THE INFLUENCE OF WORKAHOLISM AND BURNOUT ON INTENTION TO QUIT AMONGST ACADEMIC EMPLOYEES AT A SELECTED UNIVERSITY IN THE WESTERN CAPE

Victoria Andrews

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Supervisor: Prof. Marieta du Plessis

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DECLARATION

I, **Victoria Andrews** declare that THE INFLUENCE OF WORKAHOLISM AND BURNOUT ON INTENTION TO QUIT AMONGST ACADEMIC EMPLOYEES AT A SELECTED UNIVERSITY IN THE WESTERN CAPE is my own work and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

Signature:

Date: 12/03/2020

DECLARATION OF LANGUAGE EDITING

Jomoné Müller

Language Practitioner
SATI No. 1002831
BA Hons (Language practice)

www.jmuller.co.za
Tel: +27 84 406 0029
jomone@jmuller.co.za

2019/12/06

To whom it may concern

This is to confirm that I, the undersigned, have language edited the completed research of *Victoria Andrews* entitled: *THE INFLUENCE OF WORKAHOLISM AND BURNOUT ON INTENTION TO QUIT AMONGST ACADEMIC EMPLOYEES AT A SELECTED UNIVERSITY IN THE WESTERN CAPE.*

No changes were permanently affected and were left to the discretion of the student. The responsibility of implementing the recommended language changes rests with the author of the thesis.

Yours truly

Jomoné Müller

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First and Foremost, all praise and glory to God for giving me the strength and ability complete my academic journey and research paper. My academic journey is a product of the faith I have in the biblical verse: "Trust in the Lord with all your heart, and lean not on your own understanding, in all your ways acknowledge Him, and He shall direct your paths." Proverbs 3:5-6

To my parents for affording me the opportunity to kick start my academic journey, without you this would not have been possible.

Yaser - my husband, my biggest cheerleader! Thank you for your endless support and for believing in me. Thank you for all the sacrifices you made to support me on this journey. I appreciate you!

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ABSTRACT

Keywords:

Burnout, Workaholism, Intention to Quit, Academic staff

Universities worldwide have to contend with a changing landscape due to the massification of education, additional pressure being placed on academia with respect to research outputs, teaching a transforming student base, along with political and social pressures. In South Africa, in particular, there has been increasing pressure on government to effect socio-political and legislative changes to ensure that those that were previously disadvantaged are granted free educational opportunities. Within an academic milieu, talent retention of staff at higher education institutions (HEIs) in South Africa has become a challenge.

Research highlights many changes in the nature of work over the past few decades, including an increasingly prevalent culture of long working hours and increasing work intensity across many sectors. Within academia, recent research indicates a culture of increasing work intensity over time often combined with decreasing resources and competing demands. Once assumed to be a low-pressure job, research reports that significant mind set shifts have been needed within academia in order to cope with the heavy workloads, administrative, teaching, community outreach and publishing requirements and expectations within this group of employees. These additional expectations are likely to result in burnout, which is defined as a prolonged response or "'psychological syndrome'" in response to chronic interpersonal stressors on the job. Burnout affects all professions but tends to be more pervasive in human service occupations such as education. Despite this evident recognition, there is a paucity of research on burnout among South African academics. Amongst the studies conducted, however, evidence suggests that burnout is escalating, and consequently academic careers are becoming less attractive.

The extant research reveals that the repercussions of burnout are accompanied by declines in mental and physical health, low morale, substance abuse, weakening of interpersonal relationships, deterioration in teaching and research performance, increased absenteeism and ultimately considerations of leaving the profession. This is likely to be exacerbated in those academics who display a propensity towards workaholism. Workaholism has become a

prevalent phenomenon within organisations, which needs to be managed more effectively to offset its damaging effects on employee health and productivity. Associations have been established between workaholism, absenteeism, psychological ill -health, physical ill ill-health, stress and burnout. Faced with increasing professional and operational challenges, academics may develop the resultant impact and be inclined to intend to quit.

The main objective of the research study was to determine the relationship between workaholism and burnout on the intention to quit amongst academic employees at a uUniversity in the Western Cape. A quantitative method was used to generate the result by means of survey distribution to the targeted population. Convenience sampling was used to select academic staff in the study. Questionnaires were sent electronically and an additional one hundred and fifty 150 hardcopy questionnaires were administered. Fifty-three responses were received electronically, and fifty-three53 hardcopy completed questionnaires. In total, one hundred and six106 questionnaires were completed, of which one hundred 100 questionnaires were used for the study.

The surveys included a biographical questionnaire, Workaholism Analysis Questionnaire (WAQ) (2013), the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) (1981) and the Turnover Intentions Questionnaire (TIQ) (2008). The results indicated that there is a significant positive relationship between Eemotional Eexhaustion and turnover, Eemotional Eexhaustion and workaholism, Ddepersonalisation and workaholism, and workaholism and turnover intention. In addition, the results further indicated a strong negative relationship between Ppersonal Aaccomplishment and Tturnover Iintention. The results further showed that a medium positive relationship between Ddepersonalisation and turnover intention exists. The regression analysis indicated that a significant proportion of the variance in turnover intention is explained by Eemotional Eexhaustion. Conclusions were drawn, and recommendations are made to the uUniversity in order to address this potential problem.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Over the last few years, there has been a proliferation in media attention pertaining to a dynamic, hyper turbulent and changing education landscape, which necessitates a re-examination of strategies to attract develop and retain academic employees both locally and internationally (Theron, Barkhuizen, & Du Plessis, 2014). The demand for academic staff in higher education institutions (HEIs) is increasing and is expected to continue to increase (Theron, et al. 2014). Simultaneously, retention problems and intention to leave are worsening the problem, and a so-called academic "retirement swell" is also apparent, leaving HEIs with no option but to investigate the retention of academic staff (HESA, 2011; Pienaar & Bester, 2008). In South Africa, heightened awareness of, and concern for attrition in academia, have formed the basis of research (see e.g. Bezuidenhout & Cilliers, 2010; Coetzee & Rothmann, 2005; Field & Buitendach, 2011; Rothmann & Essenko, 2007; Rothmann & Jordaan, 2006; Rothmann, 2008; Viljoen, 2006; Viljoen,).

Internationally, research has been undertaken to explore well-being, workaholism, burnout, stress and turnover intentions among academics in a variety of countries, for example, Australia (Boyd, Bakker, Pignata, Winefield, Gillespie & Stough, 2011), China (Chen, 2014; Fong & Ng, 2012; Zhou, 2014), Ireland (Hogan, 2016), Spain (Del Libano, Llorens, Salanova & Schaufeli, 2012), Japan (Hu & Schaufeli, 2011; Matanle & Matsui, 2011; Schimazu & Schaufeli, 2009), the Netherlands (Taris, Schaufeli & Verhoeven, 2011), Nigeria (Karatepe, 2011), India (Ramamoorthy, Kulkarni, Gupta & Flood, 2007), Poland (Bartczak, 2012) and Norway (Torp, Lysfjord & Midje, 2018).

Generally, institutions considered to be at the centre of society's self-understanding, the hallmark of its history and values, have had to be open to change and challenge – to embrace the new (Harvey, Drew & Smith, 2006; Pityana, 2003). These institutions increasingly need to respond appropriately to visions set for a variety of purposes including the pressures of the market economy and the speed of the information society (Pityana, 2003; Smith & Goddard, 2005).

In recent years, work pressure has been constantly rising within academia and it is suggested that the persistent demands of academic work will lead almost inevitably to adverse work consequences for academic staff (Singh & Bush, 1998). Retaining key employees in HEIs remains a genuine concern; the increased turnover rate of academic staff poses a major challenge to HEIs. High staff turnover can have serious repercussions for the quality, steadiness and stability of academic intuitions (Selesho & Naile, 2014). Failure to retain key and talented academic staff can have negative effects on students and staff members who remain in the field. Both students and the remaining staff may have difficulty to give and receive quality services when positions are vacated and filled with incompetent and unqualified employees (Selesho & Naile, 2014). In addition, the high turnover rate can increase and strengthen the academics' doubt in the system and can discourage employees from staying in, or notwithstanding entering the field (Selesho & Naile, 2014).

According to Ng'ethe et al. (2012), there are limited empirical studies in developing countries to elucidate this phenomenon, much fewer measurements that can be utilised to diagnose and prevent the turnover of academic staff, leaving an academic void. Therefore, the turnover intention remains a vital research topic to pursue as retaining key academic staff continues to be essential in higher academic institutions for organisational effectiveness (Ng'ethe et al., 2012; Pienaar & Bester, 2008). Understanding and identifying the factors that contribute and lead to turnover intentions among academic staff is the first step to taking necessary action to reduce turnover rates.

The research study focuses on the relationship between burnout (and its dimensions) and workaholism and the variance these variables explain in turnover intentions among a convenience sample of academics from a selected university in the Western Cape. This chapter provides the background and motivation for the study. This chapter further introduces the overall purpose and aims of the research paper, the problem statement and outlines the research objectives and hypotheses.

1.2 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION

Higher education plays an important role in the creation of knowledge for the development of future talent and socio-economic development in South Africa (Van den Berg, Manias & Burger, 2008). Academics are critical to community life, because they are accountable for educating the

leaders of the future and society, as well as conducting scientific research and promoting knowledge (Coetzee & Rothmann, 2004). It is evident that retaining top academic staff within HEIs is crucial.

According to Du Preez and Robyn (2013), the present core workforce of HEIs in South Africa consists mainly of mature and knowledgeable academics. Furthermore, statistics indicate that since 1st April 2011 the percentage of academics younger than 35 years old at HEIs in South Africa was approximately 30 % of the academic workforce. Badat (2008) approximated that based on the present retirement age of 65, 4000 academics (27% of academics) would have retired and needed to be replaced by 2018 (Du Preez & Robyn, 2013).

Badat (2008) further postulated that professors and associate professors, who make up the best qualified and most experienced academics, constitute 50% of the academic workforce. Retention of academic staff should be the main concern as it is difficult to replace the knowledge, skills and experience of academic staff (Du Preez & Robyn, 2013). Therefore, in order to maintain centres of excellence, it has become crucial for HEIs to place focus on retaining newly recruited and well-developed academic staff.

Various studies have been conducted on turnover as well as different factors contributing to academics wanting to leave (Theron, et al, 2014). According to Barkhuizen et al. (2014) there are no definite answers available as to the factors that contribute to academics' intention to quit; hence turnover and retention remain important research topics to pursue.

Retaining key employees has become a big challenge for employers in South Africa (Du Preez & Robyn, 2013). As organisations strive to remain competitive and keep abreast of the changes in the external environment, the focus has shifted towards the recruitment, selection and retention of key employees (Coetzee, Takawira & Schreuder, 2014). Employee turnover has been a challenge for both the public and private sector; unfortunately, academic institutions have not been spared. The South African academic institution system has been exposed to huge changes during the last two decades (Pienaar & Bester, 2009). These changes came as a result of social and economic shifts within South Africa following the abolishment of Apartheid in 1994 (Boughey, 2004). Due to historical inequalities, more students with diverse backgrounds are entering the education system. As a result of the students' diverse backgrounds, students have

different needs, values, skills and attitudes, which ultimately require considerable attention from academics (Pienaar, 2009).

Various explanations have been offered to elucidate the reasons for the increasing turnover rates, which include, among others, uncompetitive reward packages and incentives, unreasonable promotion policies, a lack of adequate state and research funding, institutional cultural issues and increasing student numbers resulting in heavier workloads (Bitzer, 2008; De Villiers & Steyn, 2009; HESA, 2011; Netswera, Rankhumise & Mavundla, 2005; Ntshoe, Higgs, Higgs & Wolhuter, 2008; Pienaar & Bester, 2008; Theron, et al. 2014).

Further explanations include headhunting from national and international companies and higher-paying organisations from the private sector (Ngobeni & Bezuidenhout, 2011). In addition, research further suggests that staff turnover is often the result of relocation (of a spouse), searching for a more redefined personal role, and retirement to the insatiable search for the so-called greener pastures (Barkhuizen et al, 2014).

The HEIs are further faced with an ageing workforce as well as limited prospects of not just recruiting but retaining young talented individuals. Retaining academic staff is essential, as academic staff ensure that institutions achieve their visions and missions, and become centres of excellence (Ng'ethe, Iravo & Namusonge, 2012). Undeniably, the government expects academic institutions to play a greater role in the growth of the country through a range of initiatives to accelerate economic growth, diminish poverty and supply scarce skills (Theron, et al., 2014).

A corollary of this is that South African academic institutions cannot afford to lose key, talented academic staff if they are equally responsible for contributing to the sustained development of the country and its people over the long term. It is for this exact reason that higher tertiary institutions need to retain their key academic staff to remain intellectual centres of excellence.

It is imperative to study and understand the factors that contribute to academics having intentions to quit. As standards at institutions increases so do the pressure on academic staff. Lecturers and professors are often the people that have the most workload and are often prone to suffer from workaholism and the resultant stress, burnout and other health-related issues (Blix, Cruise & Mitchell, 1994). Although a few studies on workaholism exist, the few available indicates that workaholism is associated with poor social relationships outside work and

dissatisfaction with life (Bonebright, Clay & Ankenmann, 2000); poor work-life balance (Schaufeli et al, 2009); low job satisfaction; and low extra-role behaviour (Schaufeli, Bakker, Van der Heijden, & Prins, 2009). Limited evidence exists on the relationship between workaholism and intention to quit. However, Burke and MacDermid (1999) reported a positive relationship between workaholism and turnover intentions.

Burnout is often seen as a negative outcome of workaholism (Chuan, 2011). Concerning the relationship between workaholism and the three burnout dimensions (i.e. Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalisation and personal achievement), it was found that participants with high scores on workaholism were indeed more likely to be emotionally exhausted (Schaufeli et al, 2009).

Burnout is one the constructs that have been extensively studied in Industrial Psychology (Coetzee & Rothmann, 2004). According to Barkhuizen and Rothmann (2008), burnout is not just merely detrimental to an individual but equally for the organisation. Burnout has been found to be linked to mental and physical health; low self-esteem; substance and alcohol abuse; failing interpersonal relationships; weakening in teaching and research performance; increased absenteeism and ultimately a consideration of parting from the profession (Barkhuizen & Rothmann, 2008).

Previous studies on the influence of burnout on the intention to quit indicate that there is a positive relationship between burnout and intentions to quit (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2004). In addition, upon closer examination between the dimensions of burnout and intention to quit, both Emotional Exhaustion (Drake & Yadama, 1995; Friedman, 1993; Koeske & Koeske, 1993) and Depersonalisation (Fogarty, et al., 2000; Friedman, 1993) were found to be significantly and positively related to intention to quit.

Even though the concept of employee turnover intentions has gained substantial attention among researchers and academics in various fields, according to Glandon and Glandon (2001), there are limited studies on academic turnover in higher education. In addition, there is also minimal research available on the influence of workaholism and burnout on the intention to quit among academic staff within the South African context.

This study, therefore, seeks to fill this gap by providing research support and wishes to answer the question, "What is the influence of workaholism and burnout and its dimensions on the

intention to quit among academic employees at a selected university in the Western Cape Province?"

1.3   PROBLEM STATEMENT

Academics are critical to community life. The shortage of academic staff and the failure of the universities to attract and retain quality academic staff continue to be a crucial issue that needs to be addressed. In a study conducted by Metcalf, Rolfe, Stevens and Weale (2005), the authors reported that HEIs turnover rates ranged between 4%and 8%. One particular case study within the study reported a significantly higher turnover rate of 13%. In order to contextualise the turnover in HEIs, it is reported that internationally, the average annual turnover among employees at public research institutions is approximately 17% (Buck & Watson, 2002). A benchmark for South Africa is currently unavailable (Erasmus, Grobler & van Nieker, 2015).

The relationships between the antecedents of intention to quit may be increasing in importance, as academics have anticipated a shortage of academics in HEIs (Badat, 2008; Bakos, 2007; Berry, 2010; Bland, Center, Finstad, Risbey & Staples, 2006; Harrison & Hargrove, 2006). Therefore, it is deemed imperative to understand how burnout and workaholism influence intention to quit among academic staff to prevent and eliminate the issue. Universities can only remain to be centres of excellence by attaining and retaining key academic staff.

1.4   RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The primary purpose of the present study is to determine how workaholism and the dimensions of burnout (Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalisation and Personal Accomplishment) affect turnover intentions among academics at a selected university in the Western Cape. The objectives of the study are:

1. To determine the relationships between burnout dimensions (namely, Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalisation and Personal Accomplishment), workaholism and turnover intention.

2. To determine whether the dimensions of burnout (namely, Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalisation and Personal Accomplishment) and workaholism explain a significant proportion of the variance in turnover intentions.

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3. To make recommendations to the selected institution in order to implement interventions and strategies to combat the problem.

1.5   DEFINITIONS OF IMPORTANT CONSTRUCTS

1.5.1   Academic staff/Academics

Academic staff is defined as "academic professionals who are responsible for planning, directing and undertaking academic teaching and research within HEIs" (Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA), 2011, para.10). This refers to staff who holds an academic rank with titles that includes lecturer, associate lecturer, senior lecturer, professor and associate professor who undertake lecturing or research activities. For the purpose of this study, academic staff may also be referred to as "academics".

1.5.2   Burnout

Maslach (1982) defined burnout as a "psychological syndrome" relating to Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalisation and a lessened sense of Personal Accomplishment that occur among several professionals whose work entail working with other people in challenging circumstances. In Maslach's view, "burnout undermines the care and professional attention given to clients of human service professionals such as teachers, police officers, lawyers, nurses, and others" (Maslach, 1982, p. 2).

1.5.3   Workaholism

The word 'workaholism' was created in 1971 by the minister and psychologist Wayne Oates, who defines workaholism as "the compulsion or the uncontrollable need to work incessantly" (Oates, 1971). In support of Oates's definition, workaholism may further be defined as the "tendency to work excessively hard and being obsessed with work, which manifests itself in working compulsively" (Schaufeli et al., 2009b, p. 322).

1.5.4 Intention to quit

Intention to quit may be defined as an employee's voluntary intention to leave or quit an organisation (Saks, 2006). Turnover intention, intention to quit, intention to leave and turnover intent are used interchangeably throughout the literature to indicate the possibility that an employee will quit his or her job in time to come.

1.6 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

This chapter presented an overview of the problem statement and objectives of the study and concluded with defining the important constructs (namely, academic staff, workaholism, burnout and intention to quit) being investigated in the study.

Chapter 2 provides a theoretical background of the study. It focuses on covering factors such as workaholism and burnout and how it relates to affecting turnover intention among academic staff at a selected university in the Western Cape. This chapter provides a theoretical background to the study, which serves as the basis for the study.

Chapter 3 provides a discussion of the research methodology that was employed in the study. It discusses the research design, more specifically a description of the sample size, selection methods and procedure to follow to collect the data, questionnaires and their psychometric properties as well as statistical techniques employed to test the hypotheses.

Chapter 4 reports on the results obtained from the data. The analysis was done using statistical techniques.

Chapter 5 provides a discussion of the results of the study and makes reference to current findings. Limitations of the study are also provided and recommendations for future research are explored.

The following chapter proceeds with a literature review on the central constructs of the study.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   Introduction

This chapter serves to provide an overview of the literature, which delineates the constructs that are under investigation. Based on a review of the literature, definitions are provided for workaholism, burnout and turnover intention, along with a theoretical framework, which depicts the factors associated with these constructs. The relationship between these constructs is highlighted, which provides motivation for the hypotheses for the study.

2.2   THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK: JOB DEMANDS RESOURCES MODEL

This study's theoretical basis is the job demands resources model. The JD-R model was developed by Bakker and Demerouti in 2006. The model categorises working conditions into two categories – job demands and job resources (Bakker and Demerouti, 2006, pg. 312):

- *Job demands* are the *"physical or emotional stressors in your role. These include time pressures, a heavy workload, a stressful working environment, role ambiguity, emotional labour and poor relationships".*

- Job resources *are the "physical, social, or organisational factors that help you achieve goals, and reduce stress. They include autonomy, strong work relationships, opportunities for advancement, coaching and mentoring, and learning and development".*

The model states that there will always be job demand factors that we may experience as burdens e.g. conflict between colleagues, different viewpoints, and different expectations from different people or high work pressure, stressful events, unclear work tasks and responsibilities. Job demands were consistently found to predict higher levels of faculty burnout (e.g. Fernet, Guay, & Senécal 2004; Zhong et al. 2009). High workload and quantitative demands (demands related to the amount of assigned work) were shown to be positive predictors of faculty burnout in studies conducted in South Africa and Spain (Barkhuizen, Rothmann, & Van de Vijver 2014; Navarro et al. 2010; Rothmann, Barkhuizen, & Tytherleigh 2004). These demands are defined as physical, social or organisational job aspects that require sustained effort and are associated with physiological and psychological costs (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014). Job demands correspond to stressors such as time pressures and high workloads (Demerouti et al., 2001). Job resources,

on the other hand, refer to factors that are functional in achieving work goals, reducing job demands, and stimulating personal growth and development (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014). Job resources in employees' external working environment include both organisational resources (e.g. job control) and social resources (e.g. support from colleagues).

In developed countries, higher institutions have transformed from a collegial environment towards a more market-orientated structure (Shin & Jung, 2014). In this new market model, the demands on academic work have increased and intensified tremendously considerably without satisfactory compensation, thus transforming higher institutions into a more relatively stressful working environment (Winefield et al., 2014). There is sufficient research and evidence that suggest that higher institutions are strained by competitiveness, job insecurity, accelerated work demands of academic jobs, which include but are not limited to tenure related demands, publication pressures, teaching loads, pressure to teach a large numbers of students and excessive paperwork (Acker & Armenti, 2004; Blatný et al., 2017 ; Cooper & Ricketts, 2005 ; Kinman, 2001; Tytherleigh, Webb; Winefield et al., 2003; Ylijoki, 2013).

Other demands can be positive, those demands challenge us, offer the opportunity for personal development and achievement. Job resources, on the other hand, are those aspects that lead us to experience our work as positive and rewarding, factors include, e.g. open and positive fellowship, influence one's own work, opportunities for growth and development and clearly defined achievable goals (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Job resources contribute to reducing the adverse effects of job demands; help us achieve our goals, lead to personal growth, learning and development (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001). Job resources and challenging job demands may lead to work engagement, which ultimately influences employee behaviour, organisational commitment, well-being, health and productivity in a way that is positive for both the employee and the organisation (Taris, Schaufeli, & Verhoeven, 2005).

Research indicates that job demands and resources represent two parallel processes (Bakker & Demerouti, 2016). Certain job demands can lead us into a health reducing process that can ultimately lead to the development of illness whereas job resources lead to a motivational process.

Figure 2

Diagram reproduced from Bakker & Demerouti (2006)
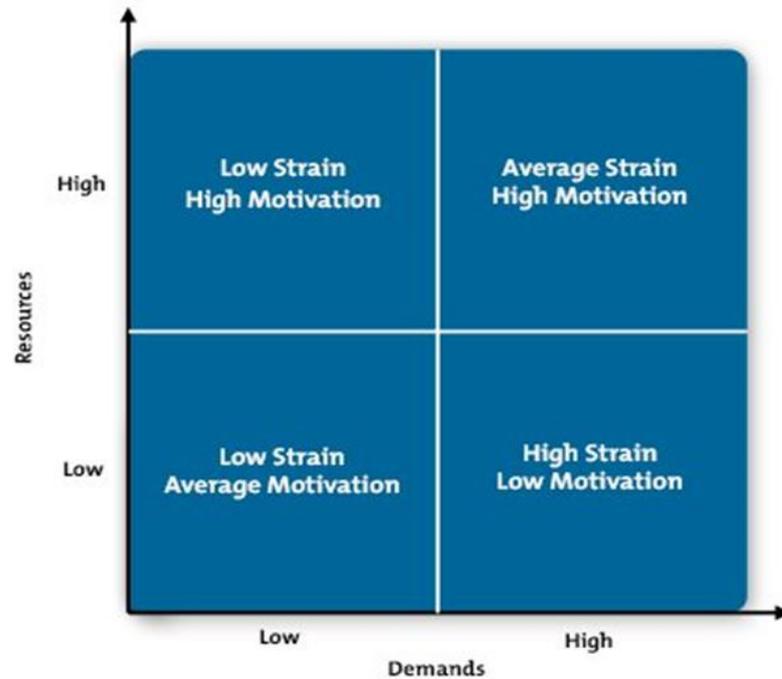
The JD-R model in Figure 2 indicates that when job demands are high and job resources are low, stress and burnout are likely common, which could potentially lead to poor performance, high absenteeism, employee turnover, impeded workability and low organisational commitment, and so forth (Bakker & Demerouti, 2006). On the contrary, good job resources can counterbalance the effects of extreme job demands and encourage motivation and engagement. A few authors established that job resources could decrease the negative impact of job demands on well-being (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). If job demands are constantly high and are not supported with job resources, an individual's energy is gradually drained, which may lead to a state of burnout. In the motivational process, which is activated by abundant job resources and may — via work engagement lead to positive outcomes such as "organizational commitment, intention to stay, extra-role behaviour, employee safety, and superior work performance" (Schaufeli, 2017, pg. 123). Job resources have intrinsic motivational qualities; they spark employee's energy and make them feel engaged, which, in turn, leads to better outcomes such as high levels of energy and resilience, experiencing a sense of significance, pride and challenge and being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one's work (Schaufeli, 2017).

Therefore, it is in the organisation's interest to monitor psychosocial factors at work and employee's well-being on a regular basis, so that prompt and targeted interventions can be put in place to eliminate and prevent burnout and increase work engagement.

The primary purpose of the present study is to determine how workaholism and the dimensions of burnout (Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalisation and Personal Accomplishment) affect intention to quit among academics at a selected university in the Western Cape. Using the JD-R model as a theoretical framework, the model may aid to understand whether job demands are related to workaholism. In various studies conducted (e.g., Guglielmi, Simbula, Schaufeli, & Depolo, 2012; Molino et al., 2014) workaholism within the JD-R model was considered as a demand and not as mediator. In addition, the model is also currently recognised as one of the leading job stress models and proposed two processes for the development of burnout (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014).

The authors postulate that if employees do not fully recover from excessive long-term job demands, it may lead to sustained activation and overtaxing, eventually resulting in exhaustion – the energetic component of burnout. Further to this, a lack of resources precludes that job demands are met and that work goals are reached, which leads to withdrawal behaviour. Indeed, withdrawal – or reduced motivation/disengagement, i.e., the motivational component of burnout. Consistent with this reasoning, research revealed main effects of demands and resources on burnout; whereas job demands were associated with exhaustion, lacking resources were linked to disengagement (see, among others, Bakker, Demerouti & Euwema, 2005; Bakker, Demerouti & Verbeke, 2004; Bakker, Demerouti, Taris, Schaufeli & Schreurs, 2003; Demerouti et al., 2001; Hansen, Sverke & Näswall, 2009; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007).

2.3   WORKAHOLSIM

Research highlights many changes in the nature of work over the past few decades, which includes a more conventional culture of long working hours and increasing work depth across the various sectors. For instance, within academia, recent research indicates a culture of increasing work intensity over the years, often combined with reducing resources and competing demands (Hogan, Hogan & Hodgins, 2016). The authors further postulate that various studies

have indicated that the work of full-time academics within HEIs involves long working hours, increased work intensity, heavy work demands and pressure to increase and improve productivity and performance. Further research has also indicated that academics commonly use information technology in the work and home setting and beyond to stay connected to their work (Hogan et al., 2016), which may imply that the boundaries between work and home life have become blurred.

Some research suggests that workaholism is a positive attribute by emphasising the benefits gained from heavy work investment (for example, extra work efforts), while most scholars emphasise the negative and riskier sides (for example, impaired health and work-life conflicts) (Griffiths, 2011; Robinson, 2013; Schaufeli, Shimazu & Taris, 2009).

Workaholism has become prevalent within organisations, which needs to be proactively managed to offset its damaging effects on employee health and productivity (Horton, 2011). Workaholism is recognised as a health risk and concern for academics given the open-ended nature of academic work, however, current prevalence rates of workaholism in the academic setting are unknown (Hogan et al., 2016).

2.3.1   Defining workaholism

The term "workaholism" is widely used; however, there is little accord about the meaning of workaholism, beyond that of its core element - a substantial investment in work (Harpaz & Snir, 2003). According to Andreassen (2012), research on workaholism has increased exponentially and the terms work addiction, workaholism and excessive overwork have been used interchangeably (Andreassen, 2013). Nevertheless, scientific interest in this topic is growing since workaholism is considered as one of the most common addictions that can impact different areas of human functioning at the individual, family, organisational, and societal levels (Vodanovich & Piotrowski, 2006). In order to be classified as a "workaholic", individuals should have a strong obsession or need for work, which has become so extreme that it creates disturbance in an individual's health, happiness and relationships (Oates, 1971).

Oates (1971) defines workaholism as an obsession or an uncontrollable need to work continuously. In support of the aforementioned definition, workaholism can further be defined

as the "tendency to work excessively hard and being obsessed with work, which manifests itself in working compulsively" (Schaufeli, Shimazu, & Taris, 2009, p. 322). There are various definitions of workaholism available, with some theorising workaholism by reference to the number of hours an individual worked, while others conceptualise workaholism as an "attitude" or an "addiction". Initially, the term was utilised for those employees who worked more than 50 hours per week. However, research suggests that the average (non-workaholic) management-level employee devotes at least a minimum of 50 hours per week to work (Brett & Stroh, 2003). Yet other researchers described workaholism as specifically associated with those who consistently invest more time and energy in work than what is required.

This latter definition takes into consideration the workaholic's attitude towards work, rather than the time spent on work, and is consistent with prevailing views on workaholism. Contemporary researchers describe workaholism as a continual pattern of high work investment, long working hours, work beyond expectations and an all-consuming obsession with work (Griffiths, 2011; Ng, Sorensen & Feldman, 2007). Most contemporary definitions describe workaholism as a continual pattern of high work investment, long working hours, work beyond expectations and an all-consuming obsession with work (Griffiths, 2011; Ng, Sorensen & Feldman, 2007)

2.3.2   Characteristics of workaholism

Workaholics can be defined as individuals who enjoy the act of working, who are obsessed with working and who devote long hours and personal time to work (Ng et al. (2007). Following the work of Smith and Seymour (2004), Ng et al. contend that there are three types of mental processes or dimensions that ought to be analysed for every form of addiction, including workaholism. The author operationalised the dimensions of workaholism as the following (Malinowska & Tokarz, 2014, p.2):

- *Behavioural dimension: devoting time predominantly to work and limiting time for other activities.*

- ***Cognitive dimension***: *an obsession with work that manifests as a serious involvement in work that cannot be limited or controlled; constant thoughts about work that arise even when the person is not working.*

- ***Affective dimension***: *positive emotions related to work, which is the main source of satisfaction and pleasure, and negative emotions that appear when the person is not working (e.g., fear, sense of guilt, depression).*

One of the characteristics of workaholism is the use of personal time to work. This means that the worker does not have more time to rest his or her mind since most of the time he/she will be working or time spent working as the individuals now also work on their computers at home. The workaholics said to be mostly exposed to prolonged time to work demands and low recovery time after work, which may, in the long run, lead to burnout and other psychological symptoms (Falco, 2014).

Another characteristic, according to Andreassen, Falco, De Carlo, Kravina & Pallesen (2014), of a workaholic is obsessive and continuous thinking about the work even at the time that is supposed to be devoted to family and rest, which leads to the prevention of relaxation and detachment from work psychologically.

Khan et al. (2016) identified several factors that influence people to work as workaholics as professional consciousness, future worries and jealousy. The trend is most likely to happen in the private institutions where most of the remunerations and promotions are based on the worker's devotion to work and performance (Khan et al., 2016). However, this could also apply to HEIs where workers depend on *ad personum* promotions, rather than promotions that depend on new job opportunities. Therefore, workaholics work very hard in the eyes of their superiors to prove their excellence and devotion to work.

2.3.3 Antecedents of workaholism

Workaholism is a complex phenomenon that is likely caused and maintained by a variety of factors. In the following sections, some factors are presented explaining what drives people into workaholism.

2.3.3.1   Type A behaviour

Type A behaviour (TABP), which involves excessive deadlines and time urgency, has been proposed as an explanation of workaholism (Spence, Helmreich, & Pred, 1987). Achievement-orientated workaholics are depicted as those who identify strongly with their career, are motivated to excel, set high standards, and exhibit Type A behaviours (e.g., competitiveness, impatience) (Ariyabuddhiphongs, Bovornusvakoo, Ngamake & Vodanovich, 2012).

2.3.3.2   Obsessive Compulsive Personality Disorder

Obsessive-Compulsiveness Personality Disorder (OCPD), which involves a preoccupation with perfectionism and control at the expense of flexibility and efficiency, is also associated with stress and excessive work (American Psychiatric Association [APA], 1994; Naughton, 2001). OCPD has frequently been proposed as an underlying explanatory mechanism of workaholism (Machlowitz, 1980; Naughton, 2001; Seybold & Salomone, 1987). According to Bakker et al. (2015), workaholism is not officially listed in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual (DSM-5), however, it is considered a symptom of the OCPD, which is characterised by perfectionism, inflexibility, and preoccupation with work, and by an excessive devotion to work and productivity to the exclusion of leisure activities and friendships (American Psychiatric Association, 2013).

2.3.3.3   Hypomania

Workaholics have been described as being extremely afraid of inactivity and behaving in a manner that is intense, energetic, and driven, characterised by an overwhelming zest for life (Klaft & Kleiner, 1988; Machlowitz, 1980). Naughton (1987) observed that workaholics demonstrate endless energy in their work settings. These characteristics are reminiscent of hypomania, which involves a distinctly elevated mood accompanied by decreased need for sleep, a flight of ideas, and increased involvement in goal-directed activities (APA, 1994). This "busy" tendency was noted by Oates in interviews with several children of workaholics who described their parents as in constant haste (Oates, 1971).

2.3.3.4   Organisational culture

Academics work involves significant work absorption and is time-intensive. Undeniably, total commitment and devoting long hours to one's work remains an ideal that is glorified in

academia (Harold et al., 2016). If workaholic behaviours and tendencies are reinforced and rewarded within a managerial educational setting, this behaviour will become a standard and norm for new academic recruits to follow, creating a self-perpetuating organisational culture conducive to workaholism. Organisational culture within academia may encourage workaholic tendencies. According to Johnstone and Johnston (2005) organisational climates that promote and reward workaholic tendencies seem to increase the chances of producing workaholics.

2.3.4 Consequences of workaholism

Workaholism may have a negative impact on an individual's private relations, leisure and health (Andreassen, Griffiths, & Hetland, 2012). The signs or symptoms of workaholism are similar to what can be seen in other addicts, such as effects on mood, tolerance and withdrawal symptoms (Andreassen, et al., 2012; Griffiths, 2012; Sussman, 2012). Further studies show that when an individual experience stress at work, individuals with a strong internal work drive (i.e. workaholism) report an increase in subjective stress-related physical and psychological symptoms compared to those with low scores (Andreassen et al., 2007; Andreassen, Hetland, Molde & Pallesen, 2011; Bonebright et al., 2000; Schaufeli et al., 2008; Taris, Schaufeli & Verhoeven, 2005). The majority of research indicates that workaholic behaviour relates closely to stress levels and well-being. Specifically, workaholism appears to be associated with perceived stress and health complaints and several other stress-related conditions such as type A behaviour, obsessive-compulsiveness, and hypomania (McMillan et al., 2000; Spence & Robbins, 1992).

Two research studies have investigated how workaholism affects sleep. In one study, it was found that people with higher scores on workaholism were more likely to report sleep problems, fatigue, difficulties waking up and tiredness at work whereas people with lower scores were the opposite (Kubota et al., 2010). In addition, the second study conducted by Andreassen et al. (2011) found that an obsession with high work drive was positively linked to insomnia. Additionally, research indicates that workaholics tend to report and experience more work-family conflicts and poorer functioning outside work than non-workaholics (Andreassen, Hetland & Pallesen, 2013; Bonebright et al., 2000; Russo & Waters, 2006; Taris et al., 2005). It was further found the marital dissatisfaction was higher among workaholics than non-workaholics (Robinson, Flowers, & Carroll, 2001; Burke & Koksal, 2002). Khan et al. (2016) added that workaholism has a negative impact on one's personal and professional life. Humans are

described as social animals (Khan et al., 2016), who need to socialise and interact with other humans and friends to share some ideas and life experience. Therefore, workaholics do not have time to socialise as they are always at work psychologically.

According to Robinson (1998), children are negatively affected by their parents' work addiction in terms of psychological problems into their young adulthood. As a result, workaholics report poorer social functioning besides marital and family dysfunction (McMillan & O'Driscoll, 2004). Furthermore, workaholics experience higher divorce rates, fewer positive feelings about their marriage, and feel less in control of their lives and marriages (Robinson, Flowers, & Carroll, 2001).

According to Maslach (1986), workaholism is considered the root cause of burnout. Workaholics become exhausted and burned out as they spend and invest all their energy in their work, which becomes difficult to balance (Schaufeli, Bakker, Van der Heijden, & Prins, 2009). The authors further postulate that intrapersonal conflict at work consumes more of the workaholic's energy, which could potentially lead to burnout. It can also be established that the workaholics who experience greater work-family conflict may be prone to suffer from burnout as they are dissatisfied with their family or personal life.

Several empirical studies report a positive association between workaholism and burnout (e.g. Andreassen, Ursin, & Eriksen, 2007; Burke, 2008; Burke, Richardsen, & Mortinussen, 2004; Schaufeli, Taris, & Bakker, 2008; Taris, Schaufeli, & Verhoeven, 2005b). Working excessively automatically leads to overworking; resulting in a high commitment to work, which in turn will need strong effort, emotionally and mentally. As a result, it may lead to psychological strain, stress and burnout for the individual.

According to Khan (2016), workaholics take work as their highest priority above all other things without knowing the adverse effects of such behaviour in the long as a result, the overall performance of the workaholics results in just satisfactory or poor. This is because the habits of overworking after working hours leads to poor or irrelevant work during the normal working hours and this may lead to poor work and late submissions.

Empirical findings indicate that physical health is threatened by hardworking conditions (Metin, 2010). In addition, people suffer a wide range of emotional complaints from low-back pain to

depression as a result of sustaining job demands. Burnout is the usual outcome or sign of health complaints (Maslach et al., 2001). Therefore, it is expected that burned out and workaholic employees would report a less positive perception of their health whereas, engaged workers would report a more positive perception for their health (Metin, 2010).

2.3.5 Interventions to address workaholism

Organisations normally prefer to attract and select individuals who are highly motivated and committed. With this kind of workforce, it is an advantage to be able to differentiate between work engagement and workaholism and be conscious of interventions against workaholism on the organisational level. An intervention from the organisational level could be establishing norms and values that specifically cater to work engagement and efficiency as opposed to workaholism. This can be done, for example, by making sure that the workplace is a source of satisfaction with basic internal psychological needs (i.e. autonomy, competence) (Andreassen, et al., 2012).

Some organisations arrange for work-life balance programmes where employees are offered training in time management, stress and relaxation techniques and even taught how to set necessary boundaries. By doing so, a clear message is sent that the employee's health and well-being are important and are highly prioritised by the organisation. A research study emphasised that flexible working hours reduced reported work-family conflicts for some types of workaholics (the enthusiastic), but not for others (the non-enthusiastic) (Russo & Waters, 2006).

Alizadeh, Booket and Dehghan (2018) suggest the following can be presented to reduce the effects of workaholism among academics. The suggestions include identifying academic employees who are at risk of workaholism as a result of certain personality traits; offering psychological educational programmes (e.g. training effective coping strategies to ease the risk of workaholism among academics); re-establishing work priorities, considering alternate career plans, ensuring that employees leave work at a stated time; creating and maintaining an organisational culture, which focuses on values that emphasise the importance of work-family balance.

Moreover, research studies have indicated that workaholic behaviour does not necessarily translate into increased productivity, on contrary, the reverse may be the case (Hogan et al,

2016; Khan, 2016). In order to evade this, HEIs may consider not rewarding obsessive work behaviours and help academics to work more efficiently as opposed to longer hours. The obtained rewards in terms of praise, career promotion, and salary increases and bonuses will ultimately confirm the workaholics' perception of being the "special person" who is needed by the organisation. In addition, this is likely to strengthen the association of working excessively hard and their self-worth in such a way that their self-worth becomes reliant on their extreme working patterns (Peetens & Schaufeli, 2010). Though, this will necessitate challenging current organisational norms, such as the "ideal-worker" norm deeply entrenched in the culture of the university sector (Hogan et al., 2016).

Alternatively, the employee reward system may be redesigned in such a way that employees are rewarded for working smart as opposed to working hard. In addition, instead of recognising and rewarding employees for extra-role behaviours, employers could consider rewarding employees for their in-role performance (Peetens & Schaufeli, 2010).

Despite the fact that workaholics work hard and excessive out of inner compulsion, their work environment also plays a role in encouraging their work addiction. Organisations including HEIs can play a significant role to prevent workaholism by changing the organisational culture. Instead of cultivating the "heroism" of working hard, organisations can highlight the importance of the work-life balance by establishing clear boundaries between work and leisure, for example, discouraging working from home in the evenings or weekends, having limited to no access to emails over the weekend, etc. (Peeters & Schaufeli, 2010).

A number of interventions have been suggested to prevent or reduce the occurrence of workaholism; however, there is a shortage of published studies on workaholism interventions (Hogan et al., 2016). The implementation of such interventions may be imperative in order to ensure that universities continue to remain desirable places to work, with the ability to employ and retain high calibre academics.

2.4   BURNOUT

In the world of work, working environments are often defined by fast-paced changes, increasing workload, high time sensitivity in addition to declining resources to accomplish desired objectives (Inkson, Dries, & Arnold, 2014; Skinner & Pocock, 2008). These trends often have

negative implications on the continuity and sustainability of careers and as a result, lead to job/career insecurity, economic concerns and critically high levels of burnout signs and symptoms among the working population (Baruch & Vardi, 2016; Bianchi, Robinson, & Milkie, 2007; Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014).

Though individual characteristics and coping strategies play an important role in the level of burnout an individual could experience, several employment practices that transpire in organisations tend to encourage the development of the syndrome. Gorgievski et al. (2010) elucidate that some of these practices include employees having limited input in decision-making, unequal workloads among employees who have the same or similar job descriptions, employees unable to achieve desired career goals (i.e. promotions, etc.), insufficient staff development for personal development or acquiring skills, dysfunctional support teams, downplay on relaxation programmes and a mismatch of personal characteristics to job demands.

Although any working individual may be susceptible to burnout, human service occupations appear particularly vulnerable (Schwab, 1993) with teaching being no exception (Brouwers &Tomic 2000; Farber, 2000). It is a well-investigated, established and a known fact that burnout is a reality among academics employees (Barkhuizen, Rothmann & Tytherleigh, 2004; Burke & Greenglass, 1995; Tytherleigh, 2003).

While occupational stress is prevalent across many sectors, there has been a concern that adverse effects on staff well-being within higher education is likely to have detrimental effects on student experience and attainment, and the success of the institution as a whole (Gillespie et al., 2001).

2.4.1 Definitions of burnout

Maslach and Jackson (1986) initially defined burnout as a syndrome of Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalisation and reduced Personal Accomplishment occurring among people who do "people work". In addition, Schaufeli (2004) offered a comprehensive definition of burnout, stating that it is a persistent, negative, work-related state of mind in 'normal' individuals that is characterised primarily by exhaustion, which is accompanied by distress, a sense of reduced competence, decreased motivation and the development of dysfunctional attitudes at work.

Within the South African higher education context, Viljoen and Rothmann (2009) found that psychological ill-health that could manifest as burnout is a result of complex work relationships, time pressures, and lack of student discipline, a lack of a proper promotion policy, role/work overload and a lack of resources.

2.4.2   Dimensions of burnout

Burnout is defined to be the loss of energy, efficacy and identification at work (Maslach & Jackson, 2008). The loss of energy can be understood in the three steps of the process of burnout, namely Depersonalisation, Emotional Exhaustion and personal achievement, all of which are correlated modestly with each other (Thomas, Kohli, & Choi, 2014), and are deliberated below.

2.4.2.1   Emotional Exhaustion

Emotional Exhaustion consists of a feeling of not being able to give any more emotionally to the job because the employee has nothing more to give (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998; Maslach et al., 2008; Schaufeli et al., 2002a; Schaufeli, Martínez, Marques-Pinto et al., 2002b). Emotional exhaustion is considered to be the most important of the three dimensions of burnout. It is characterised by a lack of energy and a feeling that one's emotional resources are depleted (Bakker et al., 2006). This may coexist with feelings of frustration and tension. Some think that Emotional Exhaustion is feelings of being emotionally overextended and drained by one's contact with other people.

Emotional exhaustion can manifest itself in physical characteristics such as waking up just as tired as when going to bed or lacking the required energy to take on another task or face-to-face encounter. When individuals experience higher levels of Emotional Exhaustion, they are more likely to leave their jobs. Positive correlations have also been found between Emotional Exhaustion and turnover intentions (Maslach et al., 2008).

Emotional exhaustion is the response to chronic stressors in the workplace such as work overload. These stressors are constant over time and put pressure on people, causing Emotional Exhaustion. Emotional exhaustion is the step of burnout that most researchers purport spans across jobs because it is the most consistent aspect of burnout.

Furthermore, a work situation with chronic, overwhelming demands that contribute to exhaustion or cynicism is likely to erode an individual's sense of accomplishment or effectiveness. Also, it is difficult to gain a sense of accomplishment when feeling exhausted or when helping people towards whom one is hostile. In some situations, the lack of efficacy seems to arise more clearly from a lack of relevant resources, while exhaustion and cynicism appear from the presence of work overload and social conflict (Maslach, 1998).

2.4.2.2 Depersonalisation

The second dimension of burnout is Depersonalisation (Maslach et al., 2008). Depersonalisation can lead to dehumanisation, which manifests in behaviour such as treating people as objects. Depersonalisation is seen as a form of coping because it distances workers from the job and clients. Professions that involve human services require that the provider care about the individual who is receiving the services, or at least to display the appropriate emotions (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Henderson, 2001).

Human service workers who depersonalise at their job are attempting to block negative emotions, to reduce Emotional Exhaustion and regain resources, thus increasing energy. Cynicism was introduced as a substitute term for Depersonalisation in non-human service fields (Leiter & Schaufeli, 1996). Cynicism is a broader construct, including interactions with co-workers (Maslach et al., 2001). Cynicism is negativism and acting selfishly or callously. Cynicism can be directed towards people, work, or situations. An example of cynicism towards people would be thinking everyone at work is fake or out to hurt you (Maslach et al., 2001)

Cynicism in work would be exemplified by thoughts of work as meaningless. Situational cynicism can involve thinking cynically about the workplace but not the work, such as thinking other universities are better than the one they work in. Depersonalisation is a type of cynicism because people act callously towards others and treat them as objects, and they perceive the job as insignificant or not worth doing well. Depersonalisation and cynicism are both types of distance coping. Distancing is a form of coping that enables people to mentally disengage from the stressful situation (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004). It occurs as a coping mechanism for Emotional Exhaustion, to disengage the person from the work, preventing further Emotional Exhaustion (Maslach, 2003; Maslach & Goldberg, 1998; Maslach et al., 2008; Maslach et al., 2014).

Distance coping may be a response to stressors characterised by high demands and low resources (Hobfoll, 1989; Maslach et al., 2014). As distancing occurs they become callous and negative about the job and perhaps the profession. People experience an erosion of identification with work, or no longer associate themselves with the job or profession. They may not perceive the work as meaningful to their self-worth. The relationship previously held with work has dissipated, and people may not take pride in their work. It is evident that academics can have negative, distinct attitudes towards their students, colleagues and treat them as objects (Depersonalisation) and develop callous attitudes towards their work and students and to such extent that they may lose interest in research or do not prepare adequately for class (Barkhuizen & Rothmann, 2008 ; Seldin 1987; Singh et al. 1998) .

2.4.2.3 Reduced Personal Accomplishment

Reduced Personal Accomplishment is the third dimension in the burnout process (Leiter & Maslach, 1988). In burnout, people feel a diminished sense of Personal Accomplishment, such as the perception that they cannot perform the job adequately. The perceived reduction in performance in human service professions stems from being emotionally exhausted and depersonalising (Maslach et al., 2008). A recognised part of the job is caring about and helping others, but if people are depersonalising they will perceive they are not doing an adequate job. Reduced Personal Accomplishment is a decrease in one's perceived professional efficacy (Maslach & Leiter, 1997).

This feeling of decreased efficacy is exemplified in human services and customer service fields such as universities and other HEI. In human services and customer service professions, people may feel they should not be feeling the lack of emotional energy experienced in the Emotional Exhaustion and cynicism phases of burnout. The emotional dissonance that occurs from believing that they should not feel the lack of emotional energy and should not be engaging in distancing leads to more stressors and Emotional Exhaustion, leading to fewer resources. This process starts the spiral towards greater burnout and eventual turnover because of the lack of resources (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll et al., 1990).

2.4.3 Antecedents of burnout

The antecedents of burnout are generally classified in two broad categories, namely situational factors (e.g. work overload) and individual factors (e.g. neuroticism) (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Maslach et al., 2001).

2.4.3.1 Situational factors

Lee and Ashforth's (1996) meta-analysis indicate the importance of job demands on burnout. Aspects of the job like job demands require sustained physical, cognitive or emotional effort (Demerouti, Bakker, De Jonge et al., 2001). Therefore, if it is not an environment high in job demands, demands are associated with physiological (high blood pressure, enlarged hormonal activity, enlarged heart rate) and psychological costs (e.g. psychological need thwarting, fatigue) (Bakker et al., 2005).

As early as 1996, Lee and Ashforth (1996) postulate that some job demands were a prediction of burnout (Depersonalisation and exhaustion). The very crucial job demands were role conflict, workload, role stress, work pressure, stressful events, and role ambiguity. Though their meta-analysis was limited to human services providers (e.g. nurses, social workers, counsellors, teachers and police officers), the data also involved the managers and supervisors of the service providers. Lee and Ashforth (1996, p. 129) contended that job demands are observed as losses since "meeting such demands requires the investment of valued resources". A 2009 meta-analysis by Alarcon et al. (2009) established the important role that is played by job demands in the burnout prediction. Using different samples between 37 and 86 people from all occupations types (thus not restricted to human services), he discovered that role workload, conflict and role ambiguity were major burnout predictors, particularly of cynicism and exhaustion.

A lack of job resources may aggravate the occurrence of burnout. Job resources are those organisational, physical, social or psychological aspects of the job that assist to either attain work goals, diminish job demands and the physiological and psychological costs that are associated, or arouse personal growth, development and learning (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Research which was done the past decade has indicated that the resources on the job are less strongly associated to burnout than job demands are. Nonetheless, burnout has a stable negative association with job resources, mainly with the cynicism component.

Furthermore, job resources qualify the relationship between job demands and burnout. Bakker et al. (2005), in their study of the employees in a large higher education institution, found that the combination of high demands and low job resources significantly added to the prediction of the exhaustion and cynicism dimensions of burnout. Specifically, they found that work overload; emotional demands, physical demands and work-home interference did not result in high levels of burnout if employees experienced autonomy, received feedback, had social support or had a high-quality relationship with their supervisors. Psychologically speaking, different processes may have been responsible for these interaction effects. For example, autonomy may have helped in coping with job demands because employees could decide for themselves when to respond to their demands, whereas high-quality relationships with supervisors may have buffered the impact of job demands because employees received instrumental help and emotional support (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Taken together, these findings indicate that job resources prevent the development of negative attitudes and play a buffering role in the relationship between job demands and burnout.

2.4.3.2   Individual factors

Individual factors refer to "individual differences or personal characteristics that are relatively stable over situations and time". Although the current literature indicates the possibility that stressful aspects of the work environment are more important predictors of burnout than personality, it is necessary for researchers to consider individual variations (Pick & Leiter, 1991). Indeed, quite a few studies have indicated the possibility that personality plays a key role in the development of burnout. Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) counted more than 100 burnout studies in the literature that included one or two constructs from a long list of lower-level personality variables. Examples of these personality variables are hardiness, locus of control, type A behaviour, self-esteem and achievement motivation.

Alarcon et al. (2009) argue that personality may influence burnout through the impact of both the perceived and the objective nature of one's work environment. Firstly, personality may predispose employees to perceive their work environments favourably, regardless of the objective nature of their work (Brunborg, 2008). For example, whereas individuals with low emotional stability may view a high workload or a complex work assignment as threatening, individuals with high emotional stability may view the same job demands as challenges.

Secondly, personality may influence the objective nature of one's work environment (Judge et al., 2001). Because of their ability to easily adapt, those who are emotionally stable and extroverted may self-select into enriched job environments. By contrast, neurotic or introverted employees may feel stressed by challenging jobs and thus pursue routine work (Alarcon et al., 2009). A third possibility is that certain personalities are better able than others to cope with their job demands. For example, extroverts may be better able to cope with emotionally challenging situations, because they seek out social stimulation and opportunities to engage with others.

The meta-analysis of Alarcon et al. (2009) indicates that personality is indeed reliably associated to burnout. More specifically, these authors found that four of the Big Five factors, namely emotional stability, extroversion, conscientiousness and agreeableness, are consistently negatively associated with each of the three dimensions of burnout. The exception is openness to experience, which was positively associated only with Personal Accomplishment. Emotional stability was the most important predictor of exhaustion and Depersonalisation, whereas extroversion was the most important predictor of Personal Accomplishment.

Furthermore, Alarcon et al. (2009) found evidence of a relationship between lower-order personality factors and burnout. Specifically, they found that self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control, positive affect, negative affect, optimism, proactive personality, and hardiness each had a significant relationship with burnout. This indicates that more malleable individual differences also play a role in the development of burnout. People with favourable scores on these individual factors believe they have control over their (work) environment and can, therefore, deal better with their job demands.

This interactive approach to burnout has shifted the focus on researchers to consider both individual and situational factors in understanding burnout.

2.4.4   Consequences of burnout

Even though the empirical evidence examining the consequences of burnout for academics is limited (Sabagh , Saroyan & Hall, 2018), results in other industries indicate that burnout can directly predict ill-health, stress, depression, low satisfaction and reduced work activities

(Barkhuizen, Rothmann, and Van de Vijver 2014; Navarro et al. 2010; Rothmann, Barkhuizen, & Tytherleigh 2004; Siegall & McDonald 2004; Zhong et al. 2009).

In addition, in a study conducted by Sabagh, Hall and Saroyan (2018), the results showed burnout mediates the relationship between work stressors and health problems in South African academics as indicated by large coefficients (.72–.74) for burnout as a predictor of health problems (Barkhuizen, Rothmann, & Van de Vijver 2014; Rothmann, Barkhuizen, & Tytherleigh 2004).

According to Sabagh et al., (2018), higher burnout levels may lead to lower psychological and physical well-being as well as occupational satisfaction in post-secondary faculty. In sum, higher levels of burnout have been found to correspond with greater anxiety, depression, psychological complaints, poor health, disengagement, dissatisfaction, as well as turnover intentions in faculty members (see Barkhuizen, Rothmann & Van de Vijver 2014; Zhong et al. 2009). This highlights the importance of faculty burnout with respect to more global measures of well-being and psychological adjustment (Sabagh et al., 2018).

2.5 TURNOVER INTENTIONS

Intention to quit is a subjective estimation of an individual regarding the probability that he/she will be leaving the organisation in the near future. Intentions are the most immediate determinants of actual behaviour (McCarthy et al., 2007). Turnover intention is used instead of actual turnover in most research because turnover intention leads towards actual turnover behaviour (Abrams et al., 1998); (Perryer et al., 2010); Schyns et al., 2007). However, the reasons for these intentions are often unknown (Firth et al., 2004), and the phenomenon is far from being fully understood, especially because some of the psychological processes underlying the withdrawal from the organisation are still unclear.

2.5.1 Defining turnover intentions

Tett and Meyer (1993 p.262) define turnover intention as "the conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organisation". Sousa-Poza and Henneberger (2002, p.1) further refer to turnover intention as "the (subjective) probability that an individual will change his or her job

within a certain time period". For Lacity, Lyer and Rudramuniyaiah (2008, p.228), the turnover intention is "the extent to which an employee plans to leave the organisation". According to Carmeli and Weisberg (2006), turnover intentions refer to three specific elements in the withdrawal cognition process. These include the thoughts of quitting the job, the intention to search for a different job and the intention to quit (Mobley, 1977 as cited by Rahman & Nas, 2013).

The early research by Mobley (1977) viewed turnover intention as the culmination of a decision process, whereby the process is initiated by the employee by evaluating his or her current situation, followed by a number of stages (for example, (1) assessing the usefulness of the job search; (2) assessing the cost of leaving; (3) intending to and searching for alternatives, and (4) then comparing alternative to his/her present job until a firm intention to quit decision is reached.

2.5.2 Antecedents of turnover intention

A number of researchers have identified possible factors that contribute to turnover intention. Owence et al. (2014, p. 2) mention that some of the factors include "absence or presence of good teams, challenge/variety; innovative culture; excessive workload; poor systems; better pay/terms and conditions elsewhere, poor leadership; lack of career opportunity and growth: burnout, disillusionment and frustration". Other factors include job satisfaction (Abdali, 2011; Mobley, 1977) such as pay, promotions, co-workers and supervision, organisational culture (Kuria, Alice, & Wanderi, 2012) such as insufficient reward and recognition from management.

In a study conducted by Bakker et al. (2016) it was found that a positive relationship exists between workaholism and the intentions to change jobs. The authors further explain that if intentions to change jobs are mediated by exhaustion, it will lead to symptoms of burnout, which will decrease the overall quality of life and health.

2.5.3 Consequences of turnover intentions

It is important for any employer to make the environment conducive for the employees so that they perform and in turn, increase the organisational efficiency. Ali (2009) indicated that if the turnover issue of employees is not solved, there will be an increase in the organisational cost expenditure. There are high costs associated with employees (both direct and indirect). The

various direct costs include recruitment (advertising and hiring cost), selection (interviews, background and reference checks, and assessments), training and development etc., whereas indirect costs refers to reduced morale, learning, and pressure on the current employees (Dess & Shaw, 2001). In order to maximise the return on investment done on the employees, it is imperative for organisations to focus on reducing the rate of turnover of the employees.

The level of job satisfaction seems to have some relation with various aspects of work behaviours such as accidents, absenteeism, turnover and productivity. Less satisfied employees are more likely to quit their jobs than more satisfied employees (Martin & Roodt, 2007).

Job insecurity, as with any stressor, may induce a withdrawal response – a way to avoid the stress altogether (Ashford et al., 1989). Job insecurity may be defined as the "overall concern about the continued existence of the job in the future" (Sverke , Hellgren & Näswall, 2002, p. 243). The construct of job insecurity and its meaning has shifted from a "motivator" (job security) during the 1960s and 1970s to being defined as a stressor (job insecurity) in the 1980s (Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt, 1984 & Sverke et al., 2002).

The experience of job insecurity affects employees in several ways and is considered a work stressor in a large part of the literature. The experience of job insecurity as a stressor appears to be related to employees' negative reactions (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2005).

2.5.4 Interventions to address turnover intention

Employee turnover continues to remain a concern in the current workplace, and even more so in HEIs (Robyn & Du Preez, 2013). It is important for HEIs to identify interventions that can address the concern of turnover intention among academic staff.

 In terms of job demands, it is important for HEIs to identify, which demands cause work-related stress among academics. Examples of job demands are work overload, heavy lifting, interpersonal conflict and job insecurity (Bakker et al, 2016). Other examples may include short deadlines and unrealistic expectations in terms of deliverables, uncomfortable work environment, high volumes of work, emotionally draining tasks or roles, poor working relationships as well as limited career advancement and personal development opportunities.

In addition, it is important to identify and promote job resources, which can offset the effects of extreme job demands, and encourage motivation and engagement. It is vital for academics to have the necessary resources to do their work. Examples of job resources are feedback, job control, and social support (Bakker et al, 2016). Other job resources/positives may include mentoring or coaching, training and development, increased autonomy, clearer goals etc. Sufficient opportunities for professional development (e.g., training, learning experiences, and career advancement) ensure that employees are capable of dealing with their job demands without feeling obliged to create more challenges at work or take over tasks to improve their skills (Tims & Bakker, 2010)

It is important to ensure that academics have a variety of learning opportunities and autonomy in their jobs. These characteristics will contribute to the meaningfulness of an academic's work, which is an important consideration in the current management culture of HEIs (Robyn & Du Preez, 2013). It should be acknowledged that academic leaders play an important role in promoting employee engagement. In addition, interventions should be implemented to ensure organisational support, including role clarity, good relationships with supervisors, clear communication of information and participation in decision-making. Lastly, advancement opportunities should be provided, which include the remuneration, promotion and training of academics (Robin & Du Preez, 2013)

Organisations should also focus on educating and developing line managers' skills through careful recruitment and development processes (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman & Johnson, 2005; Maccoby, 2007).

2.6 RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN WORKAHOLISM, BURNOUT AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS

HEIs exist to train students in professional and technical areas to support the functional and economic development of the countries in which they discover themselves. The relationships between the antecedents of turnover may be increasing in importance, as researchers have forecasted a shortage of academics in academic institutions (Badat, 2008; Bakos, 2007; Berry, 2010; Bland, Center, Finstad, Risbey & Staples, 2006; Harrison & Hargrove, 2006). It is therefore deemed imperative to identify antecedents through this study that will encourage academics to

remain in their positions. According to Glandon and Glandon (2001), there is limited research on academic turnover in HEIs.

Employees with high levels of burnout are more likely to want to leave their organisation (Maslach et al., 2001). Research found that burnout is associated to heightened absenteeism, intention to leave the job and actual turnover (Ali et al., 2012; Faloye et al., 2013; Hasan et al., 2012; Westman et al., 2001; Thomas & Cornelius, 2010; Marjukka et al., 2009; Wright & Cropanzano, 1998; Swider & Zimmerman, 2010 & Maslach et al., 2001). In addition, Swider and Zimmerman (2010) found turnover related to the facets of burnout; however, they found that Depersonalisation was the most proximal antecedent of turnover, while Emotional Exhaustion was the most proximal antecedent of absenteeism. They argue that employees with high levels of cynicism distance themselves from their work and that this manifests behaviourally through turnover. In contrast, employees with high levels of Emotional Exhaustion are likely to find that temporary separation from work is a way in which they can recover their emotional resources, rather than taking the extreme measure of turnover.

Thus it is hypothesised that burnout (measured through the dimensions of Emotional Exhaustion [H1], Depersonalisation [H2] and Personal Accomplishment [H3]) is related to and explains a proportion of the variance [H8] in turnover intentions.

In addition, concerning the effects of workaholism on the three burnout dimensions, Emotional Exhaustion was significantly associated with workaholism. Specifically, participants with high scores on workaholism were indeed more likely to be emotionally exhausted (Schaufeli et al., 2009). Several studies have found a positive relationship between workaholism and burnout, a state of exhaustion and depletion of mental resources (Andreassen, Ursin, & Eriksen, 2007; Guglielmi et al., 2012; Taris, Schaufeli, & Verhoeven, 2005). When workaholics spend extreme amounts of energy and effort at work, they may exhaust their energy and burn out (Bakker, Demerouti, Oerlemans, & Sonnentag, 2013; Sonnentag & Zijlstra, 2006). In literature, there is extensive research about the effect of exhaustion on intentions to leave (Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2003a; Hu, Schaufeli, & Taris, 2011)

Few studies investigated the relationship between workaholism and intentions to leave the organisation, finding contradictory results (Burke, 2001; Kravina, Falco, Girardi, & De Carlo, 2010). According to Van Beek et al. (2012), only one study has examined the association

between workaholism and turnover intentions, with the results indicating that workaholic employees reported a greater intention to quit (Burke & MacDermid, 1999). Hence workaholism is positively related to intention to quit (H7). Despite the inconsistent and limited amount of research available, it appears reasonable to consider workaholism as a "bad" type of heavy work investment (Van Beek et al., 2012). Table 2.1 presents a summary of the hypotheses to be tested in the present study.

Table 2.1

Summary of hypotheses to be tested

Hypothesis 1:	There is a significant relationship between Emotional Exhaustion and turnover intention.
Hypothesis 2:	There is a statistically significant relationship between Depersonalisation and turnover intention.
Hypothesis 3 :	There is a statistically significant relationship between Personal Accomplishment and Turnover Intention.
Hypothesis 4:	There is a statistically significant relationship between Emotional Exhaustion and workaholism.
Hypothesis 5:	There is a statistically significant relationship between Depersonalisation and workaholism.
Hypothesis 6:	There is a statistically significant relationship between Personal Accomplishment and workaholism.
Hypothesis 7:	There is a statistically significant relationship between workaholism and intention to quit.
Hypothesis 8:	A significant proportion of the variance in turnover intention is explained by Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalisation, Personal Accomplishment and workaholism.

2.7   CONCLUSION

The problem pertaining to turnover intention is becoming a growing concern for institutions. Many questions will remain unanswered regarding this issue, which in turn allows for more future research to be conducted concerning the factors that influence turnover intention. It is only then when institutions and organisations can implement interventions and strategies to combat this problem. This chapter has provided an overview of extant literature with respect to workaholism, burnout and turnover intention within a higher education institution. The JD-R model and theoretical underpinnings of the most salient constructs were highlighted and presented. The next chapter presents the research methodology utilised for the purposes of the study.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of the study was to explore the relationship between burnout dimensions (namely, Personal Accomplishment, Depersonalisation and Emotional Exhaustion) workaholism, and turnover intention among academic staff at a selected university in the Western Cape. The preceding chapter presented a review of the literature pertaining to the aforementioned constructs. In this chapter, the methods applied in the current investigation of the relationship between these constructs, the research design and the participating respondents are discussed. The instruments the data as well as the statistical techniques utilised in this study are also provided. Finally, an overview of the salient ethical principles and considerations, which were borne in mind throughout this undertaking are delineated.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

A quantitative approach with a survey research design was employed in the current study and self-administered questionnaires were administered to the sample of respondents. Sekaran (2003, p. 233) states that a questionnaire is defined as a "preformulated written set of questions to which respondents record their answers usually within rather closely defined alternatives." According to Hayes (2002), there are advantages and disadvantages associated with the use of questionnaires for collecting data in a research study. The advantages are: the questionnaire is useful to obtain information from reasonably large groups of participants; large groups of participants can be assessed simultaneously, costs are relatively low, and they are quick and efficient.

The disadvantages of using questionnaires are: the response rate from participants in answering the questionnaire may be low, they are inflexible, information received may not be in great depth and participants may ignore the questionnaire or parts of it and the researcher will receive incomplete questionnaires which will have to be discarded.

In drawing the sample, it was decided to make use of a non-probability sampling design, which implies that the probability of any element of the population being chosen is not known (Hair, Babin, Money & Samuel, 2003). When using the non-probability sampling, no inference regarding

the target population can be made and the sampling error cannot be estimated. Sekaran and Bougie (2010, p. 298) state that "in non-probability sampling, there is no way of estimating the probability that any element will be included in the sample, and therefore there is no method of finding out whether the sample is representative of the population."

Cooper and Schindler (2003) provide some of the important practical reasons for using this type of sampling, namely: It is a cheap method and easy to administer in the sense that whoever is available and willing can participate on a voluntary basis. Accordingly, the technique that was employed is based on the method of convenience sampling. Information was collected from members of the population who are most easily accessible and conveniently available to provide the required information (Neuman, 2000).

3.3 POPULATION AND SAMPLE

According to Sekaran (2001, p. 266), a "population refers to the entire group of people, events, or things of interest that the researcher wishes to investigate". Tredoux and Durrheim (2002, p. 14) explain a population is "an entire collection of elements or individuals' and a sample as" a subset of such collection". The target population for the present study was academic staff from a selected university in the Western Cape. The targeted population consisted of approximately 1200 academic staff members.

Sekaran (2003) suggested a sample size for a given population of 1200 is approximately 291 respondents. All academic staff was invited to take part in the study through an e-mailed survey link. Due to the low response rate, the current study had a sample size of 100 (12% response rate).

3.4 DATA GATHERING PROCEDURE

Permission to conduct research was obtained from the research university and the Research Committee who provided ethical clearance for the research to be undertaken. The questionnaire was administered electronically via Google Forms. The link to complete the questionnaires was sent via email to all academic staff at the selected university. Respondents were assured of their anonymity as no personal information would be needed. They were also informed that their responses would be kept strictly confidential and that only members of the research team would have access to the information.

Furthermore, respondents were briefed that participation was voluntary and they have the right to withdraw at any time without any repercussion. Those who were interested in partaking in the research were asked to complete the consent form thereby indicating their willingness to participate in the research.

A cover letter clarified instructions on how to answer each questionnaire. Due to a low response rate for the online questionnaire, a paper-and-pencil approach was used to supplement the data. The researcher then approached academics to ask for their participation. A total of 150 distributed hardcopy questionnaires yielded 53 returns. In addition, an additional 53 questionnaires were completed online. After removing incomplete questionnaires, a total of 100 complete usable questionnaires were available for analysis. This represents a response rate of 12% for the population.

3.5 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

This research study used a composite questionnaire that consisted of existing measurement instruments. The survey was sent by email or hand-delivered at the selected university to be completed, either electronically or in hardcopy.

The questionnaire constructed for the purpose of this study was made up of the following components.

- A covering letter outlining the topic of the research and a description of the questionnaires.
- A consent form outlining the purpose and objective of the research and pertinent information related to the rights of the participants.
- The measuring instruments in the form of a composite questionnaire consisting of four sections.

For this research study, four questionnaires were used to gather the data namely, a biographical questionnaire, Maslach Burnout Inventory – MBI-HSS (Maslach & Jackson, 1981), Workaholism Analysis Questionnaire (Aziz et al., 2013) and the Turnover Intentions Questionnaire (Roodt, 2008).

3.5.1   Biographical questionnaire

A questionnaire was used to obtain biographic information of the academic employees, which included race, age, gender, marital status, tenure, educational level, average working hours and profession.

3.5.2   Maslach Burnout Inventory Questionnaire (MBI)

The MBI is one of the most popular used instruments to measure burnout.   The MBI-HSS developed by Maslach and Jackson in 1981 was utilised in the current study. The MBI - HSS is a 22-item questionnaire that uses a Likert-type scale where responses range from 1 (never) and 7 (every day). The MBI-HSS questionnaire is a well-known instrument of burnout that measures all three dimensions of burnout namely Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalisation and Personal Accomplishment (Maslach et al., 2001). The Emotional Exhaustion subscale has 9 items, Depersonalisation 6 items and Personal Accomplishment 8.

Maslach and Jackson (1986) define the subscales as follow:

- **Emotional exhaustion**: Measures feelings of being emotionally exhausted by one's work, e.g. *I feel emotionally drained from work.*
- **Depersonalisation**: Measures an unfeeling and impersonal response towards one's recipients of one's service, care treatment or instruction, e.g. *I feel I treat some students/colleagues as if they were impersonal "objects".*
- **Personal accomplishment**: Measures feelings of competence and successful achievements in one's work, e.g. *I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.*

The MBI measures levels of burnout as either "high", "moderate" or "low" for each of the subscales. Respondents who tend to score high on Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalisation subscale corresponds to higher degrees of perceived burnout, whereas lower scores on the Personal Accomplishment subscale can correspond to higher degrees of apparent burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1986).

3.5.2.1   Reliability and validity of measure

Reliability refers to the accuracy and consistency of the information obtained in a study, whereas validity refers to the ability of the instrument to measure the research variables as intended (Polit & Beck 2008).

In this study, Cronbach's alpha was used to determine the reliability of the instrument. According to Kokt and Palmer (2019), an alpha score above 0.75 is generally accepted as an indication of high reliability, while a score between 0.50 and 0.75 indicates moderate reliability.

Several studies (Bothma & Roodt, 2012; Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010; Hamaideh, 2011; Karanikola & Papathanassoglou, 2013; McClaine & Hanlon, 2010; McTiernan & McDonald, 2015; Storm & Rothmann, 2003) using the MBI had varying degrees of reliability, ranging from 0.55 to 0.92. The Cronbach's alpha for this study for the subscale dimensions ranged between 0.72 - 0.90.

3.5.3   Workaholism Analysis Questionnaire (WAQ)

The WAQ is a 29 item self-report measure of workaholism scored on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), with higher scores indicating higher levels of workaholism (Aziz, Wuensch & Swords, 2013). Sample items include: "I enjoy spending evenings and weekends working" and "I often obsess about goals or achievements at work".

3.5.3.1   Reliability and validity of the measure

The WAQ was developed and validated as an instrument that can be effective to identify workaholism (Aziz et al, 2013). The WAQ demonstrated strong internal reliability (internal consistency) of .93, convergent validity, concurrent validity, discriminant validity, and content validity when used in a heterogenous working population (Aziz, Uhrich, Wuensch, & Swords, 2013). Similarly, an internal consistency of .92 was found in a study conducted on academic and faculty staff at a South Eastern university (Aziz, Wuensch & Vitiello, 2016).

Research findings of Muslim et al. (2016) on workaholism on 188 employees currently working in private and public sector in northern Malaysia found Cronbach's alpha ranging between .693 to .853. In another study conducted by Uhrich (2011) on employees from a variety of different organisations and professional fields (e.g. law, medicine and education) reported a Cronbach's

alpha of .94. The ranges are approximately above .70. This is important because the values above show the internal consistency of the variable. The Cronbach's alpha for this study was 0.89.

3.5.4 Turnover Intentions Questionnaire (TI)

The Turnover Intention Questionnaire developed by Jacobs and Roodt (2008) was utilised to measure the variable turnover intention. The Turnover Intentions Questionnaire is a 14-item self-report measure of intention to quit scored on a 7-point scale, ranging from 1 (never/low/always) and 7 (most of the times, always, high). Examples of the items in the questionnaire included, "How often have you recently considered leaving your job?" also "How frequently have you been scanning newspapers for new job opportunities?" (Jacobs & Roodt, 2008). The above questionnaire was found suitable as it has been developed and conducted within a South African context.

3.5.4.1 Validity and reliability

An acceptable reliability for the Turnover Intentions Questionnaire was obtained in previous studies (Bothma & Roodt, 2012; Jacobs, 2005; Jacobs & Roodt, 2008; Martin & Roodt, 2008). Acceptable reliability coefficients have been reported in South African samples with alpha coefficients ranging from 0.88 - 0.91. The Cronbach's alpha for this study was 0.87.

3.6 STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES AND DATA ANALYSIS

The statistical procedures that were employed include both descriptive and inferential statistical techniques. The inferential statistics included the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient and Multiple Regression Analysis.

3.6.1 Inferential statistics

Sekaran (2003) posited that inferential statistics allows inferences to be made from the data which can determine (i) the relationship between two variables, (ii) differences in a variable among different subgroups, and (iii) how several independent variables may explain the variance in a dependent variable.

3.6.1.1 Pearson product-moment correlation

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2010), the Pearson Product-Moment correlation is one of the measures of correlation that quantifies the strength as well as the direction of such relationships between variables. In order to determine whether a statistically significant relationship exists between workaholism, burnout and turnover intentions among academics, the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was used.

3.6.1.2 Multiple regression analysis

According to Pallant (2016), multiple regression is known to be a sophisticated extension of correlation and is used to obtain the predictive ability of a set of independent variables on one continuous dependent measure. Multiple regression analysis is a useful method to explain the relationship between a dependent variable and two or more independent variables. The multiple regression analysis aimed to ascertain how the independent variables (burnout and its dimensions, namely Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalisation, Personal Accomplishment and workaholism) predict the dependent variable (turnover intention). In this study, the method was used to determine which of the independent variables explained the biggest proportion of the variance in turnover intentions among academic staff.

3.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The researcher gave consideration to the ethical matters relating to the different aspects of the research project. Before conducting the study, permission was obtained from the research university and the Research Committee who provided ethical clearance for the research to be undertaken. The researcher ensured that participants voluntarily agreed to take part in the study and they could decline or withdraw at any point in the research process. This study has obtained consent from the respondents and has ensured that they understood what the study entails. It is imperative that the research undertaken does not harm the participants intentionally or unintentionally. Nonmaleficence is the principle of no harm to participants. This requires the consideration of potential physical, emotional or social harm that may be inflicted on any of the participants involved in the study (Durrheim & Wassenaar, 2004) The researcher ensured that participants were not harmed in any form.

A cover letter was attached to the questionnaire to assure respondents of the privacy, confidentiality and anonymity that the study intended to maintain should they wish to participate.

3.8 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter discussed the research methodology employed in the study with regard to the method and sampling approach used. The target population and measuring instruments adopted were briefly discussed with their psychometric properties. The chapter was concluded with a discussion of the statistical techniques that were used to test the hypotheses. In the next chapter, the results are presented and interpreted with the use of SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences version 24).

CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the empirical analyses conducted to test the hypotheses using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24. The descriptive statistics are presented in an outline of the characteristics of the sample with regard to the variables included in the study. Furthermore, the chapter presents the research results on hypothesis testing using correlation and regression analysis.

4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

This section delineates the descriptive statistics calculated on the basis of the variables included in the biographical questionnaire. The demographic variables that received attention are gender, race, age, marital status, qualification, tenure, job title and average working hours. Descriptive statistics, in the form of frequencies and percentages, are subsequently presented in a tabular format for each of the above-mentioned variables based on the characteristics of the research sample (n = 100).

4.2.1 Biographical information

Table 4.1

Gender distribution of the respondents

		Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent
Valid	Female	59	59.0	59.0
	Male	41	41.0	41.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0

The results depicted in Table 4.1 represents an overview of the respondents' gender that completed the survey. The results illustrate that the majority of the respondents constituting 59% of the sample were female (n = 59), while the remaining respondents (41%) were male (n = 41).

Table 4.2

Ethnicity of the respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Per cent
Valid	African	20	20.0	20.0
	Asian	7	7.0	7.0
	Coloured	36	36.0	36.0
	White	29	29.0	29.0
	Indian	4	4.0	4.0
	Foreigner	4	4.0	4.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0

The results illustrated in Table 4.2 provide insight into the ethnicity of the respondents who completed the survey. With respect to ethnicity, most of the respondents were Coloured representing 36% of the participants, while White respondents constituted a further 29% of the sample. African respondents made up 20% of the respondents and Asian respondents represented 7% of the sample. Indian respondents represented 4% and an additional 4% of the respondents did not disclose their ethnicity.

Table 4.3

Marital status of respondents

		Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent
Valid	Single	33	33.0	33.0
	Married	60	60.0	60.0
	Divorced	4	4.0	4.0
	Unmarried partners/Co-habituating	2	2.0	2.0
	Other	1	1.0	1.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0

Table 4.3 illustrates the marriage status of the respondents who completed the survey. Those that are married represented 60% of respondents, while single respondents comprised a further 33% of the sample, 4% of the sample is divorced and 2% are cohabiting, those that are widowed comprised the smallest category with 1%.

Table 4.4

Age group of respondents

		Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent
Valid	21-30	23	23.0	23.0
	31-40	26	26.0	26.0
	41-50	24	24.0	24.0
	51-60	19	19.0	19.0
	61 and older	8	8.0	8.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0

Table 4.4 indicates that 26% of the respondents were in the age group 31–40 years, while 24% were in the age group 41–50. A further 23% was less than 30 years of age, with the smallest proportion being represented by those in the age category of 61 and older, which comprised 8% of the sample.
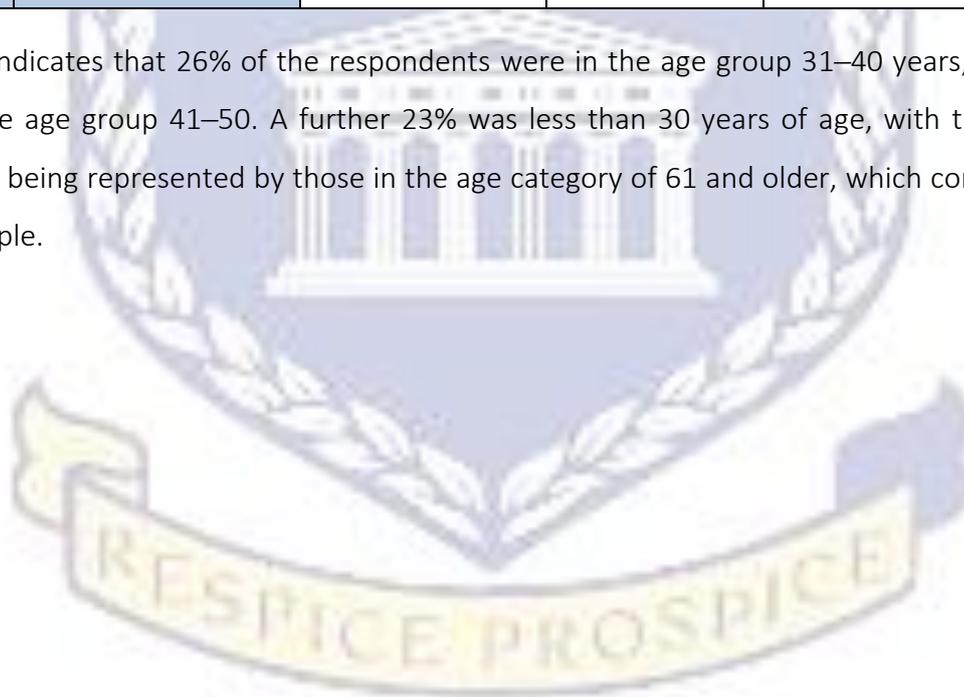
Table 4.5

Tenure of respondents

		Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent
Valid	Less than 1 year	19	19.0	19.0
	1 year – less than 3 years	13	13.0	13.0
	3 years – less than 5 years	15	15.0	15.0
	5 years – less than 7 years	12	12.0	12.0
	7 years – less than 9 years	5	5.0	5.0
	9 years – less than 11 years	9	9.0	9.0
	11 years – less than 13 years	3	3.0	3.0
	13 years – less than 15 years	3	3.0	3.0
	15 years or more	21	21.0	21.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0

Table 4.5 illustrates that 21% of the respondents had been at the university for 15 years or more. Moreover, while 19% of the respondents had been employed at the university for less than 1 year, 15% of the sample had been at the university for 3-—5 years, 13% of the employees at the university for 1-—3 years. The remaining respondents had been at the university for 5-—7years and 13-—15 years.

Table 4.6

Average working hours per week of respondents

		Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent
Valid	20 − 29	25	25.0	25.0
	30 − 39	23	23.0	23.0
	40 − 50	28	28.0	28.0
	50+	23	23.0	23.0
	Other	1	1.0	1.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0

Based on Table 4.6 it is apparent that 28% of the respondents self-reported working hours was 40–50 hours per week, followed by 25% of the respondents who reported 20–30 hours. In addition, 23% of respondents worked between 30-—40 hours a week and an additional 23% of respondents reported working for 50 hours or more per week. The study questions did not request participants to indicate whether they are employed in full-time or part-time capacities. Hence, it is difficult to interpret what is meant by the 25% of employees who reported work of 20–30 hours per week while the typical working hours for a full-time employee at the university

is 40–45 hours per week.

Table 4.7

Highest education level of respondents

		Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent
Valid	Honours degree	15	15.0	15.0
	Master's degree	37	37.0	37.0
	Doctorate	45	45.0	45.0
	Other	3	3.0	3.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0

Table 4.7 illustrates the highest educational level that each respondent possesses. Most of the respondents (i.e. 45%) possess a doctorate, whereby 37% of the respondents hold a master's degree, 15% have an honours degree and the remaining 3% had indicated that they had other qualifications.

Table 4.8

Profession of the respondents

		Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent
Valid	Assistant lecturer	22	22.0	22.0
	Lecturer	38	38.0	38.0
	Senior lecturer	21	21.0	21.0
	Associate professor	8	8.0	8.0
	Professor	10	10.0	10.0
	Senior professor	1	1.0	1.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0

Table 4.8 indicates the professional categories of respondents. The majority of the respondents that made up 38% of the sample were employed at lecturer level. A further 22% were assistant lecturers. In addition, 21% of the sample was senior lecturers and the remaining respondents were associate professors (8%), professors (10%) or senior professors (1%).

4.2.2   RELIABILITY

By measuring the internal consistency of all the variables, the Cronbach's alpha test of reliability was conducted for each scale. According to Sekeran (2003), reliability can be defined as the consistency and stability with which the questionnaire measures the concept and helps to assess the "goodness" of a measure. Tavakol and Dennick (2011) similarly indicate that reliability is concerned with the ability of an instrument to measure consistently. Calculating the Cronbach's alpha is one way of determining the reliability of a questionnaire. A high Cronbach's alpha indicates a reliable measuring instrument (Sekeran, 2003).

Table 4.9

Reliability of the measurement instruments

	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha
Workaholism	29	.90
Turnover intention	14	.46
Turnover intention (after removal of items 3, 10, 11, and 14)	10	.87
Emotional exhaustion	9	.91
Personal accomplishment	7	.79
Depersonalisation	5	.80

Reliability analysis was performed in this study to test whether all the items used to measure the variables are reliable and can be used to achieve the objectives of the research study. According to Kokt and Palmer (2019), an alpha score above .75 is generally accepted as an indication of high reliability. Table 4.9 presents the reliability of the scales used in the research study. The results indicate that satisfactory Cronbach's alpha coefficients were obtained for the measuring instruments, except for the original version of the turnover intentions scale.

Based on the above table, one of the variables had a reliability scale lower than the .70; corrective action was therefore taken to increase the reliability of the measure. It is noted that all the items that were removed from the turnover intention scale were reversed scored items. Reversed scored items are also known as negatively worded items (Brown, 2006).

4.3   DESCRIPTIVE RESULTS

Table 4.10 outlines the descriptive results for workaholism, burnout dimensions and turnover intention. The results aim to determine the mean score of workaholism, burnout and turnover intention   for   the   sample.

Table 4.10

Descriptive analysis and distribution of the data (n = 100)

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Workaholism	1.24	4.34	2.9003	.63862	-.246	.241	-.196	.478
Burnout Depersonalisation	.00	25.00	5.9500	5.81252	1.077	.241	.448	.478
Burnout Personal Accomplishment	6.00	42.00	31.0200	7.03954	-.646	.241	.523	.478
Burnout Emotional Exhaustion	.00	49.00	25.8000	12.60111	-.034	.241	-1.019	.478
Turnover Intention	1.00	6.70	3.9030	1.34633	.043	.241	-.927	.478

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The results indicate the following: Workaholism (M = 2.90, SD = 0.64), Depersonalisation (M = 5.95, SD = 5.81), Personal Accomplishment (M = 31.02, SD = 7.04), Emotional Exhaustion (M = 25.80, SD = 12.60), and Turnover Intentions (M = 3.90, SD = 1.34).

Skewness and kurtosis were used to assess the normality of data distribution. According to Hair et el., (2017. p.61), "skewness assesses the extent to which a variable's distribution is symmetrical". The data may either be weighted to the left or right, the high or low end of the scale. Kurtosis refers to a measure of whether the "distribution is too peaked (a very narrow distribution with most of the responses in the centre)" (Hair et al., 2017, p. 61). The distribution of data is normal if the values for skewness and kurtosis equal to 0 (McNeese, 2016)

Garson (2011) postulates that skewness and kurtosis values between -1 and 1 indicate a distribution, which is not significantly different from a normal distribution. The values in Table 4.10 indicate that all the scales do not differ significantly from a normal distribution. However, there are two cases where the number is above 1 meaning there is some small non-normality of the data for Depersonalisation (1.07) and Emotional Exhaustion (-1.01). Workaholism, Personal Accomplishment and Emotional Exhaustion are normally distributed with a positive skewness, whereas a turnover intention is normally distributed with a negative skewness.

4.3.1   Interpretation of the mean scores

By considering the interpretation of the mean scores for workaholism, burnout dimensions and turnover intention, existing cut-off points and criteria (where available were used). If not available, the Likert scale anchors were used to supplement the interpretation.

The MBI measures levels of burnout as either "high", "moderate" or "low" for each of the subscales. Respondents who tend to score high on the Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalisation subscale correspond to higher degrees of perceived burnout, whereas lower scores on the Personal Accomplishment subscale can correspond to higher degrees of apparent burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1986).

Maslach et al. (1996) reported cut-off points for the MBI. These cut-off points are presented in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11

Cut-off points for each subscale of Maslach Burnout Inventory

Subscale	Level of Burnout	Score range
Depersonalisation	High	>13
	Moderate	7 – 12
	Low	0 – 6
Emotional Exhaustion	High	> 27
	Moderate	17 – 26
	Low	0 – 16
Personal Accomplishment	High	>39
	Moderate	32 – 38
	Low	0 – 31

Personal Accomplishment (PA) is interpreted in the opposite direction to Emotional Exhaustion (EE) and Depersonalisation (DP), as PA questions are positively framed. A high score in PA means low burnout risk. A high score in EE means high EE. High scores in DP mean high DP. Both are associated with burnout risk.

4.3.2   MBI mean scores interpretation

Table 4.11 illustrates the MBI scoring key. For Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalisation subscales, high mean scores indicate high levels of burnout whereas low mean scores reflect low levels of burnout. In terms of the Personal Accomplishment subscale, high mean scores reflect low levels of burnout and low mean scores reflect high levels of burnout (Maslach et al., 2017). Maslach et al. (2017) elucidate that a respondent can be diagnosed with burnout syndrome if

the score is 27 or more in the Emotional Exhaustion subscale, 13 or more in the Depersonalisation subscale, and 31 or less in lack of Personal Accomplishment subscale.

In order to interpret the mean scores for the different variables, the mean scores were compared to the corresponding Likert scale anchor used in the questionnaire. Based on the above mean scores the relation to the 5-point Likert scale used in the workaholism questionnaire were described as follows: (1) "strongly disagree", (2) "disagree" (3) "neither agree nor disagree", (4) "agree" (5) "strongly agree". In terms of the 7-point Likert scale used in turnover intentions were described as (1) "Never" - (7) "Most of the times".

4.3.3   Workaholism

The mean value for the workaholism variable is M = 2.90. Feedback generated from the above results clearly indicates that more respondents lean towards a neutral answer (i.e. 3 = neither disagree nor agree) with regard to their perceived experience of workaholism. However, if considering the first decimal of the mean (i.e. 2), there does seem to be more disagreement than agreement with their perceived level of workaholism. The standard deviation of 0.64, however, indicates that some respondents may have differed slightly in their responses. It can be concluded that the respondents, on average, did not report agreement with workaholism experiences.

4.3.4   Burnout – Depersonalisation dimension

In terms of Depersonalisation, the mean score of 5.95 falls within the 'low' category according to the cut-off criteria presented in Table 4.11. This means that respondents are unlikely to experience an impersonal approach towards those they serve. Within the academic context, where students are the main clients, it may mean that the academics sampled in the present study do not take a dehumanised impersonal approach to students.

4.3.5   Burnout - Personal Accomplishment dimension

As depicted in Table 4.10, mean = 31.02 for the Personal Accomplishment variable. The results indicate that the respondents are experiencing high levels of Personal Accomplishment. High-level values range between 0—31. It can be said that most of the respondents experience the

feeling of Personal Accomplishment at least a few times a week to every day. Within the context of the study, the results indicate for the most part of the week if not every day, the respondents are most likely to experience a high sense of personal achievement and accomplishment. As a result, it may be concluded that respondents experience lower levels of burnout within the Personal Accomplishment subscale.

4.3.6 Emotional Exhaustion dimension

As per the results indicated in Table 4.11, the results indicate that respondents experienced moderate levels of Emotional Exhaustion (M = 25.8). Moderate levels of Emotional Exhaustions range between 17–26 as the cut -off point. It is most likely that more respondents responded to the higher end of the scale (SD = 12.6), which indicates that the respondents are most likely to experience Emotional Exhaustion once a week to a few times a week on average. The results indicate that the academic sample within this study is feeling overwhelmed and potentially fatigued by their work environment.

4.3.7 Turnover Intentions

The mean score for turnover intention (M = 3.9, SD = 1.34), indicates that the respondents responded to the lower end of the Likert scale (i.e.1 = "never"), which could mean they are not often experiencing any turnover intentions.

4.4 INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

The following section addresses the results obtained for the inferential statistics to ascertain the relationship between workaholism, burnout and turnover intention among academic employees in a selected university in the Western Cape. The Pearson Correlation was conducted to test if there is a relationship and its strength among the variables. In this study, the independent variables are workaholism, burnout dimensions (Personal Accomplishment, Depersonalisation, Emotional Exhaustion) while the dependent variable is the turnover intention. Eight hypotheses were generated for this study. The hypotheses were tested based on Pearson Correlation analysis and multiple regression analysis. The correlation table between all variables are presented in Table 4.13 and is discussed under the appropriate hypothesis.

4.4.1   Correlation analysis

The correlation coefficient is a number between 0–1 that indicates how strong the relationship between variables is. The correlation of 0 indicates no relationship, a correlation of 1.0 indicates a perfect positive correlation, and a correlation of -1.0 indicates a perfect positive correlation. Different authors suggest a different interpretation of coefficient correlation, however, according to Cohen (1988,79-81), interpretations of the correlation coefficient are as follows:

Table 4.12

Cohen's Magnitude of Correlation Coefficient Interpretation

Small correlation	*r = 0.10 to 0.29*
Medium correlation	*r = 0.30 to 0.49*
Large/Strong correlation	*r = 0.50 to 1.00*
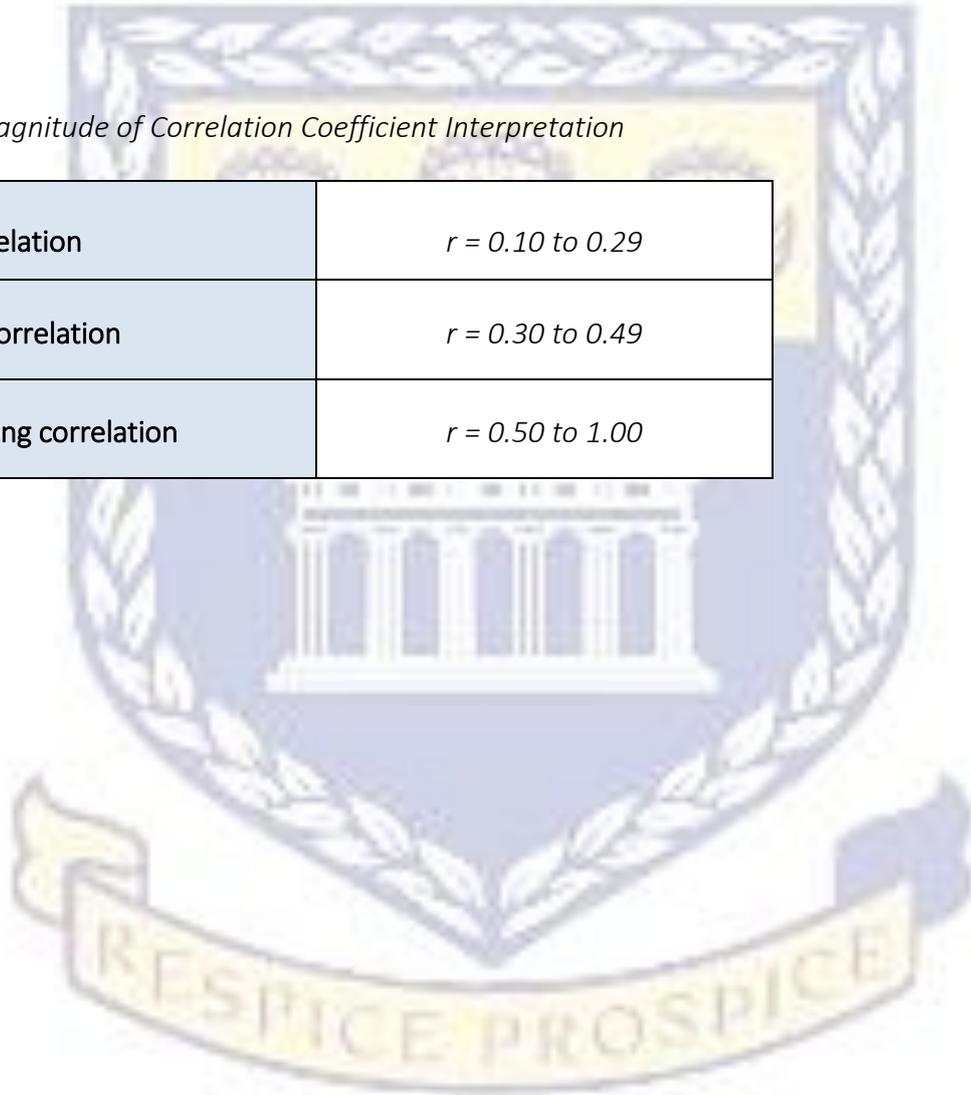
Table 4.13

Correlations between workaholism, burnout dimensions and turnover intention (n=100)

		Workaholism	Depersonalisation	Personal Accomplishment	Emotional Exhaustion	Turnover Intention
Workaholism	Pearson Correlation	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)					
Depersonalition	Pearson Correlation	.330**	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001				
Personal Accomplishment	Pearson Correlation	.144	-.245*	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.152	.014			
Emotional Exhaustion	Pearson Correlation	.678**	.528**	-.021	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.835		
Turnover Intention	Pearson Correlation	.503**	.386**	-.049	.634**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.627	.000	
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).						
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).						

The results for the following hypotheses are derived from the correlation coefficients reported in Table 4.13. Namely:

Hypothesis 1:

There is a significant relationship between Emotional Exhaustion and turnover intention.

The results of the correlation analysis indicate $r = .634$, which is significant at the 0.01 level ($p < 0.01$). This is a strong positive correlation. Thus, the hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis 2:

There is a statistically significant relationship between Depersonalisation and Turnover Intention.

The results of the correlation analysis indicate $r = .386$, which is significant at the 0.01 level ($p < 0.01$). There is a medium positive correlation. Thus, the hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis 3:

There is a statistically significant relationship between Personal Accomplishment and Turnover Intention.

The results of the correlation analysis indicate $r = -.049$, which is statistical significant, which is not statistically significant, $p = .627$. Thus, the hypothesis is rejected due to the lack of statistical significance.

Hypothesis 4:

There is a statistically significant relationship between Emotional Exhaustion and workaholism.

The results of the correlation analysis indicate $r = 0.678$ is significant at the 0.01 level ($p < 0.01$). There is a strong positive correlation. Thus, the hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis 5:

There is a statistically significant relationship between Depersonalisation and workaholism.

The results of the correlation analysis indicate r = .330 with a significance at the 0.01 level (p < 0.01). This is a moderate positive correlation. Thus, the hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis 6:

There is a statistically significant relationship between Personal Accomplishment and workaholism.

The results of the correlation analysis indicate r = .144, which is not statistically significant at p =.152. Thus, the hypothesis is rejected.

Hypothesis 7:

There is a statistically significant relationship between workaholism and intention to quit.

The results of the correlation analysis indicate r = .503, which is significant at the 0.01 level (p < 0.01). This is a strong positive correlation. Thus, the hypothesis is accepted.

4.5   REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

In order to test the directionality of the relationship to determine whether Emotional Exhaustion, Personal Accomplishment, Depersonalisation, workaholism (independent variables) explain a significant proportion of the variance in turnover intention (dependent variable); a multiple regression analysis was done. The following section thus presents the results of Hypothesis 8 testing via ANOVA:

Table 4.14

ANOVA model with turnover intention as the dependent variable

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.559[a]	.312	.283	.61154
a. Predictors: (Constant), BO_EE, BO_PA, BO_DEP, TOT_WORKAH				

Table 4.15

ANOVA test of significance with turnover intention as dependent variable

ANOVA[a]						
Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	16.117	4	4.029	10.774	.000[b]
	Residual	35.529	95	.374		
	Total	51.646	99			
a. Dependent Variable: TI						
b. Predictors: (Constant), BO_EE, BO_PA, BO_DEP, TOT_WORKAH						

Table 4.15 presents a summary of the regression model between Emotional Exhaustion, Personal Accomplishment, Depersonalisation, workaholism (independent variables) and turnover intention (dependent variable). The R^2 indicates that 31.2% of the variance in turnover intentions are explained by the independent variables. Table 4.14 indicates that the variance explained is statistically significant ($R^2 = 0.312$, $F (4, 95) = 10.774$, $p < 0.01$)

In order to determine which of the independent variables explained the greatest proportion of the variance in turnover intention, the coefficients table was consulted.

Table 4.16

Coefficients Table

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	3.267	.379		8.629	.000
	Workaholism	.108	.134	.095	.803	.424
	Depersonalisation	.007	.013	.053	.510	.612
	Personal Accomplishment	-.012	.009	-.116	-1.282	.203
	Emotional Exhaustion	.026	.007	.446	3.462	.001
a. Dependent Variable: TI						

The analysis indicates that out of the four independent variables, only Emotional Exhaustion had a significant beta weight (β = 0.446, p <0.01). The hypothesis was therefore partially accepted.

Hypothesis 8:

A significant proportion of the variance in turnover intention is explained by Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalisation, Personal Accomplishment and workaholism.

4.6   CONCLUSION

In this chapter the results of the research data analyses generated from the statistical programme SPSS version 24 were presented. This chapter provided an overview of the most

salient findings obtained based on descriptive and inferential data that were generated from the sample of academic staff. In terms of inferential statistics, regression analysis was applied to determine to what extent the variables explain the variance in turnover intention. Eight of the hypotheses were tested, whereby five of the hypotheses were accepted. The next chapter discusses the data interpretation, recommendations based on the empirical findings found in this chapter and limitations.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH RESULTS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

5.1 Introduction

This is the concluding chapter of the research undertaken. This chapter provides a discussion based on the findings of this research study. The literatures of previous studies are incorporated into this discussion in order to conceptualise the findings. Furthermore, a conclusion is drawn based on the results of this research as well as limitations for the research study and recommendations for the selected university.

5.2 Discussion of Results

5.2.1 Demographic Information

Due to the low response rate, the current study had a sample size of 100 from a selected university in the Western Cape. The largest proportion of respondents were male (59%, n=59) and the greatest proportion of the sample size were Coloured in ethnicity (36%, n=36). Most of the respondents were married (60%, n=60) and the majority of the respondents were between the ages of 31–40years (26%, n=26). In addition, most respondents (21%, n=21) indicated that they have been employed at the university for 15 years or more. In terms of the highest education level, the majority of the respondents (45%, n=45) had a doctorate degree and were lecturers in the profession (38%, n=38). Lastly, the majority of respondents (28%, n=28) indicated that they worked an average of 40–50 working hours per week.

5.2.2 Descriptive information

The mean scores on each of the variables were interpreted based on known cut-off criteria or based on Likert scale anchors. The findings indicate that the sample, on average, did not agree with having experiences of workaholism or turnover intentions. With regard to the burnout dimensions, Personal Accomplishment and Depersonalisation did not seem to be problematic for the sample. However, on average, the sample experience high moderate Emotional Exhaustion.

Regarding Emotional Exhaustion, the results of this study are in line with Mathieu and Zajac, (1990) and Antosnovsky, (1979). Emotional exhaustion positively predicts turnover intention among the university faculty. The same results are reported by Leiter and Maslach (2009); de Croon et al (2004); Lee and Ashforth, (1996); Söderfeldt et al. (1995) in different studies on the relationship between emotional exhaustion and turnover intention.

Of note, burnout should not be considered to be a short lived phenomenon (van Tonder & Williams, 2009). In a study conducted by Mirvis et al (1999), the study revealed that the syndrome gradually worsens over a period of time and further noted that a significant proportion of employees whom had been categorised as low burnout employees ultimately transitioned to high burnout stages somewhat 8 years later. It therefore remains a pressing need to continuously assess the prevalence of burnout and stress among South-African academic staff on a regular basis.

5.3 RESULTS EMANATING FROM THE HYPOTHESES

5.3.1 There is a significant relationship between Emotional Exhaustion and turnover intention

The current study revealed that there is a significant relationship between Emotional Exhaustion and turnover intention (r = .634, p < 0.01). In another study conducted by Azharudeen and Andrew (2018) in the apparel industry, it was concluded that there is a strong positive relationship between Emotional Exhaustion and employee turnover intention. Further studies among nurses demonstrated that career future and burnout (Emotional Exhaustion) predicted the levels of nurses' intention to quit (Azharudeen & Andrew, 2018).

Ahmed (2015) conducted a study in which the relationship between Emotional Exhaustion and turnover intention was investigated among academics. The study showed a significant correlation between Emotional Exhaustion and turnover intention. Similar studies reported the same results (De Croon, et al., 2004; Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Leither & Maslach, 2009; Soderfeldt et al, 1995).

Therefore, the above overview illustrated that Emotional Exhaustion is one of the predictors of

turnover intention and most of the studies consider the service sector for this research area (Azharudeen & Andrew, 2018).   It is therefore important for the management of the university to improve on the organisation culture, engagement and commitment.

5.3.2   There is a statistically significant relationship between Depersonalisation and turnover intention

The results of the study indicated that there is a significant relationship between Depersonalisation and turnover intentions (r = .386, p < 0.01).   Research has indicated that Depersonalisation has major dysfunctional consequences, which suggests considerable costs for both the organisation and its employees (Totawar & Nambudiri, 2012). For instance, it leads to absenteeism (Maslach & Jackson, 1981), reduced job satisfaction (Lee, et al., 2011), reduced commitment and turnover intentions (Halbesleben& Buckley, 2004; Lee Ashforth 1996; Lee, Lim, Yang, & Lee, 2011; Low et al., 2001).

Swider and Zimmerman (2010) found turnover related to the facets of burnout; however, they found that Depersonalisation was the most proximal antecedent of turnover. Furthermore, in a study conducted by Biron, Fournier and Knani, (2018), the results indicated that burnout, in particular, Depersonalisation and Emotional Exhaustion is positively associated with turnover intentions among agents and advisers working at a Canadian University.

Similarly, El-Sakka (2016) found that a positive relationship between Depersonalisation and turnover intention exists between academic staff. This would imply that the higher the Canadian International College academic staff are suffering from Depersonalisation the higher their intention to leave their work.

5.3.3   There is a statistically significant relationship between Personal Accomplishment and Turnover Intention

The results of the correlation analysis indicate r = -.049 with a statistical significance, which is not statistically significant. Thus, the hypothesis is rejected due to the lack of statistical significance.

Leiter (1988) explains that a consequence of Depersonalisation is to feel the loss of Personal Accomplishment. However, similarly to this current study, a study conducted by Wen-Lin (2013) among hospital employees found that Personal Accomplishment is not a significant predictor of turnover intention. On the contrary, in a study conducted by El-Sakka (2016) an analysis revealed that there was a significant positive relationship between reduced Personal Accomplishment and Turnover Intention (r= .658, P<0.1).

Within the current study, academics did not experience a high feeling of reduced Personal Accomplishment and would imply that there is a lower chance of any turnover intentions among the academics at the selected university, which supports the aforementioned hypothesis. Potential reasons for the results could be that academics seemed to be satisfied with their level of Personal Accomplishment, which may emanate from making a difference in student's lives, publishing research and having autonomy in how they choose to determine their work. Thus, with the sample's low levels of turnover intention in general, it seems understandable that the sense of high Personal Accomplishment does not contribute in a statistically significant manner to turnover intention for the research sample.

5.3.4 There is a statistically significant relationship between Emotional Exhaustion and workaholism

The results of the correlation analysis indicate r = .678, which is significant at the 0.01 level (p < 0.01). There is a strong positive correlation. Therefore, the hypothesis is accepted. A study by Ali, Hajkarimi, and Koolivand, (2014) found a significant relationship between Emotional Exhaustion and workaholism among a number of participants across various industries. The authors further elucidate that workaholism is the strongest predictor of Emotional Exhaustion. Furthermore, a positive association between workaholism and Emotional Exhaustion was also found in a study conducted by Andreassen, Pallesen and Torsheim (2018) on employees from a large consultant firm. The above studies are in support of the current study. Overworking (i.e. workaholism) is experienced as emotionally exhausting to academics. It could be noted that workaholism imposed a great pressure on an individual, the consequence of which was occupational stress and as the result of occupational stress, the person's physical and mental energy gnawed (Jenaabadi et al., 2016). Due to high workload, a wide variety of duties, high work pressure and

the autonomous nature of academic work, some academics may find it difficult to switch off and keep aspiring to research goals or carry high teaching burdens. Workaholism imposed a great burden on the individual and this burden increased tension, fatigue, and burnout and decreased job satisfaction (Jenaabadi et al., 2016). It can be concluded that there is a significant association between Emotional Exhaustion and workaholism constructs.

5.3.5　There is a statistically significant relationship between Depersonalisation and workaholism

The results of the correlation analysis indicate r = .330 with a significant at the 0.01 level (p < 0.01). This is a moderate positive correlation. Thus, the hypothesis is accepted. A study by Ali et al., (2016) found that there is a significant relationship between Depersonalisation and workaholism among faculty members at a selected university. In addition, Cheung, Tang, Lim and Koh (2018) equally found a relationship between Depersonalisation and workaholism among participants from different industries (mining, natural resources, services and manufacturing. A medium effect between workaholism and Emotional Exhaustion was found, while the effect size was smaller with Depersonalisation. These results correspond with previous studies, which identify the significant association between the two constructs (e.g., Moyer et al., 2017; Schaufeli et al., 2009). Burned – out academic staff are exhausted and may relate to their students in a more callous and cynical way (depersonalisation) and potentially accomplish less. Hence, it is important for the current university to prevent and combat burnout, by targeting workaholic behaviour, role problems and job demands among academic staff.

5.3.6　There is a statistically significant relationship between Personal Accomplishment and workaholism

The results of the correlation analysis indicate r = .144, which is not statistically significant. Thus, the hypothesis is rejected. Another dimension of burnout is the reduction of Personal Accomplishment, which refers to employees becoming negative about their own organisational lives and assessing their work as worthless (Maslach & Leiter, 2016; Wright & Bonett, 1997). Various stressors drive employees to experience lower levels of task accomplishment and to undervalue themselves. For example, task overload will force academics to face the limits of

their working capacity, leaving them disappointed for having inefficiently handled the tasks handed to them. This implies that stressors will lead to negative self-evaluation and create emotional futility, ultimately increasing experiences of burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 2006).

Academics experiencing higher levels of Emotional Exhaustion run the risk of affecting their own feelings of personal accomplishments (Scott, 2019). Maslach described this sensation as "an intense feeling of professional inefficacy" (Iancu et al., 2017, p. 2). When academics do not believe they are making a difference in the lives of their students or perceive that they are achieving very little, which matters to them, they may begin to feel lost. Like most careers, individuals strive to succeed in their current work and teaching is no different. Without meeting these ambitions and goals, stress could build up and affect their thoughts about continuing teaching. Trying to accomplish one's goal becomes much more difficult when much is demanded from them. Failing to attain what is expected from them could result in teachers experiencing "lower feelings of competence and personal achievement in one's work" (McCarthy et al., 2009, p. 297).

Within the current study, on average, the sample did not experience any feelings of low Personal Accomplishment or workaholism. Potential reasons for the results could be that academics felt a sense of competence and successful achievement in their work.

5.3.7 There is a statistically significant relationship between workaholism and intention to quit

The results of the correlation analysis indicate *r* = .503, which is significant at the 0.01 level *(p <* 0.01). This is a strong positive correlation. Thus, the hypothesis is accepted. Turnover intentions are seen as a consequence of workaholism (Burke & MacDermid, 1999; Van Beek et al. 2014). Thus, employees with high turnover intentions are more likely to be associated with workaholism than with work engagement (Bothma & Roodt, 2012).

Investigating the impact of workaholism on the intention to quit is unequivocal since some research suggests that academics who display workaholic tendencies reported a greater intention to quit (Van Beek et al., 2014). Limited research is available on the relationship between workaholism and intention to quit within HEIs. However, studies by Van Beek et al., (2014) and Ahdmed and Khan (2015) within different industries reported a significant

relationship between the two constructs. The findings indicate that the sample, on average, did not agree to have experiences of workaholism or turnover intentions, however, it is important for the academics in this study to keep and maintain a balance between personal and professional life, and prioritisation, which may reduce the degree of work addiction or workaholic tendencies. Moreover, successful management and understanding the signs of workaholism may aid to address and eliminate the issue within the selected university.

5.3.8 A significant proportion of the variance in turnover intention is explained by Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalisation, Personal Accomplishment and workaholism

Based on the multiple regression results, it was found that only Emotional Exhaustion had the most significant impact on intention to quit among the sampled population. By including Depersonalisation, Personal Accomplishment and workaholism in the prediction of intention to quit the total explanatory power of these factors on turnover intention were shown to be 31.2%. Academics have placed considerable emphasis on the main effect of burnout on turnover intention (Weinert, Maier, Laumer, & Weitzel, 2015). As employees experience higher levels of burnout, it is more likely for employees to escape such psychological problems by exiting their current organisation (Cho, Kim & Lee, 2019). Indeed, several studies have shown clear evidence supporting the positive association between burnout and turnover intention (Ducharme, Knudsen, & Roman, 2007; Kim & Stoner, 2008). Emotional exhaustion as a dimension of burnout is considered to be one of the main factors that lead to employee turnover (Azharudeen & Andrew, 2018; Yeun & Kim, 2015). These results are supported by several studies (Aiken, Clarke, Sloane, Lake, Cheney, 2008; Delobelle, Rawlinson, Malatsi, Decock, Depoorter, 2011; Hall, 2007; Kim, 2010; Kim, Kim & Choi, 2009).

Emotional exhaustion is a result of heavy workloads (Kim & Yen, 2015). The more an individual's workload increases the more likely they are to experience exhaustion. According to Jackson and Schaub (1986), academics are finding that their feelings about themselves, their students, and their profession are more negative than they were initially. Academics are susceptible to developing chronic feelings of Emotional Exhaustion and fatigue, negative attitudes towards their students, and a loss of feelings of accomplishment on the job (Jackson & Schaub, 1986).

The results of this research show that Emotional Exhaustion is the factor with the greatest influence on turnover intention. As the literature tells us Emotional Exhaustion is often used as a substitute for the burnout scale, the selected university need to take care not to overwhelm their academics with demands on their time and cognitive ability as it is prevalent that the academics in this study are experiencing higher levels of Emotional Exhaustion. This may be due to feeling overtaxed from work, physical exhaustion, high work demands and pressure. Engaged and dedicated employees have shown to have lower turnover intention, so the university should be encouraged to help sustain employees' vigour and dedication by providing, for example, meaningful work activities, flexible working arrangements, opportunities for growth and development and incentive compensation (Saks, 2006; Van den Berg *et al.*, 2008).

5.4   LIMITATIONS OF THE PRESENT RESEARCH STUDY

The aim of the research study was to contribute to the body of knowledge concerning turnover intentions among academic employees; however, it is not without limitations. The research findings in the study should be interpreted with caution due to the limitations of the research.

The most noteworthy limitation of this study involves the size of the sample. Due to the unpredictable abruption of the academic programme at the selected university resulting from various "fees must fall" campaigns and student protests that took place in 2017, many complications arose during the data collection procedure.

In addition, while the sample size is considered large enough to be a representative sample, a larger sample would have increased the generalisability of the research findings (Shadish et al., 2004). Consequently, the generalisability to the entire population group is limited. Naturally, this also limits generalisability to other universities.

The second limitation concerns the sampling method that was used. A non-probability sampling method in the form of convenience sampling can cause certain groups of the population group to be under-represented. Selection bias has consequently been introduced, which reduces the extent to which the results of the study may be generalised to the entire population to which the research hypotheses apply (Sekaran, 2001).

Quantitative research methods have their merits, including an objective comparison of data, but they also have demerits such as not factoring in the research context (Rahman, 2016). The

research data were obtained using only quantitative methods in the form of questionnaires, which may have limited the strength of the research findings as a single method was used in isolation to gather data.

The reliance of this study was based solely on self-report measures. Respondents may have misrepresented themselves while responding to the questions. This can happen for various reasons, which include but are not limited to social desirability, in an attempt to protect privacy and bias (Conway, 2002; Sekaran, 2001).

Finally, in terms of the research design, future studies should focus on longitudinal designs where inferences regarding cause and effect could be made (Robinson, Flowers, & Ng, 2006).

5.5   RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE PRESENT RESEARCH STUDY

On the basis of the present study, a number of suggestions may also be made with regard to future research that may prove fruitful. In order to counter the above-mentioned problems, it is recommended that external validity be enhanced by the selection of a larger sample as well as through the utilisation of a probability sampling design. By drawing a stratified random sample of participants from the population, selection bias will be reduced. Subsequently, the sample will be more representative of the population under investigation, allowing for greater generalisability of the research findings.

It is further suggested that future studies raise ecological validity by focusing on the selection of samples that are representative across similar organisations in South Africa. Following such an approach will increase the scope of the applicability of the research findings by allowing for greater generalisability (Shadish, et al., 2004).

Utilising a triangulation approach could also prove beneficial, in that the researcher could gain a greater understanding of the construct under investigation using qualitative information gathered from interviews (Bekhet & Zauszniewski, 2012). Data were gathered using self-reported surveys, therefore it is possible that participants may have answered in a way that they perceived to be more socially desirable, as opposed to answering in a more genuine manner. Therefore, for future research, it is recommended that interviews be conducted as an addition to the self-reported surveys.

The Turnover Intention Questionnaire presented problems when reliability was measured for the instrument. Correction action was taken to increase the reliability of the measure. A few items were removed (item 3, 10, 14 and 14) from the turnover intention scale. All items removed from the scale were reversed scored items. It is recommended that the aforementioned items be reviewed as it have a negative impact on the reliability of the questionnaire.

It is important to have a sufficient sample size in order to conclude a valid research result. The larger the sample, the more precise the results will be (Sekaran, 2001). A larger sample size will ensure that the sample is considered representative of a population and that the statistical result can be generalised to a larger population.

5.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE SELECTED UNIVERSITY

Turnover intentions in academic institutions have become one of the main concerns for management as surviving and achieving excellence is very much about having knowledgeable and committed employees. Academic employees, in general, are the most valuable asset for any educational institute; hence it is important for universities to identify the factors causing turnover intention in their staff.

In addition, when designing retention strategies, management and human resource practitioners need to recognise how burnout (and its dimensions) and workaholism influence turnover intention among academic employees. This will aid in addressing issues relating to burnout and workaholism and assist in retaining knowledgeable staff in the current higher education environment.

In terms of addressing and preventing workaholism at an organisational level, employers play an important role in terms of setting a good example to work in a healthy manner (Fry & Cohen, 2009). Additionally, the organisation should ensure employees are exposed to challenging, but not extreme and exaggerated job demands as well as ensure the necessary and adequate job resources are in place. (Bakker et al., 2009). Above all, management needs to ensure the university offers sufficient opportunities for development to support academics in facing challenging job demands.

At an individual level, academics need the education to become aware of the existence of workaholism, causes and more importantly, the potential consequences for their well-being and

quality of both personal and family life. Having access to an Employee Assistance Programme or any form of counselling, as well as training programmes that focus on time and stress management and personal effectiveness can be important instruments to prevent or help deal with workaholism (Schabracq, 2005). Coping style plays a significant role between workaholism and ill-health (Shimazu, Schaufeli & Taris, 2010). The authors further suggested that when

Additionally, it is important to identify those academic employees who are at risk of workaholism and burnout; presenting psychological educational programmes such as training effective coping strategies to reduce the risk of workaholism and burnout among academic employees; actively monitor work schedules and simultaneously attempt to reach a balance between work and activities, re-establishing work priorities, alternate career plans, ensuring employees leave work at a specified time and creating an organisational culture with values that emphasise the importance of work-family balance ((Shimazu, Schaufeli & Taris, 2010). The aforementioned interventions may aid in academics recovering from fatigue and exhaustion.

In terms of burnout, for academic staff, awareness about the sources of burnout is important so that the root causes of burnout can be identified and eliminated (Anwar, Din & Khan, 2019) .If other variables are differentially associated with burnout components, then it is plausible that intervention strategies would also be differentially effective, depending on the particular burnout component that is being addressed. Thus, an overall measure of burnout results in a loss of information. It is important to identify which component of burnout is being experienced by academic staff and design interventions to address the issue accordingly. In the case of the present study, the burnout dimension that indicates a warning light is that of Emotional Exhaustion.

 In order to address the issue of Emotional Exhaustion, the university can conduct training on emotional awareness and emotional management abilities, which may aid in decreasing burnout through the maintenance of an effective and appropriate, relationship among team members (Wiederhold, 2018). Various programmes may be developed in universities to address a variety of personal and professional issues to ensure academics well-being. Lastly, adopting training on various issues based on cognitive-behavioural approaches such as time management, relaxation techniques, focused breathing, meditation methods, self-awareness training, and support for a healthy approach to the work environment (Dabrow, 2016; Shimizu, 2013). A cognitive-

behavioural approach is acknowledged to be a very effective treatment for stress-related mood disorders (Wiederhold, 2018).

At an individual level, the issue of burnout should be managed by academic staff and at an institutional level, by management of the university as well as the policy makers in the HEI system (Anwar, Din & Khan, 2019). On an individual level, interventions are primarily based on the enhancement of job competencies and coping skills or improved resilience through better control of negative emotions and relaxation exercises (Jordan & Troth, 2014). Lastly, university management should take care of physical working conditions because ergonomically unfit work environments contribute to the development of physical stressors (Anwar, Din & Khan, 2019).

5.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

It is deemed expedient to investigate the relationship between workaholism, burnout and turnover intentions among academics due to potential long-term adverse impact this is likely to have. Research has shown that, contrary to popular belief, academics have a relatively comfortable, unpressured job, they are faced with a myriad of factors and are prone to suffer from workaholism and concomitantly, heightened levels of stress, burnout and other health-related issues. Several studies provide empirical evidence that workaholism results in poor social relationships outside work and dissatisfaction with life; (Van Beek, Taris, Schaufeli & Brenninkmeijer, 2014); poor work-life balance (Schaufeli et al, 2009); low job satisfaction; and low extra-role behaviour (Schaufeli, Bakker, van der Heijden, & Prins, 2009). Workaholism is significantly linked to Emotional Exhaustion, Personal Accomplishment and Depersonalisation. Therefore it can be considered an antecedent of the components of burnout (Ali, Hasan & Fatemah, 2016). Although the sample in the current study did not present worrisome experiences of workaholism or turnover intention, the significance lies in the finding that Emotional Exhaustion, as a dimension of burnout, explains the biggest proportion of the variance in turnover intention. Thus, universities should take care to manage the Emotional Exhaustion of their staff in order to retain valuable talent. In this regard, Pienaar and Bester (2008) encourage universities to make the retention of academics a strategic priority. Understanding the turnover intention phenomenon will assist in developing strategies that will help retain academics, as many academics have expressed their wish to leave their institutions in South Africa (Koen, 2003).

5.8   SUMMARY OF CHAPTER

Chapter 5 concludes the research study by discussing the salient results obtained in the study in relation to other relevant research in support of the current study. Conclusions were drawn based on the results obtained and limitations identified. Furthermore, this chapter outlines recommendations that may be useful for future research.

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Dear Participant,

Thank you for taking the time to complete these questionnaires.

I am currently a student at the University of the Western Cape doing a Master's degree in the field of Industrial Psychology. The research topic that I am investigating looks at workaholism and burnout and how it relates to affect intention to quit amongst the various academic occupational levels within a selected University in the Western Cape.

The purpose of the questionnaires is to establish how these factors influence intention to quit amongst the various academic occupational levels at a selected University in the Western Cape.

Your honest participation in the questionnaires will be of assistance in this regard.

Please note that no bias was involved in the selection of persons to complete these questionnaires.

The questionnaires should not take longer than 30 minutes to complete. The instructions relevant to each section are provided. Please ensure that you provide a response to every question.

Your responses will be strictly confidential. Your name is not required anywhere in this document. However, for statistical purposes, some biographical information is required.

Participant Informed Consent Form

Your **voluntary participation** is requested to assist in determining how workaholism and burnout relate to affect intention to quit amongst the various academic occupational levels at a selected University in the Western Cape.

The information obtained from these questionnaires will be kept **strictly confidential**. The information will only be made available to relevant individuals who will maintain such confidentiality.

Your participation is **anonymous** and you are entitled to **withdraw your consent** and end your participation at any point during the assessment.

You agree to the information and results being used for **reporting purposes**. Such information and results will be reported in an aggregated manner.

Participant Declaration:

I confirm that the above information is true and correct; and furthermore accept and understand the content thereof. I herewith consent to the release, transfer and other communication of this information as required and as may be relevant to the purpose of this research.

Signed at _____ on this _____ day of _____ 20_____.

_____
Participant Signature

Biographical Questionnaire

The biographical details will only be used for statistical purposes to effectively categorise and segment the responses received.

Instructions:

Please complete the following biographical information by making an X next to the block which is relevant to you.

1. Which gender category do you fit into?

Female	1
Male	2

2. Which race group do you belong to?

African	1
Asian	2
Coloured	3
White	4
Indian	5
Foreigner	6
Other, please specify	7

3. Which age group do you fit into (in years)?

21 – 30	1
31 – 40	2
41 – 50	3
51 – 60	4

61 and older	5

4. What is your marital status?

Single	1
Married	2
Divorced	3
Widowed	4
Unmarried Partners/Cohabiting	5
Other, please specify	6

5. What is the highest qualification that you have achieved?

Honours Degree	1
Master's Degree	2
Doctorate Degree	3
Other, please specify	4

6. How long have you been employed by this institution (Tenure)?

Less than 1 year	1
1 year – less than 3 years	2
3 years – less than 5 years	3
5 years – less than 7 years	4
7 years – less than 9 years	5
9 years – less than 11 years	6
11 years – less than 13 years	7
13 years – less than 15 years	8
15 years or more	9

7. What is your Designation (Job Title)?

Assistant lecturer	1
Lecturer	2
Senior Lecturer	3
Associate Professor	4
Professor	5
Senior Professor	6
Other? Please specify	

8. What is your average working hours per week?

20 – 30	1
30 – 40	2
40 – 50	3
50+	4
Other? Please specify	5

9. Does your workload require you to work weekends/overtime?

Yes	1
No	2
Often	3
Sometimes	4
All the time	5

Workaholism Analysis Questionnaire

Please answer the following questions concerning how you feel about various aspects of your work by choosing and marking with an X one of the five alternatives that best reflects your answer.

		Strongly Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Agree	Strongly Agree
1.	I feel stressed out when dealing with work issues.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I feel guilty when I am not working.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I feel anxious when I am not working.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I feel bored or restless when I am not working.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I am unable to relax at home due to preoccupation at work.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I constantly feel too tired after work to engage in non-work activities.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I think about work constantly.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I prefer to work excessive hours, preferably 60 hours per week.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I have a need for control over my work.	1	2	3	4	5

10.	I have a need for control over others.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I enjoy working evenings and weekends.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I frequently have work-related insomnia.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I feel very addicted to my work.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I find myself unable to enjoy other activities because of thoughts of my work.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I consider myself to be a very aggressive person.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I get irritated often with others.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	People would describe me as being impatient and always in a hurry.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	I often obsess about goals or achievements at work.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	I ask others to check my work often.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	I frequently feel anxious or nervous about my work.	1	2	3	4	5
21	I often check over my work many times before I finish it.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	It takes me a long time to finish my work because it must be perfect.	1	2	3	4	5

23.	I experience conflict with my significant other or with close friends.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	My work often seems to interfere with my personal life.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	I often put issues in my personal life "on hold" because of work demands.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	I often miss out on important personal activities because of work demands.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	I find it difficult to schedule vacation time for myself.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	I have difficulty maintaining friendships.	1	2	3	4	5
29.	I have difficulty maintaining intimate relationships.	1	2	3	4	5

Maslach Burnout Inventory Questionnaire

Please answer the following questions concerning how you feel about various aspects of your work by choosing and marking with an X one of the seven alternatives that best reflects your answer.

		Never	A few times a year or less	Once a month less	A few times a year	Once a week	A few times a week	Every day
1.	I feel emotionally drained from my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	I feel used up at the end of the workday.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	Working with people all day is really a strain for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	1 feel burned out from my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	I feel frustrated by my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	I feel I'm working too hard on my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	Working with people directly puts too much stress on.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

10.	I can easily understand how my students/colleagues feel about things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	I deal very effectively with the problems of my students/colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my students/colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	I feel exhilarated after working closely with my students/colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	In my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	I feel very energetic.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	I feel I treat some students/colleagues as if they were impersonal 'objects'.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	I've become more callous toward people since I took this job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

21.	I don't really care what happens to some students/colleagues	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	I feel recipients blame me for some of their problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Turnover Intentions Questionnaire

Listed below are a series of questions that measures your possible intentions to quit your tertiary institution. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of the following questions by marking the relevant alternative (number) with an X which best reflects your answer.

1.	How often have you considered leaving your current job?	Never	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Most of the times
2.	How frequently do you scan newspapers for job opportunities?	Never	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Most of the times
3.	To what extent is your current job not addressing your important personal needs?	To no extent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To a large extent
4.	How often are opportunities to achieve your most important goals at work jeopardized?	Never	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Always
5.	How often are your most important personal values at work compromised?	Never	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Always
6.	How frequently are you daydreaming about a different job that will suit your personal needs?	Never	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Always
7.	What is the probability that you will leave your job, if you get another	Low	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	High

#		Always/Never	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Never/Always
	suitable offer?									
8.	How frequently do you look forward to another day at work?	Always	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Never
9.	How often do you think about starting your own business?	Never	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Most of the times
10.	How often do only family responsibilities prevent you from quitting?	Never	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Always
11.	How often do only vested personal interest (pension fund, unemployment fund, etc.) prevent you from quitting?	Never	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Always
12.	How frequently are you emotionally agitated when arriving home after work?	Never	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Always
13.	How often is your current job affecting on your personal wellbeing?	Never	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Always
14.	How often do the troubles associated with relocating, prevent you from quitting?	Never	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Always

Thank you for taking the time to complete these questionnaires.

Your response is appreciated.