

Burnout as a Mediator in the Workaholism-Turnover Intentions Relationship

by

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Abstract

The present research explores the relationship between workaholism and voluntary turnover intentions with burnout as the explanatory mechanism. Existing literature has found a positive relationship between workaholism and overall burnout, along with multiple burnout dimensions (Clark et al., 2014). Research has also found a positive relationship between burnout, turnover intentions, and actual turnover behaviors (Maslach et al., 2001). However, there is a gap in the literature because an empirical linkage between workaholism and turnover intentions has not been found, and a previous attempt at exploring this relationship did not use a sufficient measure of workaholism (Choi, 2013). The present study uses the Multidimensional Workaholism Scale (MWS; Clark et al., 2020), as it addresses issues of workaholism's construct contamination in the literature. Additionally, the mediation model is theoretically explored with Conservation of Resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989). Evidence from a three-wave study of MTurk participants ($N = 337$), ranging in professions and industries, provides support that (a) burnout positively and significantly mediates the relationship between overall workaholism and turnover intentions; (b) burnout positively and significantly mediates the relationships between cognitive and emotional workaholism and turnover intentions; (c) burnout negatively and significantly mediates the relationship between motivational workaholism and turnover intentions. Additional post hoc analyses did explore the relative importance of each workaholism dimension in accounting for predictable variance in burnout, allowing further consideration of motivational workaholism's effects in this study. These results inform practices and interventions aimed at individuals at-risk of or experiencing the negative implications of workaholism and burnout.

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The topic of workaholism is a growing area of research within the Industrial-Organizational (I-O) psychology literature. Researchers have found relationships between workaholism and negative individual and organizational outcomes, like overall burnout and three of its facets: depersonalization, emotional exhaustion, and cynicism (Clark et al., 2014). Burnout is also a hot-button topic that can lead to negative outcomes like turnover intentions and other withdrawal behaviors (Maslach et al., 2001). While research has found a linkage between workaholism and burnout, and burnout and turnover intentions, a critical relationship that calls for consideration is that between workaholism and turnover intentions. To consider the relationships between workaholism and other outcomes, the construct itself requires decontamination in the literature. Researchers Clark, Smith, and Haynes (2020) have addressed the extant concerns of workaholism's definition, theory, and measurement through the creation of their Multidimensional Workaholism Scale (MWS). The MWS distinguishes workaholism from related yet distinct constructs, like work engagement and work addiction, while also providing an opportunity to analyze workaholism at the dimension level: motivational, cognitive, emotional, and behavioral (Clark et al., 2020). The present study aims to address the relationship with workaholism and turnover intentions, specifically researching whether burnout is the explanatory mechanism. Of note, the Shirom-Melamed Burnout Measure (SMBM; Shirom & Melamed, 2006) is used in the current study, and there seems to be a theoretical alignment between the dimensions of the MWS and the SMBM in terms of Hobfoll's Conservation of Resources (COR) theory (1989).

Is there an association between workaholism and turnover intentions, given the theoretical linkage between the workaholism and burnout scales and the previously explored

relationships between related constructs? And if so, is this explained by burnout? Understanding if this linkage exists between workaholism and turnover intentions is important because this kind of withdrawal behavior is detrimental to both individual and organizational success, as the intent to quit is one of the strongest contributors to actual turnover above and beyond other factors like one's level of job satisfaction, age, or tenure (Mobley et al., 1979). The turnover literature needs to be expanded upon, and this research adds to the list of antecedents of turnover intentions. And ultimately, using the MWS to explore another critical outcome of workaholism continues the process of decontaminating the workaholism literature, allows for exploration of new empirical findings, and advances both theoretical and practical uses of the construct at the overall and dimension levels.

Workaholism

Oates (1971) introduced the term workaholism to describe an individual's uncontrollable need or desire to work. Research has found significant associations between workaholism and negative outcomes, like poor mental and physical health, burnout, and increased work-family conflict (Clark et al., 2014). Clark et al.'s (2014) review of the workaholism literature discusses both the correlates and outcomes of workaholism, aiming to create necessary consensus. The authors discuss components and explanations of workaholism that most I-O researchers have agreed upon. From their review of the literature, Clark et al. (2014) define workaholism as "an addiction to work that involves feeling compelled or driven to work because of internal pressures, having persistent and frequent thoughts about work when not working, and working beyond what is reasonably expected. . . despite potential negative consequences" (p. 5).

Clark et al. (2020) do not conceptualize workaholism as a personality trait or stable disposition, as research has shown that other situational and contextual factors can affect

workaholism over time. According to Ng et al. (2007), there are three perspectives that can explain the antecedents of workaholism: “individual dispositions, socio-cultural experiences, and behavioral reinforcements in the environment” (p. 123). Ng et al. (2007) explain how dispositional traits, like self-esteem, achievement-related personality traits, or values, can predispose individuals to workaholism. Additionally, socio-cultural experiences that are present in both the work and family realms, like over-protective parenting styles or avoidance of social or familial activities, can precede workaholism. Finally, both tangible or intangible rewards or highly engaging work environments can positively reinforce workaholic behaviors (Ng et al., 2007). These perspectives are rooted in the addiction literature, which can apply to the concept of workaholism as well. It is important to provide distinction between work addiction and workaholism, as the terms are often used interchangeably. The two concepts do share the “inner compulsion to work and similar patterns of behavior, affect, and cognitions relating to work” (Clark et al., 2020, p. 12). However, Clark et al. (2020) note that using work addiction measures to assess workaholism creates additional construct contamination, as those measures include clinically relevant criteria that are characteristic to work addiction but not to workaholism.

To address the inconsistent ideas of workaholism’s conceptualization and definition, Clark et al. (2020) have constructed a multidimensional conceptualization of workaholism and developed and validated a new measure. As can be implied from the previous mention of workaholism versus work addiction, there are disagreements on what exactly workaholism encompasses and what it does not, and in turn, many existing measurements of workaholism are very different (Clark et al., 2020). For example, other related variables, like work engagement or enjoyment, are included in some workaholism measures. Clark et al. (2020) distinguish workaholism and work engagement on several fronts. Workaholism has been linked to

introjected regulation and negative emotions when not at work, while work engagement has been linked to intrinsic motivation and positive emotions when not at work (Clark et al., 2020). Additionally, workaholism is related to ruminating thoughts about work while not at work, and it has been shown to be associated with higher levels of burnout and not significantly associated with job performance (Clark et al., 2020). The inability for individuals to detach from work is not related to work engagement, and there have been associations between work engagement and lower levels of burnout and higher levels of job performance (Clark et al., 2020). Providing empirical support for distinctness between workaholism and work enjoyment, Clark et al. (2014) found in their review of the literature that scales designed to measure work enjoyment that are used to assess workaholism do not accurately assess the construct. Other research has explored the lack of work enjoyment as a component of workaholism, and their results have shown that workaholism and work enjoyment have a negative relationship (Aziz & Zickar, 2006). While there may be certain individual, affective, or other personal aspects that can be included in understanding workaholism, construct contamination has made many empirical interpretations difficult.

The Multidimensional Workaholism Scale (MWS)

Clark et al. (2020) define workaholism as “a multidimensional construct comprised of 1) an inner pressure or compulsion to work...2) persistent, uncontrollable thoughts about work...3) feeling negative emotions when not working or when prevented from working...4) excessive working that goes beyond what is required and expected” (p. 9-10). This definition highlights four distinct dimensions: motivational, cognitive, emotional, and behavioral. Of note, Clark et al. (2020) argue that all four of these dimensions are necessary and defining characteristics of workaholism that, as a whole, adequately represent the construct domain.

The motivational dimension is categorized as the “inner compulsion or pressure to work” (Clark et al., 2020, p. 8). An important aspect of this dimension is that this pressure is internal, not external. Research has shown that workaholism is positively related to introjected regulation, in which the chance of something externally happening is partially internalized by the individual while their behavior is still controlled (Clark et al., 2020).

Clark et al. (2020) describe the cognitive dimension as “persistent, uncontrollable thoughts about work” (p. 9). Another aspect of this dimension is that workaholics will be physically absent from their workplace but still psychologically present. Studies have shown associations between workaholism and cognitive rumination about work, along with workaholics being more likely to have thoughts about work when participating in a leisure activity (Clark et al., 2020).

The emotional dimension of the MWS characterizes these negative feelings a workaholic has when either not working or prevented from working. The emotional and motivational dimensions are highly related, as a workaholic’s feelings that they must be doing work are often paired with negative emotions like guilt or anxiety (Clark et al., 2020). Clark et al.’s (2014) review of the workaholism literature finds supporting evidence that these negative feelings, paired with their internal pressures and compulsion to work, result in high levels of job stress.

Finally, the behavioral dimension of the MWS categorizes excessive work behaviors, being those that go beyond what is both required and expected of one’s work role. This dimension encompasses different aspects of excessive work, like working hours, work drive, and personal time spent doing work activities (Clark et al., 2020). Of note, while working many hours is included within the behavioral dimension, that alone cannot meaningfully be operationalized as workaholism. Unfortunately, researchers often operationalize workaholism in

very narrow ways (Clark et al., 2014). Again, a multidimensional scale like the MWS is necessary in decontaminating the workaholism literature.

Burnout

The concept of burnout has appeared in the literature since the early 1970s, describing how individuals experience and react to job-related stress (Freudenberger, 1974; Maslach, 1976). Since then, researchers have expanded upon this construct of burnout. Burnout has been defined as a “prolonged response to chronic job stressors,” those that are emotional and/or interpersonal (Maslach et al., 2001). Researching burnout is critical because it can have negative implications for both the individual and the organization, like lower productivity, absenteeism, and reduced organizational commitment (Maslach et al., 2001). Burnout can negatively spill over into an individual’s home life, affecting their familial roles and relationships (Maslach et al., 2001). The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach et al. 1996) identifies three core subdimensions of burnout: exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficacy. While Maslach and colleagues have been incredibly prominent in the burnout literature, other researchers like Pines et al. (1981) and Shirom (1989) have explored burnout in their own individual models with a few different dimensions included in their conceptualizations of the construct.

Shirom and Melamed have created the SMBM (Shirom & Melamed, 2006) as a means of capturing the multidimensional construct of burnout. This measure includes three dimensions yet has been developed to analyze a single construct score. Shirom and Melamed identify burnout as a “unique affective response to stress” with its three dimensions being emotional exhaustion, cognitive weariness, and physical fatigue (Shirom & Melamed, 2006, p. 327). This response results from continuous and prolonged exposure to work-related stress. According to Shirom and Melamed (2006), physical fatigue is characterized as “feelings of tiredness and low levels of

energy in carrying out daily tasks at work” (p. 330). The emotional exhaustion dimension creates a “feeling that one lacks the energy needed to invest in [work] relationships” (Shirom & Melamed, 2006, p. 330). The third dimension, cognitive weariness, reduces one’s mental agility and slows their thinking (Shirom & Melamed, 2006). These three dimensions are based on Hobfoll’s (1989) COR theory.

COR theory identifies four kinds of resources, in which the loss or gain of those resources results in stress (Hobfoll, 1989). These four resources are objects, conditions, personal characteristics, and energies. The SMBM focuses on those energetic resources that are explained in COR theory. Shirom and Melamed (2006) explain that an individual’s resources exist as a resource pool, so if they are lacking in one resource, they are likely to be lacking in another resource. Importantly, energetic resources as measured by the SMBM do not overlap with other behavioral concepts, like self-efficacy or detachment, as does the measurement of burnout in the MBI (Shirom & Melamed, 2006). Lastly, the SMBM is conceptualized differently than the MBI or Pines and colleagues’ (1981) Burnout Measure (BM) in that it differentiates burnout from other constructs, such as negative coping behaviors. According to Hobfoll & Shirom (2001), instruments like the MBI and BM often show overlap with possible outcomes of burnout, like psychological strain or emotional distress. Those measures do not make the distinction between burnout and depressive symptoms, which can cause construct contamination (Hobfoll & Shirom, 2001).

Turnover Intentions

Employee turnover intentions and actual turnover have been topics of interest for decades in I-O research. Porter and Steers (1973) have reviewed over ten years of research on withdrawal behaviors, like employee turnover and absenteeism, to identify their relationships with

organizational, work, and personal factors. According to their research on turnover, individuals set certain expectations for their work, organization, coworkers, environment, and so on. When there is incongruence between potential rewards and desired expectations, feelings of withdrawal can become relevant and increasingly more prominent for the employee (Porter & Steers, 1973). Mobley et al. (1979) have conducted a review and conceptual analysis of the employee turnover process, including research findings and conclusions from Porter and Steers' (1973) review. The economic and job satisfaction literature is more well-established in relation to turnover, meaning that there is less understanding as to the underlying mechanisms of turnover in I-O psychology. Mobley et al. (1979) encouraged future research that is aimed at better identifying and understanding intentions to turnover and actual turnover. It is important for organizations to assess turnover intentions because these do provide a stronger contribution to actual turnover behavior than has been found with other variables, like levels of job satisfaction or demographic characteristics (Mobley et al., 1979). In addition, Mobley et al. (1979) argue that there needs to be analyses of the precursors to behavioral intentions, like choosing to quit, to better understand the psychology of turnover behavior.

A Model of Workaholism, Burnout, and Turnover Intentions

Workaholism's Association with Burnout

Empirical research has established a relationship between workaholism and job-related burnout. Schaufeli et al. (2008) have conducted an empirical study on the three topics of workaholism, work engagement, and burnout, exploring whether they compose employee well-being as a group or as more distinct constructs. The authors did conclude that workaholism, work engagement, and burnout are distinct constructs, but there are still clear relationships and connections between them. Workaholics can and do experience levels of burnout. Schaufeli et al.

(2008) found relationships between workaholism and burnout components. Workaholism is related to health concerns, like distress or psychosomatic complaints (Schaufeli et al., 2008). Also, the exhaustion dimension of burnout can lead to serious stress-related outcomes (Maslach et al., 2001). Clark et al. (2014) have empirically tested this relationship between workaholism and burnout, as they also did use support from previous literature to hypothesize that the two are in fact related. From their results, workaholism is positively related to overall burnout, as well as emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and cynicism (Clark et al., 2014). And workaholism is negatively related to both physical and mental/emotional health (Clark et al., 2014). From the literature, it can be concluded that workaholism and burnout are positively related and share similar negative outcomes for individuals. Accordingly, the following is hypothesized:

Hypothesis 1: Workaholism will be positively related to burnout.

There seems to be theoretical alignment between the multidimensional constructs of workaholism and burnout used in the present study, specifically in terms of COR theory. A notable aspect of workaholism is the internal drive to work, in which individuals are the main agents of increasing their workload and creating overwhelming job pressures. In addition, research has shown that workaholics lack job resources. For example, these individuals do not necessarily rely on supervisory support and have lower levels of job control (Schaufeli et al., 2008). Therefore, it seems workaholics will continue to exert themselves to work in job environments that may inhibit their growth and development because their work stressors are more internal than external. While they lack job resources, they tend to expel an excessive number of internal energies, which parallels Hobfoll's (1989) description of energetic resources, like one's time or knowledge. Hobfoll (1989) describes one's energies as a resource category not typified by its intrinsic value as much as its value in obtaining other resources. This provides

potentially important insight into the motivational dimension of the MWS, in which one is not intrinsically motivated but instead internalizes external contingencies and controls their behaviors as such (Clark et al., 2020). Additionally, there is arguable alignment between the three dimensions of the SMBM, being cognitive weariness, physical fatigue, and emotional exhaustion, and three of the four dimensions of the MWS, being cognitive, behavioral, and emotional workaholism. This theoretical alignment provides further support for the proposal of hypothesis 1.

Burnout's Association with Turnover Intentions

Burnout has been found to have relationships with different job performance outcomes. Specifically, research has shown that burnout leads to different types of job withdrawal, like intentions to leave one's job and actual turnover behaviors (Maslach et al., 2001). There are studies conducted with specific occupations, like accountants and nurses, that have found evidence for a positive relationship between burnout and turnover intentions. For example, Herda and Lavelle (2012) have empirically tested the effects of burnout on accountants, specifically assessing the dimension of emotional exhaustion. These results yield a positive relationship between burnout and turnover intentions (Herda & Lavelle, 2012). And Chullen (2018) conducted an empirical test of burnout on nurses, finding a positive relationship between the burnout dimensions of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization with turnover intentions. Chullen's (2018) research also suggests that emotional exhaustion is the first stage of the burnout experience, which then sequentially unfolds into intentions to quit. Additionally, Steel and Ovalle (1984) discussed the role job satisfaction has in indirectly affecting actual turnover through behavioral intentions to quit or stay. Turnover intentions and job satisfaction have been found to have a negative relationship, as those highly satisfied with their job are less likely to

want to quit; additionally, burnout has been shown to erode one's feelings of job satisfaction (Lee & Ashforth, 1996). This yields another association between burnout and turnover intentions. It is important to highlight specific examples of burnout's relationship to turnover intentions to better understand the proposed linkage and how burnout could be the explanatory mechanism within the workaholism-turnover intentions relationship. The following is hypothesized:

Hypothesis 2: Burnout will be positively related to turnover intentions.

Workaholism's Association with Turnover Intentions

While there is little research regarding workaholism's relationship with turnover intentions, Choi (2013) has found a result contrary to his proposed hypothesis. Choi (2013) did conduct research on differences between workaholism and work engagement, along with their relationships with organizational outcomes, like organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) and turnover intentions. He has hypothesized that there is a positive relationship between workaholism and turnover intentions. Based on other researchers' findings highlighted in Choi's (2013) article, workaholics tend to excessively work and therefore lack sufficient time and resources to take part in nonwork-related activities; this causes emotional and cognitive exhaustion. Moreover, workaholism can have negative effects on an individual's personal relationships outside of the workplace and on their physical and mental health. Because of these findings, Choi (2013) has suggested that workaholics would have a positive relationship with intentions to quit. However, he has found a negative relationship between workaholism and turnover intentions. While Choi (2013) finds this relationship to be unexpected, he suggests that the reason for this negative relationship may be that an individual's personal life has become

unmanageable; they slip into tendencies like that of alcoholics in which they are still addicted to and obsessed with working despite any physical or mental problems.

As discussed previously in Clark et al.'s (2014) definition of workaholism, workaholics often continue to work despite potential negative consequences. Also, as is mentioned in Porter and Steers' (1973) withdrawal behavior research, there are organizational, work, and personal factors that can play a role in employee turnover intentions and actual turnover. Therefore, if workaholics do not rely on many outside resources and create more internal pressures and expectations, the relationship could be better explained than is in Choi's (2013) research. In addition, the use of the MWS in the present study allows for a more dimensionally relevant analysis of workaholism and could capture this relationship more clearly than the Workaholism Battery (WorkBAT; Spence & Robbins, 1992) scale used by Choi (2013). The WorkBAT used by Choi (2013) had two scales of work involvement/excessive working and inner drive to work, which is not as extensive as the MWS. And the inner drive scale was the only one used by Choi (2013) to examine the hypothesized relationship between workaholism and turnover intentions. Also, Clark et al. (2020) have found in both hierarchical regression analyses and RWA that the MWS accounts for additional variance above and beyond the WorkBAT in the prediction of emotional exhaustion. There needs to be more research exploring the linkage between these two constructs with the implementation of appropriate scales.

Does burnout mediate the relationship between workaholism and turnover intentions, as workaholism is positively related to burnout, and burnout is positively related to turnover intentions? Based on reviews of the workaholism, burnout, and turnover literature, a mediation is proposed and explored in this study. Burnout will mediate the relationship between workaholism and turnover intentions, such that burnout explains the linkage between the two constructs. This

mediation is theoretically explained with COR theory, as the depletion of the workaholic's internal resources when experiencing burnout will lead to turnover intentions. Of note, turnover intentions assessed in the present study fall within the category of voluntary. It is hypothesized that if a workaholic experiences burnout, their relationship with turnover intentions will be positive, such that they will be more likely to want to quit. The following mediation is hypothesized and displayed in Figure 1:

Hypothesis 3: Burnout will mediate the workaholism-turnover intentions relationship, such that workaholics who experience burnout will have a positive relationship with turnover intentions.

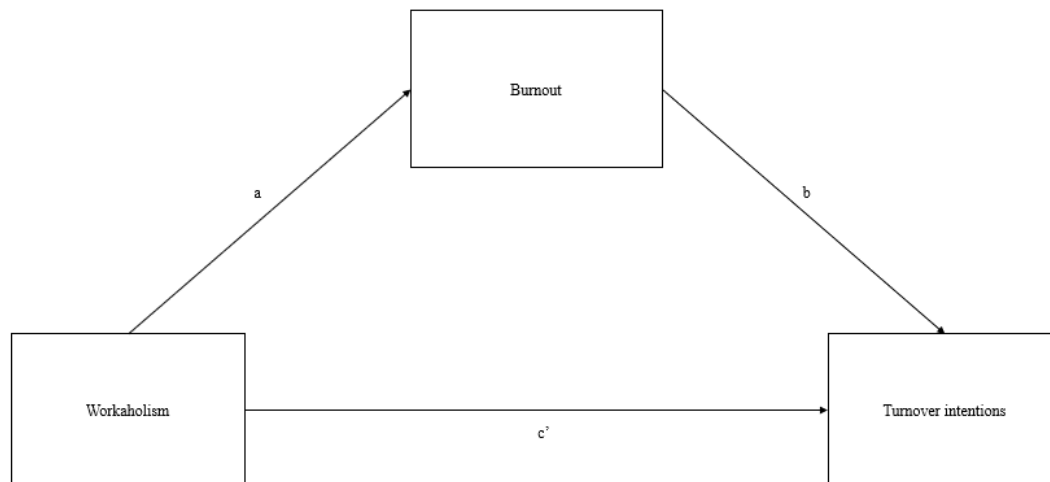


Figure 1. The proposed mediation model with burnout as the explanatory mechanism in the workaholism-turnover intentions relationship.

Method

Participants

The subjects for this research study were gathered through an online crowdsourcing service known as Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). This website provides researchers with access to a large pool of participants that are paid for the completion of available tasks and

surveys. The qualifications for participants were as follows: 18 years or older, currently residing in the United States, and employed 36 or more hours per week. Due to the potential for restriction of range, workaholism was not included in the qualifying criteria. Participation was voluntary, and responses were held confidential.

At Time 1, there were 701 participants who completed the survey; 675 of those participants did not miss instructed-response items and gave their appropriate MTurk ID for payment purposes. The Time 1 survey took participants, on average, 36 minutes to complete. At Time 2, there were 501 participants who completed the survey; 448 of those participants did not miss instructed-response items and gave their appropriate MTurk ID for payment purposes. The Time 2 survey took participants, on average, 21 minutes to complete. At Time 3, there were 359 participants who completed the survey; 337 of those participants did not miss instructed-response items and gave their appropriate MTurk ID for payment purposes. The Time 3 survey took participants, on average, 26 minutes to complete. The final sample of 337 participants had a mean age of 40.95 years ($SD = 10.76$), was 50.7% female, was 56.1% married, and 53.1% had children. This sample included 76.0% European Americans, 7.4% African Americans, and 16.6% other races/ethnicities. The average level of education completed by this sample was a bachelor's degree, and the average annual income of this sample ranged from \$60,000 to \$69,000. A non-exhaustive list of participants' occupations includes business analysts, financial advisors, attorneys, sales managers, teachers, scientists, nurses, and customer service representatives.

Procedures

This was a three-wave study, with a one-month time lag between both Time 1 and Time 2, and Time 2 and Time 3. As recommended by Podsakoff et al. (2003), temporal separation of

measurement helps to remedy potential concerns of common method variance when data is obtained from the same source. Workaholism was measured at Time 1, burnout at Time 2, and turnover intentions at Time 3. All three measures are included in Appendix A. Once the participants met the qualifying criteria for the initial survey, they received an electronic, informed consent form; this was distributed at all three time points. A few basic demographic questions were asked at Time 1. In addition, three instructed-response items were included at each time point, nine in total, as a preventative measure towards careless responding as they assessed the participants answers and ability to remain on task (see Gummer et al., 2018; Huang et al., 2015; Meade & Craig, 2012). Participants who missed any of these items were excluded during the data cleaning process. Participants were reminded at the end of Time 1 and Time 2 that there would be an email notification prompting them to complete the additional surveys, along with a note thanking them for their participation thus far. The participants were paid \$1.50 through MTurk upon completion of each survey if they reported their correct ID (\$4.50 total if all three surveys were completed). The participants were debriefed upon completion of each survey as to reiterate the study's purpose, and they were provided with contact information for the lab and principal investigators in case they needed to ask questions post-survey completion.

Measures

Workaholism. Workaholism was measured with the Multidimensional Workaholism Scale (MWS; Clark et al., 2020). This scale was a 16-item, 4-factor structure, with subscales specifically assessing motivational, cognitive, emotional, and behavioral workaholism. Clark et al. (2020) reported a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of 0.94 for the overall MWS. The reliability coefficients for each subscale were as follows: motivational ($\alpha = 0.89$), cognitive ($\alpha =$

0.94), emotional ($\alpha = 0.91$), and behavioral ($\alpha = 0.86$) (Clark et al., 2020). Each of these subscales had four items, all rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale, (1 = never true, 5 = always true). Examples of items from each dimension are as follows: motivational: “I have a strong inner desire to work all of the time;” cognitive: “I feel like I cannot stop myself from thinking about working;” emotional: “I feel upset if I cannot continue to work;” behavioral: “When most of my coworkers will take breaks, I keep working.”

Burnout. Burnout was measured with the Shirom-Melamed Burnout Measure (SMBM; Shirom & Melamed, 2006). This was a 14-item measure that assessed three dimensions: physical fatigue, emotional exhaustion, and cognitive weariness. Physical fatigue was measured with six items, cognitive weariness was measured with five items, and emotional exhaustion was measured with three items. The measure assessed ratings on a 7-point Likert-type scale, (1 = never, 7 = always). Shirom and Melamed (2006) reported a reliability coefficient of 0.92 for the SMBM. An example of a physical fatigue item is: “I feel physically drained.” An example of a cognitive weariness item is: “I have difficulty concentrating.” And an example of an emotional exhaustion item is: “I feel I am not capable of being sympathetic to coworkers and customers.”

Turnover intentions. To test the participants’ voluntary turnover intentions, Bothma and Roodt’s (2013) turnover intention scale, also known as the TIS-6, was used. This 6-item scale was adapted and shortened from Roodt’s (2004) 15-item turnover intention scale. Bothma and Roodt (2013) reported a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of 0.80 for the 6-item version of the scale. An example item is: “How often have you considered leaving your job?” The TIS-6 uses a 5-point Likert-type scale. The rating points are different based on which question is being asked. For example, the item noted above is rated from never to always (1 = never, 5 = always). Two of the items were reverse-coded.

The aim of the present study was to explore burnout as a mediator in the workaholism-turnover intentions relationship. The hypotheses were tested using regression analyses in MPlus Version 8.6 (Muthen & Muthen, 2012-2021). The preliminary analyses explored the overall constructs, whereas a post hoc analysis was conducted to examine the relationships between the four workaholism dimensions and turnover intentions as mediated by overall burnout. To conduct the dimension-level analysis, mean scores were calculated for each of the four workaholism dimensions in SPSS. Additional post hoc analyses included a power analysis for the overall mediation model, along with a relative weight analysis to address certain results from the dimension-level analysis. (RWA; Johnson, 2000).

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Preliminary analyses were conducted, and Table 1 displays descriptive statistics, correlations, and reliabilities for the final $N = 337$ sample. The potential for multivariate outliers was explored with regression analysis in SPSS by calculating Mahalanobis distance estimates. None of the Mahalanobis distance estimates, based on the three variables of interest in this mediation, were significant ($p < .001$), so no cases needed to be removed. In terms of missing data, MPlus uses maximum likelihood estimation that can address potential issues of missingness. Additionally, the data file was further checked for missingness in SPSS by transforming the variables of interest into new variables to check for any patterns. There were no patterns of missing data, and this may be explained by the exclusion of participants who did not successfully complete the survey items at all three time points during the data cleaning process.

All three continuous variables were univariate normal and significantly related to one another. The skewness statistics were within the range of -2 to +2, and the kurtosis statistics were

within the range of -7 to +7. Workaholism was significantly related to burnout ($r = 0.117, p < 0.05$) and turnover intentions ($r = 0.115, p < 0.05$). Burnout was significantly related to turnover intentions ($r = 0.428, p < 0.001$). Demographic variables were assessed with specific survey questions. There were no significant bivariate correlations between the demographic variables of participants' race/ethnicity ($r = -0.53, p = 0.335$), whether they had children ($r = -0.005, p = 0.931$), marital status ($r = 0.085, p = 0.119$), hours spent videoconferencing ($r = -0.087, p = 0.109$), yearly income ($r = -0.057, p = 0.294$), or education level ($r = 0.018, p = 0.735$) and overall workaholism.

To compare the workaholism construct between the current sample of MTurk users and the sample tested in Clark et al.'s (2020) creation and validation of the MWS, the means and standard deviations were calculated for the overall construct of workaholism and its four dimensions. Of note, both the current study and Clark et al.'s (2020) study measured workaholism in the same manner, using the same items, wording, scaling, and anchors. Clark et al.'s (2020, p. 62) descriptive statistics for their MTurk sample of $N = 639-661$ are as follows: MWS ($M = 2.50; SD = 0.87$); motivational ($M = 2.71; SD = 1.06$); cognitive ($M = 2.09; SD = 1.06$); emotional ($M = 2.26; SD = 1.06$); behavioral ($M = 2.91; SD = 0.98$). The means and standard deviations within the current study's sample are greater than those in Clark et al.'s (2020) sample, as can be compared with the statistics in Table 1. To determine the two samples to be different from one another, an independent samples t-test was run for the overall workaholism construct. Assuming variances were equal, $t(996) = -39.06, p = 0.00$. Assuming variances were not equal, $t(753) = -40.64, p = 0.00$. These analyses concluded that the two samples are in fact different from one another. Additionally, there is a need to use the MWS

more frequently in future MTurk studies to calculate a benchmark score of workaholism across samples.

Table 1

Descriptive statistics, correlations, and reliabilities

Variable	Mean	SD	Sk (Kurtosis)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Workaholism	4.69	.77	.571(-.122)	<i>.91</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-
2. Motivational	5.27	1.10	-.316(-.812)	.81**	<i>.91</i>	-	-	-	-	-
3. Cognitive	4.32	.97	.857(.106)	.70**	.38**	<i>.88</i>	-	-	-	-
4. Emotional	4.34	.92	1.047(.568)	.72**	.40**	.40**	<i>.87</i>	-	-	-
5. Behavioral	4.83	1.06	.192(-.793)	.82**	.62**	.38**	.45**	<i>.87</i>	-	-
6. Burnout	2.89	1.36	.583(-.188)	.12*	-.04	.26**	.16**	.01	<i>.97</i>	-
7. Turnover Intentions	2.62	.59	.306(-.531)	.12*	.04	.13*	.11*	.08	.43**	<i>.90</i>

Note. $N = 337$. Coefficient alpha reliabilities are on the diagonal in italics. ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$.

Mediation Model

Hypothesis 1 stated that workaholism would be positively related to burnout. As Figure 2 illustrates, the unstandardized regression coefficient of the ‘a path’ between workaholism and burnout was positive and statistically significant ($B = 0.206$, $S.E. = 0.104$, $p = 0.048$), thus providing support for Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 2 stated that burnout would be positively related to turnover intentions. The unstandardized regression coefficient of the ‘b path’ between burnout and turnover intentions was positive and statistically significant ($B = 0.182$, $S.E. = 0.021$, $p = 0.000$), thus providing support for Hypothesis 2. Hypothesis 3 stated that burnout would mediate the relationship between workaholism and turnover intentions, such that workaholics who experience burnout would have a positive association with the intent to quit. Of note, the unstandardized regression coefficient of the ‘c’ path’ between workaholism and turnover intentions was positive but not statistically significant ($B = 0.050$, $S.E. = 0.038$, $p = 0.189$). To test for significance of the indirect effect, the bias-corrected bootstrap estimates were calculated

with confidence intervals based on 5,000 iterations. The indirect effect estimate ($B = 0.037$, S.E. = 0.020, $p = 0.056$) had 95% confidence intervals that did not include zero ($CI_{0.95} = 0.001, 0.080$), thus showing significance and providing support for Hypothesis 3. To determine the indirect effect size for this model, a measure of relative magnitude was calculated. This measure functions as a ratio of the indirect effect to the total effect (Preacher & Kelley, 2011). For the overall mediation model, the indirect effect size was 0.43, which is medium according to Cohen (1988).

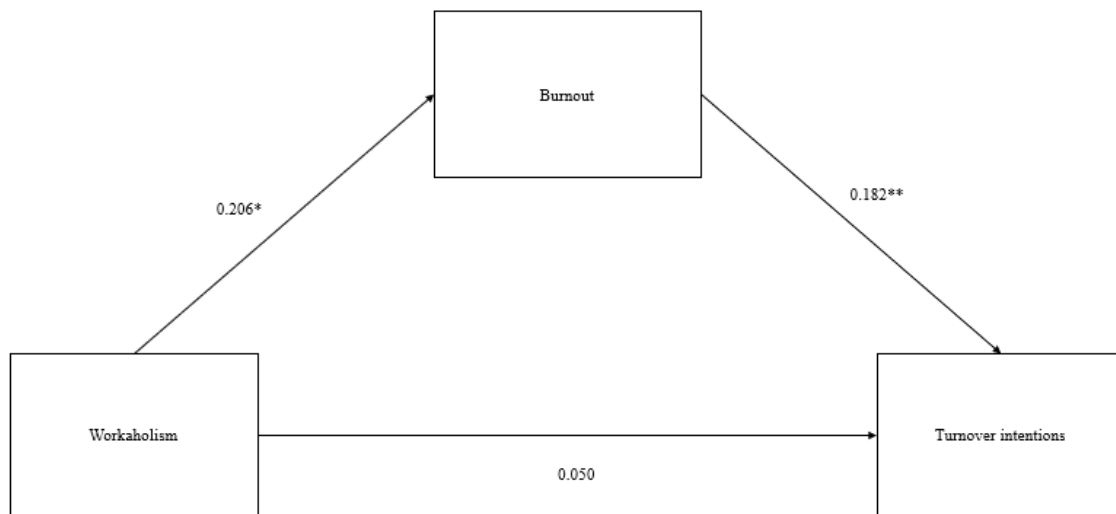


Figure 2. The statistical overall mediation model with regression coefficients. $**p < 0.001$, $*p < 0.05$.

Post hoc Analyses

Power Analysis

To determine the power associated with the sample in the current study, a Monte Carlo power analysis was conducted using Schoemann et al.'s (2017) application. The results of this power analysis showed that a sample size of 337 participants had a power of 0.59. According to Fritz and MacKinnon (2007), the desired power estimate is 0.80 or above to detect the mediated

effect. Thus, the power analysis for the current study highlights a limitation in terms of sample size.

Dimension-Level Analysis

To assess the workaholism-turnover intentions relationship at the dimension level, additional regression analyses were run in a single model with all four dimensions of workaholism using MPlus (see Figure 3). Of note, the ‘b path’ was consistent throughout the model for all dimensions. The unstandardized regression coefficient of the ‘b path’ between burnout and turnover intentions was positive and statistically significant ($B = 0.182$, S.E. = 0.022 , $p = 0.000$).

First, the relationship between the motivational dimension of workaholism and turnover intentions was mediated by burnout. The unstandardized regression coefficient of the ‘a path’ between the motivational dimension of workaholism and burnout was negative and statistically significant ($B = -0.221$, S.E. = 0.080 , $p = 0.006$). The unstandardized regression coefficient of the ‘c’ path’ between the motivational dimension of workaholism and turnover intentions was positive and not statistically significant ($B = 0.013$, S.E. = 0.033 , $p = 0.684$). To test for significance of the indirect effect, the bias-corrected bootstrap estimates were calculated with confidence intervals based on 5,000 iterations. The indirect effect estimate ($B = -0.041$, S.E. = 0.016 , $p = 0.008$) had 95% confidence intervals that did not include zero ($CI_{0.95} = -0.129, -0.034$), thus showing a negative and significant mediation effect. To determine the indirect effect size for this part of the model, a measure of relative magnitude was calculated (Preacher & Kelley, 2011). The indirect effect size was 1.46, which is large according to Cohen (1988).

Second, the relationship between the cognitive dimension of workaholism and turnover intentions was mediated by burnout. The unstandardized regression coefficient of the ‘a path’

between the cognitive dimension of workaholism and burnout was positive and statistically significant ($B = 0.406$, S.E. = 0.088, $p = 0.000$). The unstandardized regression coefficient of the ‘c’ path’ between the cognitive dimension of workaholism and turnover intentions was negative and not statistically significant ($B = -0.007$, S.E. = 0.040, $p = 0.853$). To test for significance of the indirect effect, the bias-corrected bootstrap estimates were calculated with confidence intervals based on 5,000 iterations. The indirect effect estimate ($B = 0.076$, S.E. = 0.019, $p = 0.000$) had 95% confidence intervals that did not include zero ($CI_{0.95} = 0.078, 0.183$), thus showing a positive and significant mediation effect. To determine the indirect effect size for this part of the model, a measure of relative magnitude was calculated (Preacher & Kelley, 2011). The indirect effect size was 1.10, which is large according to Cohen (1988).

Third, the relationship between the emotional dimension of workaholism and turnover intentions was mediated by burnout. The unstandardized regression coefficient of the ‘a path’ between the emotional dimension of workaholism and burnout was positive and statistically significant ($B = 0.199$, S.E. = 0.091, $p = 0.028$). The unstandardized regression coefficient of the ‘c’ path’ between the emotional dimension of workaholism and turnover intentions was positive and not statistically significant ($B = 0.008$, S.E. = 0.041, $p = 0.837$). To test for significance of the indirect effect, the bias-corrected bootstrap estimates were calculated with confidence intervals based on 5,000 iterations. The indirect effect estimate ($B = 0.037$, S.E. = 0.018, $p = 0.034$) had 95% confidence intervals that did not include zero ($CI_{0.95} = 0.015, 0.105$), thus showing a positive and significant mediation effect. To determine the indirect effect size for this part of the model, a measure of relative magnitude was calculated (Preacher & Kelley, 2011). The indirect effect size was 0.82, which is large according to Cohen (1988).

Fourth, the relationship between the behavioral dimension of workaholism and turnover intentions was not mediated by burnout. The unstandardized regression coefficient of the ‘a path’ between the behavioral dimension of workaholism and burnout was negative and not statistically significant ($B = -0.058$, $S.E. = 0.086$, $p = 0.498$). The unstandardized regression coefficient of the ‘c’ path’ between the behavioral dimension of workaholism and turnover intentions was positive and not statistically significant ($B = 0.029$, $S.E. = 0.036$, $p = 0.412$). To test for significance of the indirect effect, the bias-corrected bootstrap estimates were calculated with confidence intervals based on 5,000 iterations. The indirect effect estimate ($B = -0.011$, $S.E. = 0.016$, $p = 0.502$) had 95% confidence intervals that did include zero ($CI_{0.95} = -0.067, 0.027$), thus showing a negative and nonsignificant mediation effect. To determine the indirect effect size for this part of the model, a measure of relative magnitude was calculated (Preacher & Kelley, 2011). The indirect effect size was 0.61, which is medium according to Cohen (1988).

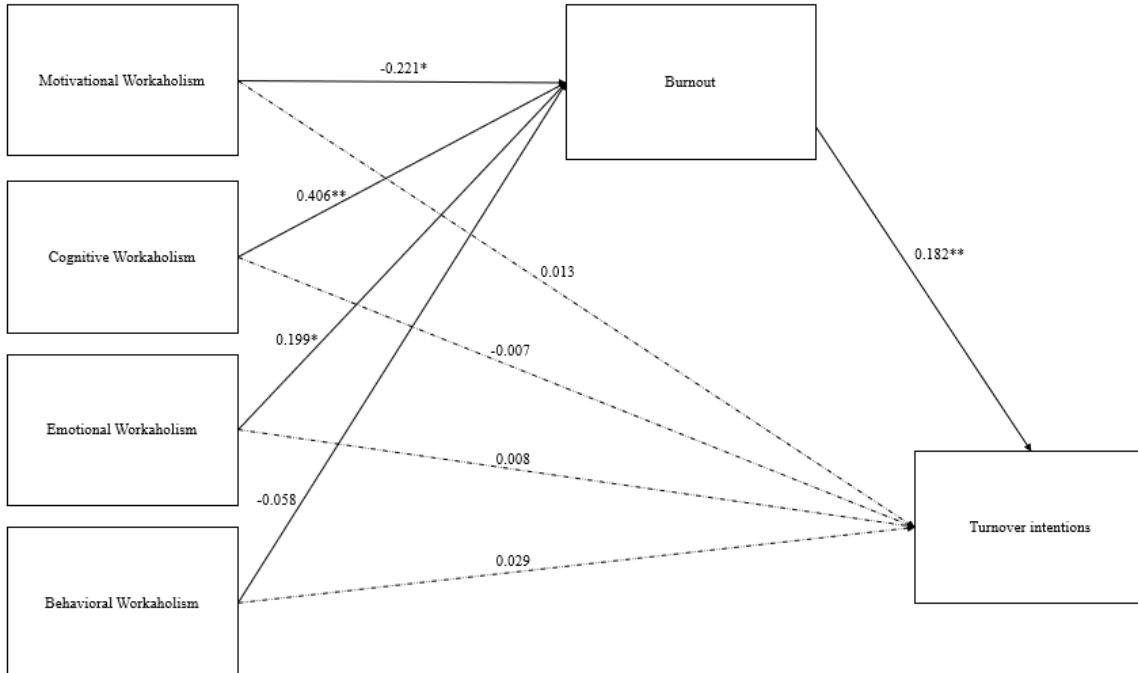


Figure 3. The statistical mediation model at the dimension level of workaholism with regression coefficients. $**p < 0.001$, $*p < 0.05$.

Relative Weight Analysis

Because the dimensions of the MWS are highly correlated (see Table 1), it may be difficult to detect and interpret the relationships between the workaholism dimensions and overall burnout. Also, further exploration was warranted regarding the relationship between motivational workaholism and burnout. While the mediation effect of overall burnout within the motivational workaholism-turnover intentions relationship was found to be negative and significant, the correlation between motivational workaholism and burnout was found to be nonsignificant ($r = -0.04, p > 0.05$). Therefore, a RWA was run in RStudio (RStudio Team, 2020) to confirm what bivariate effects were being shown and further explore the relative importance of each dimension as predictor variables in contributing to the outcome variable of overall burnout. RWA addresses the issue of multicollinearity and presents the percentage of variance explained in the criterion variable for each predictor variable; this analysis considers each predictor's unique contribution along with its contribution with other predictors present (LeBreton, Hargis, Griepentrog, Oswald, & Ployhart, 2007). Results are shown in Table 2.

From these results, cognitive workaholism accounted for approximately 64% of the predictable variance in burnout, as did emotional workaholism for approximately 20% of the predictable variance in burnout. This analysis further clarified the role motivational workaholism has in predicting burnout, as its relative importance was found to be nonsignificant with zero included in the confidence interval range ($CI_{0.95} = -0.001, 0.048$). Thus, it can be concluded that the previously found negative and significant indirect effect of burnout in the motivational workaholism-turnover intentions relationship was most likely inflated by the high intercorrelations between the workaholism dimensions. Finally, behavioral workaholism's

relative importance was also found to be nonsignificant with zero included in the confidence interval range ($CI_{0.95} = -0.008, 0.017$).

Table 2

Summary of the Relative Importance of the Workaholism Dimensions

Dimension	β	RW	RI	95% CI
Motivational	-0.221**	0.013	12.50%	-0.001, 0.048
Cognitive	0.406**	0.065	63.77%	0.022, 0.126
Emotional	0.199*	0.020	19.75%	0.002, 0.063
Behavioral	-0.058	0.004	3.98%	-0.008, 0.017

Note. $N = 337$. RW = raw weight, RI = relative importance, presented as a percentage of R^2 ; 95% CI = 95% confidence interval for significance. ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$.

Discussion

Workaholism has once been negatively linked to turnover intentions (Choi, 2013), but that association was not sufficiently explored. The current study re-explored this association with burnout as a mediator in the proposed relationship. In addition, the current study used the MWS (Clark et al., 2020) to measure workaholism, thus contributing to the scale's intended purpose of decontaminating the workaholism construct. The findings contribute to the workaholism, burnout, and turnover intention literatures in numerous ways. First, with the overall mediation model, the results further solidify the significant and positive associations between the overall constructs of workaholism and burnout, and those between burnout and turnover intentions. Second, burnout is an explanatory mechanism within the relationship between workaholism and turnover intentions. Lastly, the results of the dimension-level analysis of workaholism provides

important insight into workaholism as a multidimensional construct and its relationships with burnout and turnover intentions.

In the literature, workaholism and burnout have been shown to lead to significantly negative and harmful consequences for both the individual and their respective organization, like distress and absenteeism (Schaufeli et al., 2008; Maslach et al., 2001). And turnover intentions provide a stronger contribution to actual turnover than other variables, like one's level of job satisfaction, age, or tenure (Mobley et al., 1979). With a significant mediation effect found in this study, it provides further support for interventions to reduce burnout, along with attempting to address concerns with workaholism. Additionally, the mediated relationship between workaholism and turnover intentions adds more conceptual and empirical content to the antecedents of turnover intentions in the employee turnover literature.

The post hoc, dimension-level regression analysis showed that burnout positively and significantly mediates the relationships between cognitive and emotional workaholism and turnover intentions, while negatively and significantly mediating the relationship between motivational workaholism and turnover intentions. Further exploration through dimension-level bivariate correlations showed that cognitive and emotional workaholism were significantly correlated with the overall burnout construct (cognitive: $r = 0.26, p < 0.001$; emotional: $r = 0.16, p < 0.01$). However, the bivariate correlations between motivational and behavioral workaholism and burnout were not significant (motivational: $r = -0.04, p > 0.05$; behavioral: $r = 0.01, p > 0.05$). Specifically addressing the motivational dimension of workaholism, it accounts for residuals in the model but may not be the best predictor of burnout. It could be the case that a suppression effect was present. This means that a variable can be uncorrelated with the criterion variable yet still improve the prediction by being correlated with other predictors (Tzelgov &

Henik, 1991). This potential suppression effect was further explored with a RWA, which did find the relative importance of the motivational dimension on burnout to be nonsignificant (RI = 12.50%; $CI_{0.95} = -0.001, 0.048$). This is important to note when using the MWS in future studies when interpreting dimension-level results. Therefore, it can be argued that in the overall mediation model with workaholism, burnout, and turnover intentions that cognitive and emotional workaholism seem to be the driving forces in the outcome of a significant indirect effect.

Theoretical Implications

The use of the MWS in the present study contributes to the workaholism literature. This allows researchers to gain a more holistic and nuanced understanding of the components of workaholism and how they individually and collectively affect certain outcomes. Clark et al. (2020) have compared the MWS to other constructs of workaholism: the Work Addiction Risk Test (WART; Robinson, 1989, 1999), the WorkBAT (Spence & Robbins, 1992), and the Dutch Work Addiction Scale (DUWAS; Schaufeli, Shimazu, & Taris, 2009). Their analyses show that while the MWS is positively correlated with these three measures, it does not show redundancy with them. As it relates to the current research, Clark et al. (2020) have found in both hierarchical regression analyses and RWA that the MWS accounted for additional variance above and beyond the WART, WorkBAT, and DUWAS in the prediction of emotional exhaustion.

Clark et al. (2020) argue that assessing workaholism at the dimension level with the MWS allows for researchers to better understand the linkages between workaholism and negative health implications, which has become an area of increased interest. The current study has provided important information on which dimensions of workaholism may be more likely to

lead to certain negative individual outcomes like burnout and turnover intentions. Therefore, the multidimensional aspect of the MWS provides the opportunity to explore these linkages at a dimension level. Interestingly, in Clark et al.'s (2020) explorations of the dimensions of the MWS and how those predict different outcomes, the authors found that the cognitive and emotional dimensions added unique variance to the prediction of perfectionistic concerns above and beyond the behavioral and motivational dimensions. These findings may provide stronger theoretical implications for those two dimensions in the current study, highlighting a potential reason for the significant relationships found with cognitive and emotional workaholism and turnover intentions as mediated by burnout.

In relation to Hobfoll's (1989) COR theory, a theoretical alignment has been proposed between the dimensions in both the workaholism and burnout scales used in the current study. The positive and significant mediation effects of burnout within the relationships between cognitive and emotional workaholism and turnover intentions may be understood in relation to COR theory, in which internal energies are being expelled in response to resource loss. Since it was proposed that there was an alignment between cognitive workaholism and cognitive weariness, and emotional exhaustion and emotional workaholism, the results of the current study can be looked through a COR lens. Unfortunately, there is not a motivational dimension within the SMBM or one that could lend itself to alignment with motivational workaholism. It was still proposed that the motivational dimension could be explored with COR theory as internal energies are not typified by intrinsic value, and workaholics tend not to be intrinsically motivated (Hobfoll, 1989; Clark et al., 2020). However, it may be worth exploring how motivational workaholism could be more closely, theoretically aligned with burnout through COR theory in future research. Alignment was proposed between behavioral workaholism and physical fatigue.

Behavioral workaholism yielded nonsignificant results in both a bivariate correlation analysis with burnout and the dimension-level mediation analysis and RWA, thus providing evidence there they may not be an alignment between behavioral workaholism and physical fatigue.

Practical Implications

The results of this study can inform individual practices and organizational interventions. First, the mediation analysis of the overall constructs identifies burnout as a mediator within the workaholism-turnover intentions relationship. This is important information for employees to be aware of. Organizations can conduct primary, secondary, and tertiary interventions for their employees, with the latter two focusing on those experiencing workaholic tendencies and/or burnout symptoms. Past research has shown that work-directed and combined approaches (including both person- and work-directed interventions) to burnout show reductions in symptoms over a longer period as compared to just person-directed interventions which have greater short-term effects (Westermann et al., 2012). Therefore, it is not only important to provide individuals with resources but to also make changes at the organization level that can directly affect work tasks and culture. Regarding workaholism, organizations can create infographics or send wellness-related emails to employees informing them of how workaholic tendencies are positively related to burnout, which in turn can lead to intentions to quit. Within these types of correspondence could be tips on how to personally examine one's current behaviors, thoughts, or feelings that may be impacting them in negative ways. Research has shown improvements in workaholism symptomatology through meditation awareness training (Gordon et al., 2017). Regarding burnout, organizations can address concerns with an employee's workload or other areas of stress, like role ambiguity. Organizations can implement mindfulness, communication, and conflict resolution interventions as has been done in past

research to address burnout symptoms (Westermann et al., 2012). For both constructs, it may be beneficial to allow for both mental and physical breaks throughout the workday. Also, supervisors or managers could conduct surveys with employees to assess their levels of both workaholism and burnout. Those who show signs of either or both could have scheduled check-ins between supervisor and employee to ask what resources they may need or how they can better cope with their current workload and stressors.

The above list of possible interventions is not exhaustive, and the results from the analysis conducted at the dimension level for workaholism may provide additional ideas to target at-risk populations. As the current study found, cognitive and emotional workaholism are positively and significantly associated with burnout, predicting considerably high percentages of variance in burnout. Also, burnout significantly and positively mediates the relationships between both dimensions and turnover intentions. Thus, those with high levels of cognitive and/or emotional workaholism tendencies, as measured by the MWS, are at a greater risk of experiencing burnout and potentially having intentions to quit their jobs. Organizations can aim to intervene with those showing signs of cognitive and emotional workaholism. They can educate their employees on the potential dangers of these kinds of workaholism and how it can lead to negative individual outcomes. While workaholics have historically not relied on resources like social support (Schaufeli et al., 2008), those with high levels of cognitive or emotional workaholism may benefit from learning productive problem- or emotion-focused coping strategies. Mindfulness interventions may be a useful tool for these individuals. Any of the previously mentioned methods of intervening could be helpful as well, and it is essential to take the findings from the current study's dimension level analysis to inform individual and organizational practices. As the current study has shown, motivational and behavioral

workaholism do not seem to be the best predictors of burnout and thus may not be the areas in which managers and organizations choose to focus when creating interventions for the specific constructs of workaholism, burnout, and turnover intentions.

Limitations and Future Research

There are limitations to consider within the present study, along with future research to explore. The data was collected in a multi-wave study design, with a one-month time lag in between the three surveys. While this time lag was implemented to address potential concerns for common method variance, as recommended by Podsakoff et al. (2003), future researchers should conduct a true longitudinal study. Burnout has been found to significantly mediate the workaholism-turnover intentions relationship, but cause and effect cannot be concluded with the present research. Additionally, the power analysis for the overall mediation model was 0.59, which is below the desired estimate according to Fritz and MacKinnon (2007). In future studies, researchers should aim to recruit a larger number of participants for a greater estimate of power. Also, there is a need for continued use of the MWS in studies of workaholism, especially in MTurk samples, to help create a benchmark for the construct. Lastly, while Bothma and Roodt's TIS-6 (2015) was found to be sufficient in their validation study, their original 15-item measure (2004) did have a greater reliability coefficient ($\alpha = 0.91$). It may be beneficial to include the longer version in future studies exploring voluntary turnover intentions.

There are numerous avenues for future research. Studies can further explore nuances in the relationships between the workaholism dimensions and burnout. For example, more research can be conducted to explore the nonsignificant bivariate correlation between behavioral workaholism and burnout, in hopes to better understand that relationship. Also, the workaholism-turnover intentions relationship can be explored with different mediating variables. For instance,

motivational workaholism is not positively or significantly related to burnout and is nonsignificant in terms of its relative importance within the analysis; thus, its negative and significant indirect effect may have experienced a suppression effect. With that said, workaholism and its dimensions may have different relationships with other constructs of interest. Although a potential suppression effect was observed in the current study as it relates to motivational workaholism and burnout, that may not be the case for, say, motivational workaholism and job satisfaction or organizational commitment. Because the MWS's purpose is to decontaminate the workaholism literature and its relationships with other variables of interest, it is important to explore those further in future studies.

Studies could further examine the overall mediated relationship by including other variables of interest as moderators, thus exploring a moderated-mediation model. For example, the COVID-19 pandemic has changed the world of work in significant ways. With many employees working remotely, this could increase workaholic tendencies and potentially lead to cases of burnout. Researchers could examine what the workaholism-burnout relationship looks like for those who were forced to work from home or were unable to create boundaries within their work life, whether that be due to taking care of children, having longer hours with added computer time, or so on. Also, other variables could be explored as moderators in the burnout-turnover intention relationship. For example, those experiencing burnout who may also struggle with depression or low self-esteem might be more likely to want to quit their job. Job type could moderate either of the two relationships in the mediation model, as the job duties, expectations, and constraints of one's work could dictate how willing or able they are to express workaholic tendencies or how prone one is to experiencing burnout symptoms. As mentioned, these

variables of interest and others could be explored in a moderated-mediation model of how workaholism relates to turnover intentions.

Finally, researchers can go beyond assessing voluntary turnover intentions and explore this relationship with actual turnover behaviors, both voluntary and involuntary. This provides another reason for conducting this study with a longitudinal design. Also, stemming from the previously mentioned COVID-19 area of interest, many individuals may have experienced either voluntary or involuntary turnover. If it is identified that there is a relationship between workaholism and turnover behaviors, and even one mediated by burnout, then this is important information for both individuals and organizations. And ultimately, this will provide further empirical research to the turnover literature.

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Appendix A

Measures

Multidimensional Workaholism Scale (MWS; Clark et al., 2020)

The following statements are about how you feel, think, and behave about work. Please read each statement carefully and decide how often each of the statements is true regarding your job.

Please indicate for each statement the alternative that best describes how frequently the statement is true.

Items	Never true	1	2	Sometimes true	3	4	Always true	5
I always have an inner pressure inside of me that drives me to work.	1	2	3	4	5			
I work because there is a part inside of me that feels compelled to work.	1	2	3	4	5			
I have a strong inner desire to work all of the time.	1	2	3	4	5			
There is a pressure inside of me that drives me to work.	1	2	3	4	5			
I feel like I cannot stop myself from thinking about working.	1	2	3	4	5			
In general, I spend my free time thinking about work.	1	2	3	4	5			
At any given time, the majority of my thoughts are work related.	1	2	3	4	5			
It is difficult for me to stop thinking about work when I stop working.	1	2	3	4	5			
I feel upset if I have to miss a day of work for any reason.	1	2	3	4	5			
I am almost always frustrated when I am not able to work.	1	2	3	4	5			
I feel upset if I cannot continue to work.	1	2	3	4	5			
When something prevents me from working, I usually get agitated.	1	2	3	4	5			

For this statement, please select “often true”.	1	2	3	4	5
When most of my coworkers will take breaks, I keep working.	1	2	3	4	5
I work more than what is expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5
I tend to work longer hours than most of my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5
I tend to work beyond my job’s requirements.	1	2	3	4	5

Shirom-Melamed Burnout Measure (SMBM; Shirom & Melamed, 2006)

How Do You Feel at Work?

Below are a number of statements that describe different feelings that you may feel at work. Please indicate how often, in the past 30 workdays, you have felt each of the following feelings:

		Never or almost never	Very infrequently	Quite infrequently	Sometimes	Quite frequently	Very frequently	Always or almost always
P	1. I feel tired	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
P	2. I have no energy for going to work in the morning	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
P	3. I feel physically drained	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
P	4. I feel fed up	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
P	5. I feel like my “batteries” are “dead”	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
P	6. I feel burned out	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C	7. My thinking process is slow	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C	8. I have difficulty concentrating	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C	9. I feel I’m not thinking clearly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

C	10. I feel I'm not focused in my thinking	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C	11. I have difficulty thinking about complex things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E	12. I feel I am unable to be sensitive to the needs of coworkers and customers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E	13. I feel I am not capable of investing emotionally in coworkers and customers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E	14. I feel I am not capable of being sympathetic to co-workers and customers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Note. The letters before each item represent the three subscales of the Shirom-Melamed Burnout Measure (SMBM). The three subscales are: P = physical fatigue; E= emotional exhaustion; and C= cognitive weariness.

Turnover Intention Scale (TIS-6; Bothma & Roodt, 2013)

The following section aims to ascertain the extent to which you intend to stay at the organization.

Please read each question and indicate your response using the scale provided for each question:

During the past 9 months...

1	How often have you considered leaving your job?	Never	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	Always
3	How satisfying is your job in fulfilling your personal needs?	Very satisfying	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	Totally dissatisfying
4	How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at work to achieve your personal work-related goals?	Never	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	Always
6	How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?	Never	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	Always
7	How likely are you to accept another job at the same compensation level should it be offered to you?	Highly unlikely	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	Highly likely
8	How often do you look forward to another day at work?	Always	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	Never