

Stream 6. Human Resource Management

Competitive Session

**Exploring Turnover Intentions: Testing Differences across Employee Skill-
Levels**

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In response to calls within the turnover intentions literature, this study focuses on three samples: (1) low-skilled, (2) semi-skilled and (3) skilled employees to determine whether relationships tested differ across skill-levels. Using a combined sample of 473 employees using multi-group SEM analysis, we find effects that are consistent across the three individual samples and the combined sample. However, some effects were not supported across the samples especially the low-skilled group, specifically predicting emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. Additional analysis highlights the fundamental importance of both job satisfaction and perceived job mobility across all samples and we encourage future turnover intention studies to especially include these constructs. Overall, there is still strong support for consistent effects across the samples.

Keywords: *turnover, skills, job satisfaction, work-life balance.*

INTRODUCTION

Retaining employees is a primary concern for many organizations (Hausknecht, Rodda, & Howard, 2009). Turnover can be involuntary (e.g., lay-offs) or voluntary. Voluntary turnover is defined as “voluntary cessation of membership of an organization by an employee of that organization” (Morrell, Loan-Clarke, & Wilkinson, 2001, p. 220). Hence, voluntary turnover tends to be deemed avoidable and within the control of organizational leaders (Hom, Roberson, & Ellis, 2008). There is also a cost aligned with this type of turnover. Cascio and Boudreau (2008) reported figures of anywhere between 75-250% of an employee’s salary as the true cost of turnover. Studies that investigated employee turnover intentions, originally focused on demographics to find some correlations between certain demographics and the intention to leave one’s job (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). Research then focused on work environment factors such as pay (Hausknecht et al., 2009), supervisor support (DeConinck & Johnson, 2009), and work-family balance (Carlson, Grzywacz, & Zivnuska, 2009). Griffeth et al.’s (2000) meta-analysis found the main antecedents to turnover intentions were job satisfaction (JS), pay, leadership, co-workers, stress due to role clarity, and promotional chances.

However, most turnover intentions literature does not tend to take into account job type or the skill-levels of the employees (Rozell, Pettijohn, & Parker, 2011), focusing on based on white-collar (skilled) workers rather than blue-collar (low-skilled). In addition, there is a third skill-level that remains largely under researched – that of the semi-skilled worker. Consequently, the present study seeks to address this potentially fundamental gap by assessing relationships towards turnover

intentions (TI) across employees in three distinct categories: low-skilled, semi-skilled, and skilled employees.

TURNOVER AND SKILL-LEVELS

Often, March and Simon's (1958) model of withdrawal, predicated by movement ease and desirability, is seen as the first formal model of employee turnover (Hom, Mitchell, Lee, & Griffeth, 2012). Under this model, when both perceived ease of movement and desirability is high, then an employee is more likely to leave their job (March & Simon, 1958). Mobley (1977) continued work on turnover by investigating the link between JS and turnover, suggesting that the link between JS and turnover was more complex than stated in much of the research. Therefore, many studies researched a number of different antecedents and how they influenced an employee's JS and TI (Griffeth et al., 2000).

However, a major criticism of the turnover literature is that it suffers from homogeneous samples. For example, Allen, Hancock, and Vardaman (2014) noted that often research is based on a single organization or it only explores one specific group of people, concluding that the turnover literature is dominated by certain sample characteristics. Their analysis found that 81% of studies are based on people who are college graduates or higher, and most of the studies are based on homogeneous samples with 95% from one occupational group. In addition, 61% of the studies were based on professional workers. The present study offers three group categories within the work force: (1) low-skilled workers, (2) semi-skilled workers, and (3) skilled workers.

Low-skilled workers are normally defined by having low educational achievement, low pay, and relatively low job alternatives (Carless, Fewings-Hall, Hall, Hay, Hemsworth, & Coleman, 2007). Semi-skilled workers are those whose job requires a certain level of training. They are also slightly harder to replace, due to the estimates that it takes over 30 days for a replacement to be trained (Gregory, Zissimos, & Greenhalgh, 2001). Semi-skilled workers tend to have a slightly higher economic value placed on their jobs (Carless et al., 2007). In contrast skilled workers tend to be those who have attained a high level of educational achievement (Gregory et al., 2001), have more job alternatives, and are required to perform high levels of decision making. Therefore, how different

antecedents of turnover may vary by different groups of employees means a comparison study is warranted. Aligned with this approach is the work of Centers and Bugental (1966), who noted that job motivations tend to vary between different occupational levels, and they found at the professional-managerial level that pay was not an important factor and that interesting work was more significant of an indicator of JS. Consequently, by exploring the antecedents to TI between three-groups of employee skills (low-skilled, semi-skilled and skilled) the present study allows for a greater fine-tuned analysis than is typically undertaken in the literature (Allen et al., 2014).

HYPOTHESES

Supervisor support has been seen to be a very important influencer of job outcomes, as it often at the supervisor level that organizational policies are implemented (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Employees tend to form an opinion on how much their supervisor values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Maertz, Griffeth, Campbell, & Allen, 2007) and responds accordingly. The concepts of social exchange theory have been used to describe the reciprocal relationship between an employee and the organization they work for (Haar & Spell, 2004). Settoon, Bennett, and Liden (1996) explained social exchanges as “exchanges between supervisors and subordinates are based on mutual trust and loyalty, interpersonal affect, and respect for each other, the better the subordinate’s performance in terms of expected and ‘extra’ or citizenship behaviors” (p. 224).

When a subordinate feels an obligation to their supervisor they often work over and above what is required of them (Settoon et al., 1996) and supervisor support has also been found to link positively to JS (Baruch-Feldman, Brondolo, Ben-Dayana, & Schwartz, 2002). Allen (2001) and Haar and Roche (2008) found supervisor support was positively related to JS and negatively related to TI. The present study expects employees who rate their supervisors as being more supportive will reciprocate under social exchange theory and report higher JS and lower intentions to leave.

Hypothesis 1: Supervisor support will be (a) positively related to JS and (b) negatively related to TI.

Work-Life Balance (WLB) has become an important issue for many employees, as the number of working hours continues to rise and the ability to balance all aspects of their life has become harder to

do (Haar, 2013; Bohle et al., 2008). Therefore, WLB becomes a significant factor when assessing how employees feel about their job. Haar (2013) defined work life balance as “the extent to which an individual is able to adequately manage the multiple roles in their life including work, family, and other major responsibilities” (p. 3308). The inability to effectively meet one’s major life or family responsibilities has been found to lead to increased levels of stress and stress-related illness, lower life satisfaction, high rates of family strife, violence, divorce, and rising incidence of substance abuse, problems with parenting and child supervision, and escalating rates of juvenile delinquency and violence (Hobson, Delunas, & Kesic, 2001).

A meta-analysis done by Ford, Heinen, and Langkamer (2007) states that “work stress crosses over into the family domain in its effect on domain-specific satisfaction more than family stress crosses over into the work domain” (p. 68). However, while much of the literature on balance has been dominated by examining work and family roles only, it is important to realize that there are responsibilities that people have outside of the family. For example, many people have hobbies, sports or community roles that require their time. Therefore, the need for employees to balance all aspects of their life becomes very important. WLB has also been linked to various outcomes such as JS and life satisfaction (Haar, 2013; Haar, Russo, Sune, & Ollier-Malaterre, 2014) as well as decrease mental health issues (Haar, 2013; Haar et al., 2014). It has also been found that lack of WLB can lead to higher rates of absenteeism and turnover, reduced productivity, decrease JS, lower levels of organizational commitment and loyalty, and rising healthcare costs (Hobson et al., 2001). Brough et al. (2014) found WLB from time one, significant and negatively related to TI in time two. As such, we can expect WLB to enhance the satisfaction of employees while minimizing their intentions to leave their jobs.

Hypothesis 2: WLB will be (a) positively related to JS and (b) negatively related to TI.

Emotional Exhaustion is a chronic state of emotional and depletion (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998) which occurs when an individual is overwhelmed by the demands on their time and energy (Boles, Johnston, & Hair Jr, 1997). Emotional exhaustion is viewed as the first stage in the process of employee burnout and often the most central quality of burnout (Boles et al., 1997; Maslach,

Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Due to emotional exhaustion being seen as a key component of the burnout process, research has tried to find links between emotional exhaustion and other employee outcomes. One of the first employee outcomes to be researched was job performance. It was hypothesized by Maslach (1982) that there would be negative relationship between burnout and employee performance and this was confirmed by Wright and Bonett (1997) and Wright and Cropanzano (1998) who found that among their sample of professional workers that emotional exhaustion predicted subsequent work performance. Emotional exhaustion has also been linked to health issues for employees (Maslach et al. 2001), counterproductive work behaviours, and decreased JS (Babakus, Cravens, Johnston, & Moncrief, 1999). In addition, emotional exhaustion has been linked with voluntary turnover. Babakus, Yavas, and Karatepe, (2008) found a significant positive relationship ($\beta = .40$) between emotional exhaustion and TI amount frontline hotel workers. Similarly, a positive relationship between emotional exhaustion and TI ($r = .34$) was also found among social workers (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). Given the links to both TI and JS, we predict:

Hypothesis 3: Emotional exhaustion will be (a) negatively related to JS and (b) positively related to TI.

Job Satisfaction is one of the most researched predictors of an employee's TI. JS is defined as "the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values" and JS is "a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from a one's job and what one perceives it as offering or entailing" (Locke, 1969, p. 316). However, at the crux of JS is the fact that it is an employee's appraisal to what degree the job fulfils one's own job values and therefore creates a positive emotional state of satisfaction (Coomber & Louis Barriball, 2007). JS gained traction as researchers saw its value as a precursor to many organizational outcomes, including better firm performance, better customer service (Lu, While & Barriball, 2005), and lower employee turnover (Tett & Meyer, 1993; Griffeth et. al, 2000). In contrast, dissatisfaction with a job can cause poor performance or even devious behaviours (Christian & Ellis, 2014). Within service areas, such as customer service or health care, dissatisfaction with a job can lead to a decrease in customer/patient care (Lu et al., 2005). Studies have found that JS was the

strongest predictor of TI (Lambert, Lynne Hogan, & Barton, 2001; Tutuncu & Kozak, 2007; Griffeth et.al, 2000). In Tutuncu and Kozak's (2007) study, they found that overall JS was the strongest predictor of TI. Roznowski and Hulin (1992) stated that JS measures are "the most informative data a manager can have for predicting employee behavior" (p. 26). Consequently, we predict the following.

Hypothesis 4: JS will be negatively related to TI.

Mediation Model. Based on a large number of empirical studies in the current literature (e.g., Haar, 2013; Wu, Rusyidi, Claiborne, & McCarthy, 2013; Haar et al., 2014; Brough et al., 2014; Russo, Shteigman, & Carmeli, in press; Hopkins, 2005; Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011; DeConinck & Johnson, 2009; Van Dick et al., 2004; Skaalvik, & Skaalvik, 2011; Brough et al., 2014) we expect the influence of supervisor support, WLB and emotional exhaustion will be mediated – supervisor support by WLB, and the other two effects by JS. Thus,

Hypothesis 5: WLB will mediate the relationship between supervisor support and (a) JS and (b) TI.

Hypothesis 6: JS will mediate the relationship between (a) WLB and TI and (b) emotional exhaustion and TI.

Skill-Levels. In regards to relationships across various skill-levels, the present study suggests there will be differences. We suggest that the influence that supervisor support will have on outcomes will differ across the different skill-level groups. Semi-skilled and skilled employees are likely to be independent and not rely on their supervisors, while a low-skilled worker's day might be more heavily influenced by their supervisor. In contrast, semi-skilled and skilled workers may only need their supervisor for certain aspects, such as overseeing a request for resources. This suggests that for low-skilled employees, supervisor support will have a stronger influence on their outcomes compared to the other skilled employees. Unlike supervisor support, WLB has been found to be important for a variety of employees across various status levels (Haar, 2013). The importance of WLB has been proven for a wide variety of employees across various national settings (Haar et al., 2014), suggesting its influence on outcomes will be comparable across skill-levels employees.

We do expect there to be skill-level differences across emotional exhaustion. This is a construct that originally focused on human service professionals (Maslach & Jackson, 1981), and research typically includes skilled professions such as nurses, teachers, lawyers, engineers, and physicians (Jackson, Schwab, & Schuler, 1986). It has also specifically targeted CEOs (Roche & Haar, 2013). As such, we suggest the influence of emotional exhaustion will be different for low-skilled employees. Finally, we suggest a stable effect across skill-level from JS towards TI because there is an inordinate amount of research supporting these relationships (Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom et al., 2012). Therefore, we expect that JS will be negatively related to turnover intention across all skill-levels. Overall, we hypothesize stable effects from WLB and JS, but differing effects – particularly in the low-skilled workers, for supervisor support and emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 7a: There will be no significant differences across the relationships by skill-level (low-skilled, semi-skilled, and skilled) from WLB and JS.

Hypothesis 7b: There will be significant differences by skill-level from supervisor support and TI, with a stronger effect for low-skilled employees.

METHOD

Recent arguments about empirical studies and statistical tests (Nuzzo, 2014) highlight the need for greater replication to provide greater confidence than findings from a single study.

Sample and Procedure. Three studies were undertaken. Study One was low-skilled worker data were collected from a single private sector (construction) organization with 180 employees in a large metropolitan New Zealand city. 100 completed responses were received (56% response rate). Study Two and Three: Data for semi-skilled and skilled workers were collected simultaneously from a random study of 150 organizations of various sizes, across a wide regional area of New Zealand from various industries for each study. Skilled respondents included bankers, lawyers, academics and health professionals, while semi-skilled included receptionists, office assistant, shop attendant and delicatessen worker. The crossover of 50 organizations was where semi-skilled employees (e.g., secretaries) were collected along-side skilled employees (e.g., lawyers). Ultimately 131 semi-skilled and 242 skilled employees completed the survey - demographic breakdown in Table 1.

<< INSERT TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE >>

We combined the three samples together and report the results with the samples combined. A multi-group analysis was then run where the three individual samples are analyzed separately.

Measures. Supervisor support was measured with 5-items by Lambert (2000). A sample item “My supervisor feels each of us is important as an individual” ($\alpha = .91$). WLB was measured using a 3-item measure by Haar (2013), with good reliability ($\alpha = .80$). JS was measured using 4-items by Judge, Bono, Erez and Locke (2005). Sample questions are “Most days I am enthusiastic about my work” ($\alpha = .84$). Emotional exhaustion was measured by 3-items from Maslach and Jackson (1981), sample item is “I feel used up at the end of the workday” ($\alpha = .86$). TI was measured using a 4-item measure by Kelloway, Gottlieb and Barham (1999), sample item “I am planning to look for a new job” ($\alpha = .92$). We controlled for age (in years), and perceived job mobility by Tepper (2000), item “If I were to quit my job, I could find another job that is just as good”, because perceived job mobility will impact on an employee’s plans for leaving their job (Jackofsky, 1984), which has empirical support (Tepper, 2000; Harvey & Martinko, 2009).

Measurement Models. To confirm the separate dimensions of the various constructs, measures were tested by SEM using AMOS 22.0. Williams, Vandenberg and Edwards (2009) offer the following goodness-of-fit indexes as superior ways to assess model fit: (1) the comparative fit index ($CFI \geq .95$), (2) the root-mean-square error of approximation ($RMSEA \leq .08$), and (3) the standardized root mean residual ($SRMR \leq .10$). The hypothesized measurement model and two alternative models are shown in Table 2.

<< INERT TABLE 2 ABOUT HERE >>

Overall, the hypothesized measurement model did fit the data best.

Analysis. Hypotheses were tested using SEM in AMOS to assess the direct and mediation effects of the study variables. We controlled for the effects of age and perceived job mobility. In order to test mediated relationship, we followed the Monte Carlo method for assessing mediation as described by Preacher and Hayes (2008).

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics for the study variables are shown in Table 3.

<< INSERT TABLE 3 ABOUT HERE >>

Table 3 shows that all the main variables are significantly correlated with each other in the expected directions (all $p < .01$).

Structural Models. A number of alternative structural models were tested, to determine the most optimal model based on the data.

<< INSERT TABLE 4 ABOUT HERE >>

Overall, the partial mediation model is superior to the other models all at $p < .001$. The final structural models are shown in Figure 1. This figure also includes the mediation results (pre- and post).

<< INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE >>

Following recommendations of Grace and Bollen (2005), unstandardized regression coefficients are presented. Figure 1 shows that supervisor support is significantly linked with WLB (path coefficient = .45, $p < .001$), JS (path coefficient = .13, $p < .05$), and emotional exhaustion (path coefficient = -.17, $p < .01$). WLB is significantly linked with JS (path coefficient = .40, $p < .001$) and emotional exhaustion (path coefficient = -.47, $p < .001$). Emotional exhaustion is significantly linked with JS (path coefficient = -.17, $p < .01$) while JS is significantly and negatively linked with TI (path coefficient = -.68, $p < .001$). Perceived job mobility is towards TI (path coefficient = .35, $p < .001$). The model accounts for modest amounts of variance towards WLB ($r^2 = .18$), moderate amounts towards JS ($r^2 = .27$) and emotional exhaustion ($r^2 = .30$), but large amounts of variance towards TI ($r^2 = .57$).

Hypothesis 5 and 6 were confirmed by Monte Carlo tests (at 20,000 repetitions) provided support for this mediation effect (Preacher & Hayes, 2008) all at $p < .05$. Finally, to test for the Hypotheses 7 regarding potential differences between skill-levels (low-skilled, semi-skilled, and skilled), a multi-group analysis (Bou & Satorra, 2010) was conducted in AMOS. Results showed there was a significant difference by skill: $\Delta\chi^2 = 97.9$, $df=42$, $p = .000$, supporting Hypothesis 7b. A comparison between the overall findings and the individual effects for each of the skill level samples is shown in Table 5.

<< INSERT TABLE 5 ABOUT HERE >>

Table 5 shows that some relationships hold across all samples (combined, low-skilled, semi-skilled, and skilled employees): supervisor support to WLB, JS to TI, and perceived job mobility to TI. This

supports the assertions of Hypothesis 7a around there being no significant differences across these well established relationships in the literature. The consistent support for WLB to emotional exhaustion further adds to this list. However, there was support for Hypothesis 7b regarding significant differences across less tested relationships and in particular this was found in the low-skilled sample: relationships of supervisor support to emotional exhaustion, WLB to JS and emotional exhaustion to JS all were not significant and thus did not hold in this group, suggesting some differences may exist between skill-groups. However, an explanation for this might come from the r^2 values around TI when we compare the skill-level models. For the low-skilled group this is very high at .72 (see Table 4), suggesting the other relationships might be more dominant at predicting TI, for example WLB to emotional exhaustion has a path coefficient = -1.1 ($p < .001$), more than double the strength of this relationship in the other samples. There were also a few differences in the skilled sample, and overall, the findings suggest that some relationships appear to hold well across all samples, but for some skill-groups, this might not be universal. As such, we have some support for Hypothesis 7b.

DISCUSSION

The aim of this study was to use a multi-study approach to address the potential differences in TI among employees of differing skill levels. Although there has been some previous research comparing blue-collar and white-collar workers, these studies have often overlooked the fact that there are differences within these broader groups. Therefore, this study divided the workforce into three different skill level groups: (1) low-skilled (2) semi-skilled (3) skilled. This enabled research to be done across various industries and organizations. It was hypothesised that JS would be negatively related to TI across all three skill levels. This hypothesis was confirmed with significant negative links between JS and TI for all three skill-groups. Therefore, the results of this study echo many of the past studies that JS is a strong predictor of TI (Tett & Meyer, 1993), but adding to the literature that this can hold across a wide range of employees. Furthermore, the strength of JS as a predictor of TI across all three skill level groups, suggests that JS is a key variable in the turnover process regardless of skill level.

In addition, this study also found other consistent effects across all three skill levels: job mobility to TI and WLB to emotional exhaustion. While perceived job mobility has theoretical support for influencing TI (Jackofsky, 1984) its empirical support is light (for exceptions see Tepper, 2000; Harvey & Martinko, 2009). Overall, the present study provides direction for studies on TI – especially across diverse skill-groups, by encouraging the inclusion of perceived job mobility when assessing TI of employees. In addition, the significant relationship between WLB and emotional exhaustion across all three skill levels suggests that this is a relationship that warrants further research, because presently the literature focuses only on work-family conflict (e.g., Karatepe, & Tekinkus, 2006). Furthermore, our findings of WLB predicting JS, and thus indirectly TI, suggests studies including WLB may also enhance our understanding of what helps retain employees to their job.

Overall, this study also proposed a model in which WLB mediated supervisor support to JS and JS mediated both WLB and emotional exhaustion towards TI. This model was supported in our combined sample, and support was found for the model for semi-skilled and skilled workers but not for the low-skilled employees. The path for TI of the low-skilled employee seemed less complex. For the low-skilled employees, it was supervisor support which predicted JS and which in turn, was negatively related to TI. As such, we understand that some core factors play a vital role in understanding TI – supervisor support, JS and perceived job mobility – across three skill-levels, but the process may be more complex for higher skilled employees, including the role of WLB and emotional exhaustion. Nonetheless, as there very few multi-studies that include low-skilled workers, this study adds to the literature by finding that the turnover process can vary between different skill levels of employees particularly for low-skilled workers. The results of this study suggest that there are differences among different skill level groups and therefore more research is needed to explore these groups in depth.

Much of the turnover intention literature is based on a snapshot in time (Mitchell, Burch, & Lee, 2014), and the present study is no different. Kammeyer-Mueller, Wanberg, Glomb, and Ahlburg (2005), only a few studies have investigated attitudinal, behavioural and contextual antecedents and outcomes over time (e.g., Liu, Mitchell, Lee, Holtom, & Hinkin, 2012). For example, Holtom, Tidd,

Mitchell, and Lee (2013) found “the predictive effect of embeddedness and satisfaction on turnover increased with tenure” (p. 1346). Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2005) used a dynamic model of turnover rather than a static model when looking at the TI of employees and found leavers became less satisfied and less committed over time. However, they also found that several of the predictors of turnover that were present in the first few months of tenure with an organization were predictive of later turnover, encouraging longitudinal studies. Another limitation is the use of self-reported data. Podsakoff and Organ (1986) noted that a critical problem with self-reports is “identifying the potential causes of artifactual covariance between self-report measures of what they are presumed to be two distinctly different variables” (p.534). This goes hand in hand with the argument that self-reporting methods bring in common method bias. However, as Spector (2006) notes, self-reporting alone may not account for common method bias but rather there may be other biasing factors. For example, in self-reporting questionnaires participants must recall information and this can cause errors and bias within the results (Bradburn, Rips, & Shevell, 1987).

Importantly, the current study conducted three studies which provided replication of the data and enabled a strong generalizability of the findings. For example, JS was a consistently powerful predictor of TI. As such, the present study and its use of multiple data sets respond to calls from Nuzzo (2014) regarding the need for greater replication. Similarly, other authors have urged greater replication to promote scientific advancement (Tsang & Kwan, 1999). Furthermore, the use of higher level analysis, specifically CFA in SEM provides greater confidence in the items measuring distinct constructs, as does using a multi-group analysis for comparing the combined sample, and the use of Monte Carlo analysis to confirm mediation effects.

In conclusion, the present study found that many of the antecedents to TI were similar among different skill-levels of employees; in particular, JS and perceived job mobility. In addition, this study found that overall the effects of WLB to emotional exhaustion and JS held across semi-skilled and skilled employees. However, there were still differences especially on the low-skilled group. Overall, this study provides an initial look into the TI of the low-skilled, semi-skilled, skilled worker, with findings suggesting that while dominant findings in the literature likely hold, the relationships and processes for low-skilled workers especially, need further investigation.

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Table 1. Demographic Breakdown of the Three Study Samples

Demographics:	Study 1: Low-Skilled	Study 2: Semi-Skilled	Study 3: Skilled
Sample Size	102	131	242
Females	11%	72%	55%
Age Range	18-65 years	19-67 years	19-62 years
Average Age	45 years (SD=11 years)	34.5 years (SD=12.3 years)	35.5 years (SD=11.1 years)
Married	70%	50%	63%
Parent	82%	48%	59%
Hours Worked/Week	50 hours (SD=6.5 hours)	39 hours (SD=9.6 hours)	40 hours (SD=9.6 hours)
Qualification:			
High School	100%	31%	22%
Technical College	--	25%	18%
University	--	44%	39%
Postgraduate Degree	--	--	21%
Industry:			
Private	100%	47%	44%
Public Sectors	--	46%	48%
Not-For-Profit	--	7%	8%

Table 2. Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Study Measures

Model	Model Fit Indices					Model Differences			Details
	χ^2	df	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δ df	p	
1. Hypothesized 6 factor model: supervisor support, work-life balance, job satisfaction, emotional exhaustion, turnover intentions and job mobility.	445.6	156	.952	.063	.042				
2. Alternative 5-factor model: supervisor support, work-life balance, job satisfaction, emotional exhaustion, turnover intentions and job mobility <u>combined</u> .	454.0	160	.951	.062	.043	8.4	4	.1	Model 2 to 1
3. Alternative 5-factor model: supervisor support, work-life balance and job satisfaction <u>combined</u> , turnover intentions and job mobility.	793.0	161	.895	.091	.079	347.4	5	.001	Model 3 to 1

Table 2. Correlations and Descriptive Statistics of Study Variables (All Data)

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Age	38.3	13.9	--						
2. Perceived Job Mobility	2.6	1.4	-.11*	--					
3. Supervisor Support	3.7	.80	-.07	-.15**	--				
4. Work-Life Balance	3.3	.81	-.06	-.16**	.36**	--			
5. Job Satisfaction	3.6	.82	.19**	-.24**	.28**	.39**	--		
6. Emotional Exhaustion	2.7	.94	.06	.18**	-.32**	-.45**	-.36**	--	
7. Turnover Intentions	2.7	1.2	-.16**	.54**	-.27**	-.31**	-.57**	.27**	--

N=473, *p<.05, **p<.01

Table 3. Model Comparisons for Structural Models

Model	Model Fit Indices					Model Differences			
	χ^2	df	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	χ^2	Δ df	p	Details
Model 1	469.9	170	.950	.061	.041				
Model 2	574.7	173	.934	.070	.070	104.8	3	.001	Model 2 to 1
Model 3	527.5	176	.942	.065	.084	57.6	6	.001	Model 3 to 1

All models include control variables: age and perceived job mobility. Both controls are directly linked to turnover intentions and covary with all other variables.

Model 1 = (1) A partial mediation model where supervisor support predicts work-life balance and both predict emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. In turn, emotional exhaustion predicts job satisfaction, and then both emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction predicts turnover intentions.

Model 2 = (2) A direct effects model where supervisor support and work-life balance predicts emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

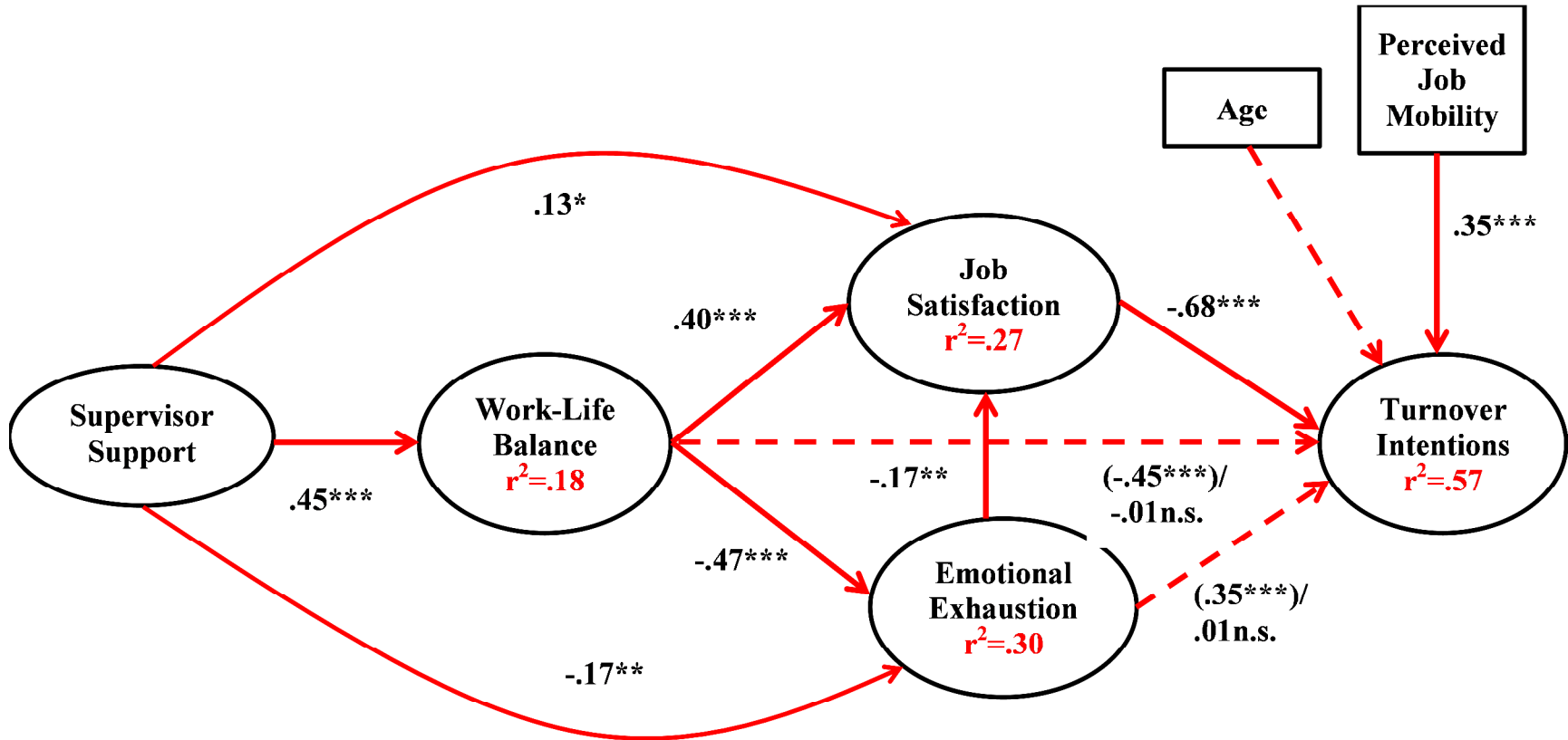
Model 3 = (3) A full mediation model where supervisor support predicts work-life balance and work-life balance predicts emotional exhaustion, and emotional exhaustion predicts job satisfaction, and then job satisfaction predicts turnover intentions.

Table 4. Comparisons of Skill Level Effects

Relationships	Combined Sample	Low-Skilled Sample	Semi-Skilled Sample	Skilled Sample
Supervisor Support -> Work-Life Balance	.45***	.58***	.20†	.35***
Supervisor Support -> Job Satisfaction	.15*	.41*	.16†	n.s.
Supervisor Support -> Emotional Exhaustion	-.18**	n.s.	-.31**	n.s.
Work-life Balance -> Job Satisfaction	.37***	n.s.	.39***	.22**
Work-life Balance -> Emotional Exhaustion	-.46***	-1.1***	-.25**	-.42***
Emotional Exhaustion -> Job Satisfaction	-.17**	n.s.	-.21*	-.18*
Job Satisfaction -> Turnover Intentions	-.69***	-.40***	-.94***	-.75***
Perceived Job Mobility -> Turnover Intentions	.34***	.51***	.27***	.30***
Hypothesized Relationships				
Supervisor Support -> Turnover Intentions		--	-.31*	--
R ² for Turnover Intentions	.56	.72	.59	.50
Post-Hoc Analysis				
R ² for Turnover Intentions Excluding the variables below (1-3):				
1. Perceived Job Mobility	.43	.52	.51	.39
2. Job Satisfaction	.38	.62	.41	.31
3. Perceived Job Mobility and Job Satisfaction	.19	.25	.30	.15

†p < .1, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001, n.s. = non-significant result

Figure 1. Final Model (Combined Sample)



***p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001, n.s.=non-significant**