = 154.45, p<.001). Job resources does not moderate the effects of job demands and intention to quit (β = -.06. βse = .06, t =-.95, p = .343). Path α (job demands → negative affect) was statistically significant, and path *b* (negative affects → intention to quit) was statistically significant. Therefore, there is evidence of an indirect effect of job demands and intention to quit through negative affect.

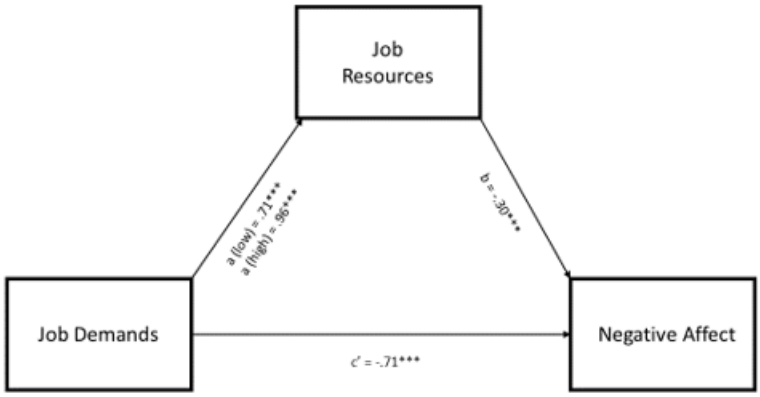


Fig. 9: Job Resources Mediating Job Demands and Negative Affect

Alternative prediction does job resources mediates the effects of job demands and negative affect. To test this requires the use of SPSS & PROCESS model 4. This model (fig. 9) is statistically significant (Adj. R^2 = .11, F(1) = 79.37, p<.001). Job resources mediate the effect of job demands on negative affect). Path α (job demands → job resources) was statistically significant, and path *b* (job resources → negative affect) was statistically significant. Therefore, there is evidence of an indirect effect of job demands and negative affect through job resources. Job resources do not moderate the effect of job demands on negative affect leading to intention to quit, but it does mediate job demands on negative affect.

Moderated Mediation Model with Job Dissatisfaction as Moderator & Mediator

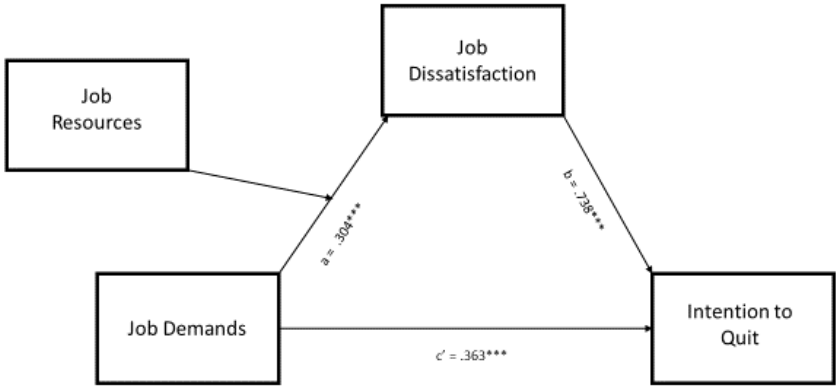


Fig. 10: Job Dissatisfaction Moderated Mediation Model

When job dissatisfaction serves as the moderator (fig. 10), 34% of the model can be explained by the variables (Adj. R^2 = .34, F(2) = 159.79, p<.001). Job resources does not moderate the effects of job demands and intention to quit (β = -.02. βse = .05, t =-.46, p = .649). Path α (job demands → job dissatisfaction) was statistically significant, and path *b* (job dissatisfaction → intention to quit) was statistically significant. Therefore, there is evidence of an indirect effect of job demands and intention to quit through job dissatisfaction.

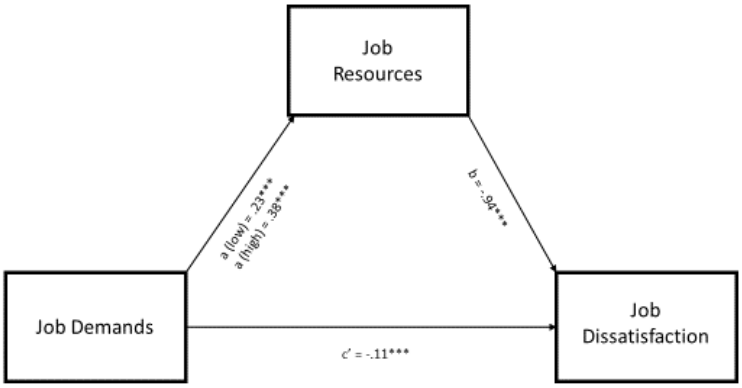


Fig. 11: Job Resources Mediating Job Demands and Job Dissatisfaction

Alternatively, job resources mediate the effects of job demands and job dissatisfaction (See fig. 11). Using PROCESS Model 4 again, the model is statistically significant (Adj. R^2 = .62, F(2) = 493.18, p<.001). Job resources mediate the effect of job demands on job dissatisfaction. Path α (job demands → job resources) was statistically significant, and path *b* (job resources → job dissatisfaction) was statistically significant. Therefore, there is evidence of an indirect effect of job demands and job dissatisfaction through job resources. Job resources do not moderate the effect of job demands on job resources leading to intention to quit, but it does mediate job demands on job dissatisfaction.

Table fourteen below summarizes the hypothesis tests for this study. H1 thru H10 are failed to reject the null hypothesis as job demands positively influence poor psychological well-being, and job resources negatively impact poor psychological well-being. Negative affects on psychological well-being increase the likelihood of intentions

to quit, as tested in H12. Therefore, we fail to reject the null hypothesis in H12. H11A and H13A are statistically significant. H11b, H11c, H13b, and H13c are rejected as the moderated effect is not statistically significant.

Table 14: Summary of Tested Hypotheses

Hypothesis No.	Description	Hypothesized Direction	Actual Direction Burnout	Actual Direction Negative Affect	Actual Direction Job Dissatisfaction
1	Work-Family Conflict will be positively related with burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction.	+	+	*Reject*	+
2	Performance Expectations will be positively related with burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction.	+	*Reject*	+	+
3	Role Ambiguity will be positively related with burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction.	+	+	+	*Reject*
4	Obligation to Come to Work Sick will be positively related with burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction.	+	*Reject*	*Reject*	*Reject*
5	Interpersonal Conflict will be positively related with burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction.	+	+	+	+

6	Employee Rights will be negatively related with burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction.	-	-	-	-
7	Employee Benefits will be negatively related with burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction.	-	-	-	*Reject*
8	Autonomy will be negatively related with burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction.	-	-	*Reject*	*Reject*
9	Social Support will be negatively related with burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction.	-	-	-	*Reject*
10	Psychological Safety will be negatively related with burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction.	-	*Reject*	-	*Reject*
11	Together, Job Resources will moderate the relationships between Job Demands and burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction (poor psychological well-being), such that the relationship is weaker when Job Resources are high	*N/A*	*Supported*	*Reject*	*Reject*

	and stronger when it is low.				
12	Burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction (poor psychological well-being) will be positively associated with turnover intentions.	*+*	*Supported*	*Supported*	*Supported*
13	The indirect effects of job demands on turnover intentions via burnout, job dissatisfaction, and negative affect is moderated by job resources, such that the indirect effect is stronger when employees perceive lower job resources and weaker when they perceive higher job resources.	*N/A*	*Supported*	*Reject*	*Reject*

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This quantitative study examines the role of job resources moderated mediating effect on job demands and psychological well-being leading to the intention-to-quit. Previous studies provided insights, or suggestions, on which employee's job demands influence their psychological well-being or intention to quit (Baruch-feldman et al., 2002; Currall et al., 2005; Evangelia Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli et al., 2009; Sulistiawan, 2018). But now, this study extends our understanding of how job demands positive association with burnout can be reduced by job resources. These components have been examined previously; however, this study presents new information on how job resources buffer the impact of job demands on psychological well-being leading to the intention to quit, thus extending the understanding of the buffering effect of job resources (Bakkar et al. 2005).

Demographic Consideration

Respondent demographics (n=621) did not have a strong influence as earlier believed on intention-to-quit, burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction. When considering the demographic information gathered – age, gender, blue-collar &

generations – only age and generations were statistically significant for burnout and negative affect. This may not be surprising considering job resources transcend generations and job roles. Employers should be encouraged to provide more resources to all types of employees. Job resources are beneficial to all employees regardless of their representations.

Job Demand Findings

Hypothesis 1 examines work-family conflict's positive relationship to burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction. WFC is positively related to burnout and job dissatisfaction. Negative affect was not statistically significant. This finding suggests that as WFC increases, the likelihood of burnout and job dissatisfaction increases. When employees are experiencing difficulties managing their home life, they may have a more significant conflict with their work obligations. Thus, their job satisfaction declines (Sulistiawan, 2018). Family life may be complicated by the cycle of conflict produced between work obligations and family obligations. As work demands increase, family priorities are affected, causing friction with work priorities. This conflict may indicate a greater need for access to employee resources, such as employee assistance programs, flexible work schedules, or childcare accommodations (Odle-Dusseau et al., 2013).

Hypothesis 2 examines the relationship between performance expectations and burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction. Performance expectations were positively associated with negative affect and job dissatisfaction. This finding may indicate that when employees have unclear work expectations, they are more likely to view their work negatively. Employers should consider this with the creation of job

descriptions and responsibilities. Many job descriptions have "other duties as assigned," but realistically, many non-routines tasks may fall under this category. Employers should consider discussing performance expectations with these non-routine or new tasks to align employees' work expectations with everyday realities.

Role ambiguity (H3) positively correlates with burnout and negative affect, but not job dissatisfaction. When employees are unsure of what to expect at work, they begin experiencing higher levels of burnout and negative affect. Role ambiguity may fluctuate during regular times, but higher levels of uncertainty indeed emerge during COVID. Employees were asked to adjust repeatedly to changing environmental circumstances, such as social distancing and testing protocols, supply chain disruptions, and technology concerns. Many times changes occurred without any warning. To combat these changing demands, it is necessary to have open lines of communication, clear expectations on new company policies and procedures, and information sharing (Carnevale & Hatak, 2020; Chattopadhyay, 2021; E. Johnson, 2021).

H4 tests whether the obligation to come to work sick influences burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction. In this test, the commitment to go to work sick had no significant results. This might suggest that during COVID, employers may have expressed more concern to employees to stay home if they are not feeling well.

The final job demand hypothesis (H5) tests interpersonal conflict's association with burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction. All three outcome variables were found to be statistically significant with interpersonal conflict. Interpersonal conflict was the only variable with statistical significance with all outcome predictors. Interpersonal

conflict represents the idea that employees feel valued and are treated fairly. To help improve this condition, companies need to create a sense of belonging, a culture of fairness, and value work contributions. This recommendation is consistent with the recent Harvard Business Review paper, except engagement was included in their study (D. Cohen & Roeske-Zummer, 2021). An engagement scale will be added to the model for testing the relationship between interpersonal conflict and engagement in future studies.

Job Resource Finding

Hypothesis 6 thru 10 examined the associations of job resources on poor psychological well-being. There was no single component of job resources that had a strong association with burnout, but each component consistently reduced the negative effects of burnout. This indicates that the cumulative effect of many job resources aids in reducing poor psychological well-being. This also supports the idea that there is no magical cure to easing burnout, but the consistent availability of resources will ultimately have the most significant effect.

H6 examines employee rights' negative relationship with burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction. Employee rights have a statistically significant negative relationship with burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction. This finding indicates the importance of management trust, job security, and the ability to redress concerns and their overall impacts on improving employee psychological well-being. If employees feel secure in their job, they will be better equipped to manage greater work demands. If

employees live in a culture of fear, they are likely to experience worsening effects on psychological well-being.

Employee benefits did not include compensation in the final construct. This is important in understanding how employee benefits influence burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction (H7). Pay is not considered when looking at the statistically significant negative influence of burnout and negative affect on employee benefits. Instead, it is the resources that are given by the organization, such as health insurance, childcare accommodations, employee life insurance, and employee assistance programs, that improve the overall psychological well-being of employees regarding burnout and negative affect. Job dissatisfaction is not statistically significant. Giving greater access and knowledge of employee benefits will improve burnout and negative affect rates to improve retention.

H8 examines the negative influence of autonomy on burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction. Autonomy was not statistically significant with any outcome variable. This was an interesting and surprising result since it contradicts Karasek (1979). However, it does support the notion that job resources are utilized by both blue-collar and white-collar employees alike. There is not a greater need to provide resources to one set of employees over another.

H9 tests the negative influence of social support with burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction. Burnout and negative affect are statistically significant, but job dissatisfaction is not. This is understandable. Having friends, family, and colleagues to lean on, talk with, and ask for support will help improve your mood and physical

readiness. But it won't change your attitude towards your job. Improving social support systems will help improve employee retention by reducing the effect of burnout.

Hypothesis (H10) tests the negative relationship between psychological safety and the outcome variables (burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction). Psychological safety only has a statistically significant association with negative affect. This seems rational considering psychological safety measures the level of inclusivity and belonging within groups or organizations. Negative affect measures the psychometric relationship of how you feel towards something. So, if you feel like you belong and are accepted, you will have positive affects on the organization. The other variables, burnout and job dissatisfaction, are not statistically significant.

Psychological Well-Being Findings

Hypothesis 11 tested the effects of job resources moderating the effect of job demands and poor psychological well-being. Job demands and job resources were reduced to a singular construct to perform this test. As discussed in the analysis section, only burnout was statistically significant and supported by the analysis. The posited job resource construct does moderate the effects of job demands on burnout. If employers want to improve turnover rates in their organization, then improving employee resources is one avenue to explore. Specifically, resources dedicated to reducing burnout, like flexible work schedules, work from home accommodations (if applicable), flexible time off, and guaranteeing employee rights and benefits, are likely most impactful.

Turnover Intention Findings

Alternatively, hypothesis 12 was supported by the data. Burnout, negative affect, and job dissatisfaction are good predictors of turnover intentions. Job dissatisfaction was reported to have a higher association than burnout and negative affect (respectively). This is supported by Gardner et al. (2018), as they said that employees go through a process of leaving, which begins with internally thinking about leaving. Employees experiencing job dissatisfaction may already go through the first stage of thinking about leaving. We do not know how negative affects influence the thought of quitting or when job dissatisfaction becomes burnout. These critical questions must be answered by future research.

The final tested hypothesis (13) examined the moderating effect of job resources on job demands on turnover intentions via burnout, dissatisfaction, and negative affect. As already reported (hypothesis 11), only burnout was statistically significant. Job resources moderate the effects of job demands on turnover intentions. This is new information, and further studies should explore why, but effectively job resources can improve the conditions in which burnout effects increases, thus leading to turnover intentions. The reasons why this exists may point to the ability of an employee to have control in their work, express their displeasures at work, and ultimately feel empowered to suggest changes to work.

Summary of Finding

Respondent demographics did not predict the outcome variables of psychological well-being or intention-to-quit, which supports the notion that resources for all employees

-and not for a few- are essential to managing job demands. The roles and environment in which employees have experienced change increase the negative affects on employees' psychological well-being. Employees who have greater access to job resources are reducing the effects of job demands on their psychological well-being. Organizations that want to improve employee retention should focus on improving their employee's access to job resources, specifically employee rights, employee benefits, and encouraging social support systems.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

This chapter provides employees and employers on how to improve their organization's employee resources, thereby reducing the effects of turnover intentions. The posited recommendations center around the construct of job resources to reduce turnover intentions. This study highlights the importance of job resources on improving conditions in which job demands negatively influence psychological well-being, leading to quitting. Employees are experiencing sweeping changes in the workplaces, brought on primarily by COVID-19, but how employees leverage their resources affects their outcome. Yet, a recent study suggests that the "Great Resignation" conditions existed long before COVID began (Fuller & Kerr, 2022). If employers want to improve employee retention rates, they can start with improving job resources for employees. The findings indicate that improving employee rights, employee benefits, and social support systems will significantly influence employees' psychological well-being. However, further research is needed to better define employee resources and the interactive effects on outcome variables.

Practical Implications

The findings demonstrate the importance of improving employee outcomes through access and opportunities to job resources. For employees, to reduce the negative effect of job demands on their psychological well-being means, their ability to express grievances must not be limited. Employees' rights include the components of understanding how they are being evaluated, how policies are enforced, and trust with management. All these factors promote transparency, equity, and equality. Transparency allows for employees to communicate directly with management their concerns. Equity ensures employee rights are protected from harsh punishments and unwarranted terminations. And equality is a core principle of inclusion. All three components are essential for a healthy, sustainable organization.

Employee benefits must also be encouraged. Employers may benefit from creating transparency in the benefits programs. Demonstrating how their plans are selected and the costs to an organization versus the individual might also improve employee trust. Employees rely on their resources to help reduce the impacts on demands, but employees will be limited in their application of resources without adequate resources. Thus, increasing resource offerings is essential, and quantify and qualify resources to the employees. Employee benefits that might significantly influence burnout outcomes include flexible work schedules, family leave policies, childcare and caregiver allocations, and employee assistance programs.

Increasing job demands during COVID are ultimately the problem in this study. Job demands are the origination of stress in the system. Stress is sometimes a "part of the job," but this does not diminish the importance of improving the condition in which job demands arise. Work-family conflict was unquestionably a factor that must be improved.

Employees bring their whole selves to their job every day. Separation of the person and the employee is impossible. However, there might be opportunities to improve the conditions for the employees at home and work.

Permanent work adjustments are appropriate considering the impacts of COVID-19. Productivity might increase; thus, having employees maintain a work-from-home workplace might be mutually beneficial, or at least the opportunity to work from home weekly. However, work-family conflict may increase as a result of this policy change. There are rising incidents of domestic violence, divorce rates, and burnout. The scope of this study does not address these incidences specifically. However, a discussion with employees is necessary to find the right fit. A one-stop solution is not practical today, and employees should be evaluated individually and not holistically.

The findings suggest that interpersonal conflict was a significant predictor of poor psychological well-being. Management needs to understand that interpersonal conflict influences employees' poor psychological well-being. Thus, efforts should be made to promote healthy discussions centered around reducing conflict. Looking for opportunities to encourage collaboration and cross-sharing of information and resources is necessary for continued organizational growth. Much of the conflict originates from the lack of knowledge and information sharing. Therefore, promoting communication between employees will be beneficial in reducing interpersonal conflict.

Recommendations for Employees

Employees experiencing greater job demands must utilize whatever job resources are available. Employees cannot make their employer provide more resources; however,

employees can promote the use of resources with others. For instance, social support systems are necessary to gain information, share knowledge, and foster relationships. Employees working remotely should maintain those social support systems through weekly calls with colleagues or face-to-face meetings, where available.

Employees can also seek redress with concerns regarding their employment. Employee rights should not be contingent or relative to their appeasement to supervisors. Employees should have defined meetings with their supervisors to understand their performance expectations and ensure they meet them. Role ambiguity should be eliminated using job descriptions and established procedures. Employees should consider asking for clarification when they are unsure of their expectations.

Recommendations for Employers

Employers should seek out opportunities to understand the demands placed on their workforce. Employee demands are not unique incidences but an additive effect in which employees may seem fine on the outside, until they are not. Employers would benefit from partaking in organizational culture surveys, but maybe more importantly, through employee feedback and focus groups. Employees have many perspectives, and no one survey will provide an organization with the collective interest of all its employees.

Employers should also ensure greater access to employee benefits. Benefits, as described in this paper, are discretionary. If employers do not make access available, then employees are left vulnerable to the effects of job demands. Employers should consider offering training and benefit sessions where employees can learn about the

availability and applications of their benefits. More importantly, employees should have a way to communicate with other employees to learn how benefits were used to reduce the effects of job demands. Application of benefits is something employees may be struggling with and having employees dialoguing with other employees provides more significant opportunities to improve outcomes.

Finally, employee rights must be protected from frivolous punishments. Employees should have access to employee handbooks. These handbooks should include performance expectations, job descriptions, employee redress of concerns, ethical reporting opportunities, and mission statements. These handbooks are helpful for employees who are unsure of what to do or the organization's purpose.

Employers should encourage time off. Perfect attendance should not be encouraged. Employees have needs outside of work, which can sometimes cause disruptions at work. Allowing employees to care for needs through time off or flex time arrangements is necessary for the individual's overall well-being and ultimately to the organization.

Limitations of this Study

This study, like any study, has limitations. The most obvious limitation is self-reporting, where respondents are expected to accurately evaluate their feelings regarding some construct. Self-reporting measures the perceived effects on job demands, job resources, psychological well-being, and intention-to-quit outcomes. This implies respondents are willing to share sensitive matters with the research team. This study ensured participants were voluntary, and potential risks were expressed before

participating. To control for this effect, a mixed-methods approach may be more beneficial, in which responses could be followed up with interviewing or focus group participation.

Second, the employee rights and employee benefits constructs were relatively new constructs. These constructs must be tested against a new sample population to ensure accuracy and validity. I am confident that the constructs measured their intended purposes, but they still need cross-validation to guarantee reliability and reproducibility. Third, the unit of analysis is the individual in this research project. However, each employer is unique, and employees' experiences relate to the employment. To control for this in the future, I think testing multiple organizations will produce more significant insights into the benefits of job resources.

Fourth, Qualtrics recruits and compensates participants. Having Qualtrics recruit participants is a faster approach to gathering data, but it may be biased to those who have access to technology. Not all employees have home computers or internet access, which may hurt vulnerable populations' representation in this study. This is a point to consider for future testing and is another reason why recruiting multiple organizations is necessary for future studies. Specific studies on vulnerable populations may be the next step with this model.

Finally, the testing occurred during COVID, but no pre-COVID data was available to compare results. To effectively know how COVID made conditions different will take time. The recommendations and observations made in this paper are based on existing pre-COVID literature.

Future Research Opportunities

In conclusion, this study provided much-needed critical insight on the use of job resources in managing the effects on job demands and psychological well-being leading to the intention to quit. The negative affect and job dissatisfaction outcome variables did not produce the expected outcomes, but some applications should still be explored. In a future project, I would explore antecedent variables such as individual personalities and grit because they may affect individuals' responses to job demands and psychological well-being. The individual's characteristics and traits should be considered with this model because people bring their whole self to work, and thus personalities should be explored.

Secondly, I believe this research project should be explored in for-profit and non-profit entities. The role of job resources and availabilities may be different, and this is an area of research that has not been studied in depth. I want to submit this project for a National Science Foundation grant. This subject is necessary to establish elements of organizational resilience. Organizations face more significant risks with more volatility, and many risks cannot be eliminated. But improving the social conditions and the availability of resources can help foster a healthier work environment and culture. Ultimately, people are the most valuable tool an organization has, and any device left exposed to the elements surely will fail when it's needed most.

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APPENDICES

Survey Questions

Job Demands

Regarding your primary job, please indicate to what extent you agree to the following…

Work-Family Conflict
Item Values: Strongly Disagree = 1; Disagree = 2; Neither = 3; Agree = 4, Strongly Agree = 5
1. The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life
2. The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities
3. Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me
4. My job tasks make it difficult to fulfill my family duties
5. Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family Activities

Family-to-Work Conflict
Item Values: Strongly Disagree = 1; Disagree = 2; Neither = 3; Agree = 4, Strongly Agree = 5
6. The demands of my family or spouse/partner interfere with work-related activities
7. I must put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home
8. Things I want to do at work do not get done because of my family or spouse/partner's needs
9. My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work, such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime
10. Family-related stress interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties

Performance Expectations
Item Values: Strongly Disagree = 1; Disagree = 2; Neither = 3; Agree = 4, Strongly Agree = 5
11. My supervisor believes I complete tasks per the organization’s specifications and standards
12. I can easily achieve the work output my employer requires of workers
13. The goals set forth by my employer are achievable
14. I normally complete tasks on time
15. The work assigned to me is reasonable based on my skills and abilities

Role Clarity (Reverse Code)
Item Values: Strongly Disagree = 1; Disagree = 2; Neither = 3; Agree = 4, Strongly Agree = 5
16. Management makes it perfectly clear how my job is to be done
17. The amount of work responsibilities and effort expected in my job is clearly defined
18. The performance expectation in my department is well understood and communicated

Obligation to Come to Work Sick
Item Values: Strongly Disagree = 1; Disagree = 2; Neither = 3; Agree = 4, Strongly Agree = 5
19. I feel obligated to work when I feel ill or had COVID symptoms
20. I feel like I am letting my employer down by staying home sick
21. I feel like I am letting my colleagues down by staying home sick
22. My employer rewards those who work every day, even while sick

Interpersonal Conflict
Item Values: Strongly Disagree = 1; Disagree = 2; Neither = 3; Agree = 4, Strongly Agree = 5
23. I am often treated unfairly in the workplace
24. I am often blamed or criticized for something that was not my fault
25. I feel other are regularly angry or annoyed with me
26. I believe others gossip or talk about me behind my back at work
27. I often feel teased at work

Job Resources

Regarding your primary job, please indicate to what extent you agree to the following…

Employee Rights
Item Values: Strongly Disagree = 1; Disagree = 2; Neither = 3; Agree = 4, Strongly Agree = 5
28. I may speak out against my employer without fear of retaliation
29. I am discouraged from seeking outside employment (recode)
30. My organization's policies are clear and easy to understand
31. My immediate supervisor allows me to address my concerns directly with them
32. I can voice my disagreement during a performance review
33. Employees trust management's efforts to improve employment concerns
34. I feel confident that my job is protected from layoffs

Employee Benefits
Item Values: Strongly Disagree = 1; Disagree = 2; Neither = 3; Agree = 4, Strongly Agree = 5
35. My employee benefits are comparable to other like companies in the area
36. I feel my employer pays their fair share in offering me employee benefits
37. I feel the employee benefits improve the overall well-being of participants
38. I am or my family is likely to use the employee benefits offered to me
39. The employee benefits offered by my employer fairly represent the needs of employees

Autonomy
Item Values: Strongly Disagree = 1; Disagree = 2; Neither = 3; Agree = 4, Strongly Agree = 5
40. I have significant control over my work schedule
41. My supervisor has little control over defining my work schedule
42. I determine the priorities of my work assignments
43. I can perform my work assignments independent of others

Social Support
Item Values: Strongly Disagree = 1; Disagree = 2; Neither = 3; Agree = 4, Strongly Agree = 5
44. There is someone at work I can talk to about the pressures in my life
45. There is at least one person at work I can share most things with
46. When I am feeling down, there is someone at work I can lean on for support

Psychological Safety
Item Values: Strongly Disagree = 1; Disagree = 2; Neither = 3; Agree = 4, Strongly Agree = 5
47. If I make a mistake on my team, it is often held against me
48. Members of my workgroup can bring up problems and tough issues
49. Members of my workgroup sometimes reject others for being different
50. It is safe to take a risk in my workgroup
51. I feel my unique skills and talents are valued and utilized
52. No one in my workgroup would intentionally undermine my efforts

Psychological Well-Being

Emotional Exhaustion/Burnout
Item Values: Strongly Disagree = 1; Disagree = 2; Neither = 3; Agree = 4, Strongly Agree = 5
53. I feel used up at the end of the workday
54. I feel fatigued in the morning when I wake up and have to face another day at work
55. I feel I treat some individuals at work as if they were impersonal objects
56. Working with people all day is really a strain for me
57. I do not really care what happens to some individuals at work

Job Dissatisfaction
Item Values: Strongly Disagree = 1; Disagree = 2; Neither = 3; Agree = 4, Strongly Agree = 5
58. I get along with my supervisors (R)
59. All my talents and skills are used at work (R)
60. I feel good about my job (R)
61. I receive recognition for a job well done (R)
62. I feel good about working at this company (R)
63. I feel my wages are fair (R)

Negative Affect
Item Values: Strongly Disagree = 1; Disagree = 2; Neither = 3; Agree = 4, Strongly Agree = 5
I often feel….

64. Scared at work?
65. afraid to go to work?
66. upset while at work?
67. distressed by work?
68. nervous while at work?
69. irritable while at work?
70. hostile while at work?
71. ashamed of work?
72. guilty while at work?

Outcome Predictor

Regarding your primary job, please indicate to what extent you agree to the following…

Intention-to-Quit
Item Values: Strongly Disagree = 1; Disagree = 2; Neither = 3; Agree = 4, Strongly Agree = 5
73. I often seriously consider leaving my job to work for another employer
74. I intend to quit my current job.
75. I have started to look for other jobs.

Oklahoma State University Institutional Review Board

Date:	05/18/2021
Application Number:	IRB-21-228
Proposal Title:	"Where's the benefit?: A critical evaluation of the role of employee resources in mediating job demands and psychological well-being"
Principal Investigator:	Steven Haynes
Co-Investigator(s):	
Faculty Adviser:	Tony McAleavy
Project Coordinator:	
Research Assistant(s):	
Processed as:	Exempt
Exempt Category:	

Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

The IRB application referenced above has been approved. It is the judgment of the reviewers that the rights and welfare of individuals who may be asked to participate in this study will be respected, and that the research will be conducted in a manner consistent with the IRB requirements as outlined in 45CFR46.

This study meets criteria in the Revised Common Rule, as well as, one or more of the circumstances for which continuing review is not required. As Principal Investigator of this research, you will be required to submit a status report to the IRB triennially.

The final versions of any recruitment, consent and assent documents bearing the IRB approval stamp are available for download from IRBManager. These are the versions that must be used during the study.

As Principal Investigator, it is your responsibility to do the following:

1. Conduct this study exactly as it has been approved. Any modifications to the research protocol must be approved by the IRB. Protocol modifications requiring approval may include changes to the title, PI, adviser, other research personnel, funding status or sponsor, subject population composition or size, recruitment, inclusion/exclusion criteria, research site, research procedures and consent/assent process or forms.
2. Submit a request for continuation if the study extends beyond the approval period. This continuation must receive IRB review and approval before the research can continue.
3. Report any unanticipated and/or adverse events to the IRB Office promptly.
4. Notify the IRB office when your research project is complete or when you are no longer affiliated with Oklahoma State University.

Please note that approved protocols are subject to monitoring by the IRB and that the IRB office has the authority to inspect research records associated with this protocol at any time. If you have questions about the IRB procedures or need any assistance from the Board, please contact the IRB Office at 405-744-3377 or irb@okstate.edu.

Sincerely,
Oklahoma State University IRB

VITA

Steven Haynes

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Dissertation: SURVIVE OR THRIVE? A CRITICAL EVALUATION OF THE MODERATED MEDIATED EFFECTS OF JOB RESOURCES ON PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING LEADING TO THE INTENTION TO QUIT

Major Field: Fire and Emergency Management Administration

Biographical:

Education:

Completed the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy in Fire and Emergency Management Administration at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in May, 2022.

Completed the requirements for the Master of Public Administration at the University of North Texas, Denton, Texas in 2016.

Completed the requirements for the Bachelor of Science in Emergency Administration and Planning at the University of North Texas, Denton, Texas in 2011.