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Oh, the Place You'll Go: The Effects of Commuting Time on Work, Family, and Health Related Outcomes

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OH, THE PLACE YOU'LL GO: THE EFFECTS OF COMMUTING TIME ON
WORK, FAMILY, AND HEALTH RELATED OUTCOMES

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ABSTRACT

People spend a majority of their lives working and commuting is an essential part of most workers' daily schedule. According to the 2017 American Community Survey distributed by the U.S. Census Bureau, the average commute for Americans is approximately 27 minutes. Time spent commuting has increased in recent decades (Denstadli et al., 2017; Gimenez-Nadal & Molina, 2019; Hoehner et al., 2012; Künn-Nelen, 2016). Commuting to work is often a source of stress for workers, and its detrimental impacts are a rising public health issue as well as an area of concern for occupational health psychologists. Commuting is not considered a part of the workday and subsequently has not received as much attention as other workplace stressors despite its potential impact on the quality of workers' lives. Within work-family literature, the constructs of family supportive supervisor behavior (FSSB) and family supportive organizational perceptions (FSOP) are continuing to gain interest as the importance of providing a family supportive work environment is recognized. Organizations are implementing family supportive practices and policies to provide support for employees with work and family responsibilities. But, the impact of commuting on work-family balance has received limited research attention (Denstadli et al., 2017) The purpose of this study was to examine family supportive supervisor behaviors and family supportive organizational perceptions as moderators of the relationship between commuting time and work, health, and family outcomes. This study sought to examine the moderating effects of both FSSB and FSOP on the outcomes of interest to better understand the beneficial impact of each construct. The relationships between commuting times and work-family conflict (WFC), burnout, and turnover intentions were examined in a sample of cross-occupational U.S. workers. No moderating effects were found for FSOP or FSSB. However, results showed significant main effects of FSSB on all outcomes of interest and of FSOP on WFC, overall burnout, physical fatigue, and turnover intentions.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

There has been increasing recognition of the importance of family supportiveness within the work-family/work-life literature. The changing nature of work, the increase in dual-career households (Allen, 2001; Frone, 2003; O'Driscoll et al., 2003; Wayne et al., 2013), and advancements in mass transportation have all contributed to changes in how organizations operate. Organizations must adapt to these changes in order to remain competitive and productive, as well as to attract and retain talented workers with work and nonwork responsibilities.

People spend a substantial portion of their lives working; on average Americans spend over eight hours per weekday working and over five hours on weekend days (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2018). Therefore, traveling to and from work is an essential activity for people's success at the workplace and at home, but it can negatively impact people's health (e.g., increased stress). For most working adults, an inevitable part of the workday is their daily commute with the exception being those who do not have to commute to work (e.g., telecommuters). Commuting consumes a substantial amount of time for many workers. According to the U.S. Census Bureau's American Community Survey, in 2019 the average one-way commute in the United States increased to a new high of 27.6 minutes. Time spent commuting continues to rise not just within the U.S. but internationally (Roberts et al., 2011).

Even though people spend a significant amount of time commuting daily, organizations typically do not consider commuting time as part of the workday, therefore employees are not compensated for this time (Elfering, 2020). In larger cities, employees may not be able to afford

to live near their job, thus choosing a more distant location. The benefit to lower cost of living comes with price of a longer commute. Workers with a long commute are more likely to switch their residence or job because they are not adequately compensated for their commuting costs (e.g., by higher wages; Deding et al., 2009). Negative views that people have towards their daily commute likely stem from their organization's lack of consideration of commuting as a job-related task. Commuters are expected to bear the cost of commuting which can include paying for gas, a parking pass, or to use public transportation.

Commuting is costly not only in terms of money, but in terms of another valuable resource: time. For people who drive themselves to work, the time spent traveling to work is time that cannot be spent on work-related matters or on personal matters, which stimulates negative feelings toward commuting (Wheatley, 2012). There is an association between longer commutes and reduced time spent in social and leisure activities, therefore time spent commuting is negatively viewed because it affects peoples' satisfaction with their work-life balance (Chatterjee et al., 2019).

However, for commuters who use public transportation methods or who carpool and are not driving, the time spent commuting can be utilized for work or nonwork related tasks. Commuters who work on the way to their job are utilizing their valuable time, but since organizations do not consider the commute as part of the workday there is not usually an expectation for people to work during this time and therefore, employees are typically not compensated for commuting time. Commuters can spend their time on nonwork related tasks such as making personal calls, reading, or watching a video on their mobile device. Despite the negative outlook towards the daily commute, time spent commuting can be beneficial in certain ways.

Denstadli et al. (2017) argue that commuting is a significant threat to people's feelings about their ability to balance work and family obligations. Commuting time is time that is not spent within the family domain fulfilling family responsibilities. Although organizations do not directly compensate employees for commuting, they can take steps that can either weaken or strengthen the adverse effects of commuting on families, specifically by providing support. Within the work-family literature, there are two main concepts that pertain to organizational family supportiveness: family supportive supervisor behavior (FSSB) and family supportive organizational perceptions (FSOP).

FSSB was conceptualized by Hammer et al. (2007) as behaviors exhibited by supervisors that are supportive of families including emotional support, instrumental support, and role modeling behaviors. FSSB literature has illustrated that showing support or empathy for family needs is a resourceful tool that supervisors should utilize (Crain & Stevens, 2018; Hammer et al., 2007). There has been a significant focus on the effects of FSSB on work, work-family, and health outcomes (Crain & Stevens, 2018). Work outcomes include job satisfaction (Allen, 2001; Behson, 2005; Breaugh & Frye, 2007; Hammer et al., 2009; Hammer et al., 2013; Odle-Dusseau et al., 2012; Thompson & Prottas, 2006) and turnover intentions (Allen, 2001; Bagger & Li, 2014; Behson, 2005; Hammer et al., 2009; Hammer et al., 2013; Hill et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2016; Las Heras et al., 2015; Thompson & Prottas, 2006). The predominant work-family outcome that has been examined is work-family conflict (Beham et al., 2014; Behson, 2005; Breaugh & Frye, 2008; Frye & Breaugh, 2004; Hammer et al., 2009; Hammer et al., 2013; Muse & Pichler, 2011; Thompson et al., 2004). Health outcomes of FSSB include stress (Behson, 2005; Thompson & Prottas, 2006) and burnout-exhaustion (Koch & Binnewies, 2015; Yragui et al., 2016). While these studies show that FSSB is directly linked to occupational health

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outcomes, it also may buffer employees from the adverse effects of commuting. However, there are a few studies that have examined FSSB as a moderator (Crain et al., 2014; O'Driscoll et al., 2003; Shockley & Allen, 2013; Yragui et al., 2016; Zhang & Tu, 2016). This study aimed to extend the literature focusing on FSSB's role as a moderator of the relationship between commuting time and work-family conflict, burnout, and turnover intention.

FSOP refers to global perceptions formed by employees regarding the extent to which an organization is family-supportive (Allen, 2001). FSOP literature examines the importance of these perceptions for both individuals and organizations. Lapierre et al. (2008) found evidence supporting the notion that FSOP can be a key predictor of whether an employee's work atmosphere is conducive to lowering WFC. Hill et al. (2016) contributed to the understanding of FSOP by demonstrating the value in viewing them as global resources. Organizations benefit from greater employee commitment as a result of exhibiting family supportiveness (Wayne et al., 2013). Previous research has examined FSOP as a moderator of the relationship between onsite childcare use and work-related attitudes (Ratnasingam et al., 2012) and the relationship between flextime use and work interference with family (WIF) and family interference with work (FIW) (Shockley & Allen, 2007). Ratnasingam et al. (2012) discovered evidence for the role of FSOP in moderating the relationship between childcare utilization and work engagement. A family-supportive climate and organizations' active support of employees' utilization of these benefits can maximize the efficiency of family-friendly initiatives and benefits (Ratnasingam et al., 2012). Shockley and Allen (2007) did not find evidence that supported the moderating role of FSOP between flexible work arrangements and WIF and FIW, respectively. However, Shockley and Allen's (2007) results demonstrated a negative correlation between FSOP and both WIF and

FIW. This reiterates the importance of establishing a family-supportive organizational environment.

Within the work-family literature, very few studies have examined FSSB or FSOP as moderators, and no known studies examine them in relation to commuting. There is potential for the negative effects of commuting on family, health, and work outcomes to be alleviated by family supportiveness exhibited by supervisors and organizations. A greater focus on family supportiveness within the workplace can help offset the difficulties associated with commuting. Therefore, this study contributes to the extant literature by exploring the potential mitigating effects of these family supportive measures on the relationships between commuting time and family, health, and work outcomes. Fully understanding the extent to which family supportive measures can influence these relationships is necessary to improve employees' personal and work lives. Despite the likely impact of commuting, there also is limited research on the relationship between commuting time and family, health, and work-related outcomes. This thesis sought to address both scarcities and bridge the gap between commuting and work-family literature, specifically addressing organizational family supportiveness.

The review of the literature includes sections dedicated to commuting time, WFC, burnout, turnover intentions, family supportive supervisor behaviors (FSSB), and family supportive organizational perceptions (FSOP), respectively. The commuting chapter will cover the commuting phenomenon, empirical studies examining commuting time and commuting and health outcomes, factors influencing commuting distance and living decisions, and the positive and negative effects of commuting. To establish the connection between commuting and the family, health, and work outcomes variables, each relationship will be discussed. Within the FSSB section, I defined and conceptualized FSSB. Then the importance of FSSB for individuals

and organizations were discussed and followed by an overview of research exploring the

outcomes of FSSB. I also defined and conceptualized FSOP. Next, I examined the importance

of FSOP for employees and employers and provided an overview of studies that have contributed

to the growing FSOP literature. Finally, I provided a rationale for FSSB and FSOP as

moderators of the relationship between commuting time and related outcome variables.

CHAPTER TWO

COMMUTING

Commuting phenomenon

Working is a major part of people's lives considering the amount of time people spend at work and completing work-related tasks outside of the office. Therefore, commuting is a major part of people's workday that is often neglected yet plays an influential role in people's professional and social lives. Commuting is an integral part of most workers' daily lives. Most workers must commute to work via private vehicle, public transportation, bicycle, or on foot, with the exception being those individuals who work from home or telecommute. Burch and Barnes-Farrell (2020) stated that in 2015 the U.S. Department of Commerce reported approximately 75% of the estimated 143 million people employed in the U.S. commute to work only by private vehicle. Within the commuting literature, researchers have used various terms to label this phenomenon (e.g., commuting; Stutzer & Frey, 2008; job-related spatial mobility; Schneider & Limmer, 2008). Elfering et al. (2020) view commuting not as an isolated activity but rather as a multi-faceted phenomenon that can be viewed from four theoretical angles including as a demand, a source of work-family conflict (WFC), a constraint on aspects of the work-home boundary, and a resource for beneficial boundary management. Commuting serves as a transition from one role to another. Ashforth et al. (2000) described role transitions as a boundary-crossing activity. The influence of commuting on work-family balance has received limited attention (Denstadli et al., 2017). It is difficult to determine which domain commuting best falls under: work, family, or boundary zone (Elfering et al., 2020). Although assigning it to a particular domain may be beneficial, focus should be on acknowledging commuting as an integral part of employees' lives that has the potential to be a source of stress or a demand.

The effects of commuting not only influence peoples' work lives, but also their personal lives. Commuting is linked to health outcomes both in positive and negative ways. More research is needed to determine moderators of the effects of commuting. My study contributes to this gap by examining family supportive supervisor behavior and family supportive organizational perceptions as moderators of the relationship between commuting and work-family conflict, burnout, and turnover intentions, respectively.

Commuting time

Commuting is an important phenomenon that constitutes part of workers' time. Commuting time is defined by Elfering et al. (2020) as the "duration of the transition between the work and family domains" (p. 563). Although commuting is not formally part of the workday, it can be viewed as an extension of work time (Elfering et al., 2020). Commuting time has increased in recent decades both in the U.S. (Gimenez-Nadal & Molina, 2019; Hoehner et al., 2012;) and internationally (Denstadli et al., 2017; Künn-Nelen, 2016; Roberts et al., 2011). Gimenez-Nadal and Molina (2019) measured commuting time and peoples' feelings during their commute (happiness, stress, sadness, fatigue, and pain). They concluded that workers who have longer commutes experience significant detrimental effects. They also noted that research has shown longer commutes are a significant source of stress for workers (Gottholmseder et al., 2009; Hennessy & Wiesenthal, 1999; Novaco et al., 1990; Rissel et al., 2014; Schaeffer et al., 1988; Wener et al., 2003). Clark et al. (2020) concluded that a shorter commute time provides benefits to workers in terms of improved mental health, reduced strain, and increased job satisfaction.

Commuting time can be viewed as a burden because it interferes with time available to spend with family and friends (Christian, 2012). Longer commuting time results in less time that

can be allocated to maintaining existing relationships and developing a social support system. Christian (2012) found an association between daily commuting time and time spent with family and friends such that a longer commute time leads to a decreased time spent by men with their spouse and children and decreased time spent by men and women with friends.

Commuting duration and living location

Commuting duration and accessibility to the workplace are fundamental factors influencing people's decisions about living proximity to work (Dissanayake, 2017). A factor that people lack control over, regarding traveling to work, is the time it takes. Duration of commutes can vary slightly depending on the time of day or day of the week. For example, one coworker may travel to the office during "rush hour", causing his/her commute to take over an hour, compared to a coworker who travels to the same office after rush hour, allowing for a shorter commute. Issues surrounding commuting often stem from people being incapable of altering the distance of their commute. Commuters are often subjected to situational constraints. In addition, people's inability to control situational aspects (e.g., traffic) of their commute leads to an increase in stress level (Stutzer & Frey, 2007).

Location of employment is a key factor to consider when examining commuting effects on individuals. People base their decisions about where to live and work by factoring in trade-offs between commuting time, cost of living, and wages (Brucker & Rollins, 2019). Workers may choose to endure long commutes for various reasons including better housing options that are further away, better school options for their children in a different area, or higher income offered by a job located further from their current residence (Roberts et al., 2011). Where a person works determines the duration of their commute, as well as the level of separation between work-life and home-life.

A shift in working culture, due to advances in technology and communication and most recently the COVID-10 pandemic, allows for offices outside of the traditional office. People given flexibility may now work from home or other remote locations. Companies that establish policies that enable workers to have greater flexibility with scheduling and the option to telecommute may see benefits in the form of more favorable employee perceptions of the organization and management due to their increased control over their commute (Baltes et al., 1999).

Rubin et al.'s (2020) exploratory research investigated people's experiences working from home, including advantages and disadvantages, as well as their anticipated work arrangement plans after the COVID-19 pandemic. The survey assessed how people felt about the change in commuting routines as a result of working from home. The survey results illustrated that 69% of respondents miss certain aspects of commuting (e.g., activity of commuting itself; ability to enjoy time alone; feeling independent). These findings indicate the people perceive commuting as time they can utilize for their personal needs. People who commute by car reported missing commuting the least (55% did not miss any aspects) and (e-)bicyclists reported missing commuting the most (91% missing some aspects) (Rubin et al., 2020). Of the individuals who reported not missing the commute at all, 72% want to work from home more often in the future. On the contrary, 69% of individuals who missing commuting a lot would prefer to return to their previous work routine (Rubin et al., 2020). Findings also indicated that most workers do not miss long commutes.

Commuting and health outcomes

It is important to understand the health effects of commuting because it is part of workers' daily routine (Hoehner et al., 2012). Hoehner et al. (2012) examined the association

between commuting distance (from home to work) and health outcomes, specifically cardiorespiratory fitness (CRF), physical activity levels, and metabolic risk indicators of people without diagnosed diabetes. Commuting was associated with moderate-to-vigorous physical activity, CRF, adiposity, and increased blood pressure (Hoehner et al., 2012). Hämmig et al. (2009) conducted a study that examined physical and mental health outcomes, using commuting time as an explanatory variable for work-life conflict (WLC). Commuting time was significantly associated with WLC for both women and men.

In a follow up study Hansson et al. (2011) examined perceived sleep quality, exhaustion, mental health, self-rated health, and sickness absence. According to Hansson et al. (2011), perceived poor sleep quality, exhaustion, and low self-rated health were positively associated with commuting time, but low mental health was not significantly associated with greater commuting time. Künn-Nelen (2016) studied the effect of commuting time on subjective health, objective health, health behavior, and healthcare utilization. Consistent with Hansson et al.'s (2011) finding, Künn-Nelen (2016) found that commuting time was related to lower self-rated health. Additionally, the results showed that people who commuted for longer periods of time reported lower health satisfaction and lower current health status.

The impacts of commuting are a rising public health issue and an area noteworthy of concern in occupational health psychology (OHP). In order to address and improve commuter issues, policy makers need to be informed of any potential benefits of commuting on commuters' mental health and well-being. There is increasing research on commuting, which indicates growing interest in how commuting is affecting people's lives. Commuting research has examined mode of transportation, commuting stress, physical health, and subjective well-being. Additional research is needed to specifically examine the relationship between commuting time

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and related health outcomes. This study contributes to the commuting literature by specifically examining the effects of commuting time on WFC, burnout, and turnover intentions as well as FSSB and FSOP as moderators of these relationships.

Commuting and organizational outcomes

Commuting time is a necessary factor to include when examining organizational outcomes. van Ommeren and Gutiérrez-i-Puigarnau (2011) tested the effect of the length of workers' commute on workers' absenteeism. They found that commuting distance has a significant positive effect on absenteeism. Steinmetz et al. (2014) highlighted the lack of studies examining the impact of working-time-related factors and remuneration on turnover; they discuss the need to explore work-related factors' relationships with job satisfaction and intention to leave (or to stay with) an organization. Steinmetz et al. (2014) found that a long commuting time decreases the intention to stay with the employer.

A recent examination of the relationship between commuting time and employee commitment and subjective well-being, conducted by Emre and Spiegeleare (2019), demonstrated commuting time's impact on organizational outcomes. They hypothesized that long commuting time reduces employees' organizational commitment and subjective well-being. Their results indicated that longer commutes are related to lower organizational commitment and lower subjective well-being. Their findings highlight the negative impact of a long commuting time on employees' personal health and work outcomes. It is critical to find ways to mitigate these detrimental impacts of commuting time on related health and organizational outcomes.

Elfering et al. (2020) assessed the relationship between commuting time and WFC, affective commitment, and intention to quit. They predicted commuting time to be positively

associated with WFC and intention to quit, and negatively associated with affective commitment. Their findings showed that commuting times predicted all three outcome variables, and the hypothesized associations were supported. Elfering et al.'s (2020) study provides evidence that commuting time can negatively impact organizational outcomes in terms of WFC, affective commitment, and intention to quit.

Positive and negative effects of commuting

Traveling to work can be viewed positively as providing a barrier between an individual's workplace and home, or negatively as a source of constraint and conflict (Wheatley, 2012). Regarding the negative effects, people often consider commuting a stressful experience. The American Psychological Association (APA) conducts an annual survey to assess sources of stress for Americans, and work remains one of the top stressors (APA, 2017). The fact that work is a main source of stress for Americans reinforces the need to find way to reduce work-related stress. Commuting can add to work-related stress by generating stress on the way to work and/or on the way home from work. Building upon previous research on commuting time, Stone and Schneider (2016) took a unique approach in examining commuting episodes and well-being associated with commuting by differentiating between the commute to work and commute to home. Stone and Schneider's (2016) results indicated longer commutes are associated with higher levels of stress and lower levels of well-being. Additionally, both work and home-bound commutes were similar in terms of the level of stressfulness. Denstadli et al. (2017) note that the increase in commuting distance influences the rising concern about potential negative effects the commute may have on workers. Research provides evidence illustrating an association between longer commutes and reduced time spent in social and leisure activities (Chatterjee et al., 2019). Commuters experience lower satisfaction with work-family balance and social participation as a

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result (Chatterjee et al., 2019). Novaco et al. (1990) and Turcotte (2011) found commuting time to affect family life and to be negatively associated with work-family balance, respectively.

Regarding the positive effects of commuting, some research has shown that individuals use their daily commute as a boundary between work and home (Wheatley, 2012) and spend this time "de-stressing" between domains. Denstadli et al. (2017) highlight the fact that a rise in technology, specifically "mobile communication media" has increased employees' opportunities to complete work and/or family-related responsibilities during their commute. Using commuting time to accomplish work-related tasks is a resourceful way for employees to optimize their time. However, this is only feasible for those using public transportation methods. Denstadli et al.'s (2017) results indicated that productive use of time increases individuals' satisfaction with their commute.

Commuting is an important phenomenon to study to analyze its impact on workers' personal and professional lives. Specifically, commuting time influences peoples' choice about where to live, and impacts related health and organizational outcomes. Having a wholistic understanding of how commuting time affects workers is beneficial to organizations and their employees. The present study assesses the relationship between commuting time and WFC, burnout, and turnover, as well as the moderating effects of FSSB and FSOP to provide a better understanding of commuting time's impact.

CHAPTER THREE

PRESENT STUDY

The present study examines the relationship of commuting time with work-family conflict, burnout, and turnover intention, respectively. A primary goal of this study is to extend the existing commuting literature by examining how commuting time affects family, health, and work outcomes. Commuting is a necessary aspect of work for most people. Although researchers have established that commuting has negative impacts on employees' personal and work outcomes, ways to reduce these effects have not been fully determined. By examining these relationships, commuting's impact on peoples' personal and professional lives will be better understood. Employees' personal health and work-life balance are important; therefore, it is critical to understand the most beneficial way to provide support for these employees. Researchers have extensively examined the outcomes of family supportive measures, however the roles of FSSB and FSOP as moderators should be further explored. From a practical standpoint, organizations can benefit through a more comprehensive understanding of how family-supportive measures can influence the relationships between commuting and related outcome variables. A happier and healthier workforce is advantageous for organizations.

Work-family conflict

Work-family conflict (WFC) is defined by Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) as "a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect" (p. 77). WFC occurs when participation in the work role makes participation in the family role more difficult, and vice versa. According to Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) the three main forms of WFC include time-based conflict, strain-based conflict,

and behavior-based conflict. Time-based conflict occurs when multiple roles compete for a person's time, and time dedicated to one role cannot be used within another role. Strain-based conflict exists when strain created by one role affects a person's performance in another role. Behavior-based conflict is the third type of WFC; it refers to conflict that arises as a result of an individual's inability to modify his or her behavior to meet the expectations of various roles.

Hobfoll's (1989) Conservation of Resources (COR) theory can be applied to understand how WFC affects people's occupational health. COR theory suggests interrole conflict causes tension when resources are lost by balancing both work and family responsibilities. These potential or real resource losses result in a negative "state of being," including experiences such as frustration, depression, anxiety, or physiological stress. To substitute or protect the threatened resources, some form of action, such as planning to quit the job, is required. Workplace stress and work interfering with family life become less likely as resources increase (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999).

Grandey and Cropanzano (1999) utilized COR theory to explain how WFC predicts attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. They hypothesized that work role stress and WFC would be related to job distress, which would mediate the urge to quit the job. Employees who are experiencing role tension, as depicted by the COR model, would strive to reduce their negative state of being. If people are distressed at work or if work interferes with their families, then they may need to leave the organization to stop the drain of resources. Results showed that as work role ambiguity and WFC increase a person's job distress increases (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999). The increase in job distress was associated with feelings of dissatisfaction with one's life, poor health, and thoughts of quitting one's work.

Commuting time is part of the workday. Therefore, time spent commuting is considered time spent in the work domain and time unavailable for family responsibilities (with the exception of dropping children off at school on the way to work). A longer commute constitutes less time spent with the family or for personal responsibilities. If an individual has a thirty-minute commute (one way), then that results in five additional hours per week spent fulfilling work-related obligations. The greater the amount of time spent at work or on work-related tasks, the more likely this time imposes on family time and leads to conflict. COR theory suggests that energies (e.g., time, knowledge) are a resource, and when a threat to the resources exists or actual loss of resources occurs the reaction to the environment is stress. The energy spent during the commute is energy that cannot be used at work or at home. Commuting demands time and energy from employees leaving them with less resources to cope with family and work demands (Emre & Spiegeleare, 2019). Longer commutes require a greater expenditure of energy which results in a greater loss of this resource. Thus, as commuting time increases the amount of WFC increases.

H1: Commuting time will be positively related to WFC.

Burnout

The term "burnout" was coined to describe people's psychological reactions to long-term interpersonal stressors at work. Burnout, as defined by Maslach et al. (1986), is "a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who work with other people in some capacity" (p. 192). According to Maslach (1982), burnout is comprised of three dimensions: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personalized accomplishment. However, the definition of burnout has been revised and broadened (Maslach et al., 1996). As a result, the three initial dimensions of

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burnout have been redefined (Schaufeli & Buunk, 2003). Exhaustion is now used to describe any form of fatigue, regardless of the cause. Instead of other people, cynicism represents a disinterest in or distance from work. Finally, professional efficacy refers to both social and non-social dimensions of job performance. Schaufeli and Buunk (2003) reviewed the various definitions of burnout and concluded that they share five similar components including (1) dysphoric symptoms (particularly emotional exhaustion), (2) a focus on mental and behavioral symptoms (sometimes atypical symptoms are noted), (3) burnout is considered work-related, (4) symptoms are identified in "normal" individuals, and (5) reduced efficiency and lower productivity caused by negative attitudes and behaviors. Schaufeli and Enzmann's (1998) overarching definition of burnout identified emotional exhaustion as the core indicator along with four general symptoms: distress, a sense of reduced effectiveness, decreased motivation, and dysfunctional work attitudes and behaviors (Schaufeli & Buunk, 2003). Burnout occurs when appropriate actions to protect or replenish resources are not taken (Hobfoll & Shirom, 1993). Additionally, many empirical studies have investigated the relationship between burnout and work-related outcomes.

Koslowsky et al. (1996) examined burnout, subjective stress, and perceived control to determine whether several commonly reported personal stressors were linked with strain. The authors argued that it is reasonable to believe that chronic stress caused by daily commuting is predictive of burnout, based upon the notion that prolonged exposure to a stressor can result in emotional, physical, and mental exhaustion. Although the results did not indicate an association between commuting and burnout, Koslowsky et al. (1996) suggested that it was probable that many other stressors were also influencing factors, all of which may combine to produce negative consequences. For example, perceived stress was described solely in terms of commuting; it is likely that a measure of perceived stress that includes a response to a variety of

stressors, including commuting, would be more predictive of burnout. An area for future research is to search for significant moderators to determine the precise role commuting plays in a stress model (Koslowky et al., 1996).

Amponsah-Tawiah et al. (2016) proposed that burnout is a mechanism by which commuting stress influences organizational outcomes. Rooted in COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), Amponsah-Tawiah and colleague (2016) predicted that high levels of commuting stress would result in high levels of burnout. Additionally, Amponsah-Tawiah et al. (2016) proposed that commuting stress is linked to lower work satisfaction and higher turnover intention, and that these relationships are mediated by burnout. Burnout has been identified as a result of physical and psychological job demands within the work stress literature (e.g., Bakker et al., 2004; Zapf et al., 2001). Similarly, commuting places physical and psychological demands on workers (Stradling, 2002), therefore excessive commuting stress can lead to burnout. According to COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), unusually high or chronic stressors may predispose individuals to a downward spiral in which they burnout as a result of ongoing resource loss (Demerouti et al., 2004). Even though the effect of commuting stress on burnout has not been studied previously, there is indirect evidence to indicate that commuting stress is linked to burnout (Amponsah-Tawiah et al., 2016).

Results indicated that commuting stress was linked to high levels of burnout and turnover intention, which was consistent with the authors' predictions (Amponsah-Tawiah et al., 2016). Additionally, results showed that through burnout, commuting stress was linked to work satisfaction and turnover intention. The discovery of this indirect link suggests that experiences outside the workplace can contribute to physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion at work. Amponsah-Tawiah et al.'s (2016) study contributed to the known effects of commuting's work-

related outcomes. According to these results, employees' commuting experiences can influence workplace behaviors and attitudes. Workers who are experiencing high levels of commuting stress are more likely to consider leaving their job, and that commuting stress influences their decision to leave by causing burnout symptoms. Exceptionally stressful commuting experiences can result in the loss of personal resources such as time and energy that could otherwise be invested in other areas of life, therefore leaving the job becomes a critical factor in preventing further resource loss. Since these employee outcomes are linked to turnover intentions there are potential costs to employers as well. In practice, the results show that commuting stress has hidden costs for both workers and employers.

Lieke et al. (2008) investigated the relationship between family involvement and work-related burnout. Examining the connection between family characteristics and work-related burnout is necessary because balancing work and family life is likely to increase stress levels. As more women have joined the workforce, the number of single-parent families has increased, and men have become more involved in household chores and childcare. In recent decades, people have had to assume an increasing number of family-related responsibilities in addition to their work responsibilities. Therefore, burnout is likely connected to the family domain.

To determine which specific family factors are associated with burnout, Lieke et al. (2008) measured family involvement by including the presence of a partner or children and the amount of time spent on household chores and childcare. Lieke et al. (2008) examined whether family engagement is linked to feelings of burnout independent of job characteristics, such as workload, in order to better understand the significance of family life in work-related burnout. Lieke et al. (2008) draw on conflict theory which is based on the premise that time and energy are finite resources. The relationship between family and work can be described as a zero-sum

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game in which work cannot take priority over family time and resources, and vice versa. In line with conflict theory, employees who are engaged in family life may have less time and energy for work and could become stressed out as a result of overburdening themselves. To support this argument, Lieke et al. (2008) noted Voydanoff's (1988) finding that the negative impact of job conflicts and weekend work on work–family conflict is greater among workers with more family commitments than among those with fewer. Employees with children tend to have more money and energy, which outweighs the time and energy they spend caring for them, eliminating feelings of burnout. However, the authors discovered that the enriching impact of family on work has a limit, as burnout was higher among employees with small children and who did more housework. When analyzing the relationship between family and job outcomes, Lieke et al.'s (2008) research shows that it is critical to differentiate between different family characteristics because some characteristics enhance burnout while others minimize it. Their results illustrated that regardless of job characteristics, family characteristics have a direct impact on feelings of work-related burnout.

Commuting requires time and energy, which are valuable resources for workers. According to COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), energy resources are a major type of resource comprised of physical, emotional, and cognitive energy. Burnout is the process of depletion of these energy resources (Hobfoll & Shirom, 2000). Commuting is an additional, yet necessary, resource requiring activity that is a consistent part of an employee's workday and can contribute to burnout. Burnout, according to the COR theory, is a continual process caused by a low-level, persistent loss of resources (Buchwald & Hobfoll, 2004). The loss of energy resources leaves employees with a scarcity of resources to cope with work related demands. Longer commutes have been shown to result in greater stress (Stone & Schneider, 2016), and commuting stress was

found to be associated with burnout (Amponsah-Tawiah et al., 2016). Based on the existing literature pertaining to commuting and burnout, I proposed that commuting time would be positively related to burnout.

H2: Commuting time will be positively related to burnout.

Turnover intention

Turnover intention was described by Tett and Meyer (1993) as "a conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave the organization" (p. 262). Turnover intention is an individual's subjective assessment of the likelihood that she or he will leave their organization in the immediate future. It is the last step in the withdrawal cognition process, which also includes thoughts of leaving and intentions to seek out alternatives (Tett & Meyer, 1993), whether in a passive or active job search (Kirschenbaum & Weisberg, 1994). For nearly 90 years, organizational turnover has been a key research subject (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Tse & Lam, 2008), and as most scholars have discovered, it can have serious negative implications for the organization (Wells & Peachey, 2011). According to Abbasi and Hollman (2000), the visible and secret costs of turnover in organizations totaled around $11 billion per year.

There is a scarcity of empirical studies on commuting experiences and turnover intention. However, there are a few noteworthy exceptions. Novaco et al. (1990) discovered that workers who were unhappy with their commute were more likely to switch employers after 18 months. Transportation conditions affect individual, family, and organizational well-being, thus these factors are important beyond matters of convenience. Transportation impedance, as an aversive and frustrating state, raises arousal and elicits negative impact, resulting in stress reactions that influence travel mode, residential position, and work location decisions. In terms of

organizational transportation systems and urban planning decisions, commuting tension is also a critical concern at the aggregate level. Amongst various travel conditions, commute time is considered a transportation stressor. Novaco et al. (1990) argued that commuters make an effort to cope with transportation stressors, which may include anything from vehicle selection and travel schedule to moving houses or changing jobs. High impedance was closely associated with the desire to relocate due to transportation issues, as well as the actual act of relocating. People who used to commute long distances had switched to shorter distances to relieve commuting stress.

Novaco et al.'s (1990) results indicated that people who changed jobs experienced a significant increase in commuting satisfaction from time 1 to time 2 and possessed a significantly higher commuting satisfaction compared to those who did not switch jobs. Thus, it seems that changing jobs was largely correlated with increased commuting satisfaction, which increased dramatically after the job change, while commuting satisfaction decreased for those who did not change jobs. Despite the limited number of job changers, this consistent pattern of highly significant differences in commuting satisfaction supports the hypothesis of a reciprocal relationship between the job and commuting domains. Similarly, negative transfers from the commuting to the occupational domain can be seen in the relationship between commuting satisfaction and job transition, the finding of a negative influence on job satisfaction correlated with percentage of time and miles spent on freeways, and the illness work-absence effects linked to physical impedance variables. Novaco et al. (1990) concluded that commuters and employers bear hidden costs related to high impedance commuting.

Another noteworthy examination of commuting experience and turnover intention was conducted by Grandey and Cropanzano (1999). They proposed that workers who experience

high levels of commuting stress would attempt to alleviate the stress by quitting their job. Their results showed work role uncertainty, conflict increase, and WFC led to increased job dissatisfaction. This depressive state was associated with feelings of dissatisfaction with one's life, poor health, and thoughts of quitting one's work. Therefore, it is possible that withdrawing from work is a coping strategy for commuting tension. Additionally, Grandey and Cropanzano (1999) found that family distress was caused by family role stress and FWC, however work-related stress appeared to exceed the impact of family-related stress.

A handful of recent studies have provided evidence of a connection between commuting and turnover intentions. Additional support for the link between commuting experience and turnover intention comes from Steinmetz et al.'s (2014) investigation of the impact of working-time characteristics on workers intention to stay with their current employment. According to their results, employees that are exposed to lengthy travel times to physically report to work are less likely to stay with the same company (Steinmetz et al., 2014). Amponsah-Tawiah et al. (2016) examined the mediating role of burnout in the relationships between commuting stress and job satisfaction and turnover intention. The authors reviewed existing literature pertaining to commuting and turnover intentions and noted that Zax and Kain (1991) discovered that the longer workers have to commute, the more likely they are to leave their jobs while staying in their current communities, and that Deding et al. (2009) found that workers' decisions to leave jobs were influenced by their commuting experiences, especially the distance traveled. Amponsah-Tawiah et al. (2016) argued that since it has been shown that lengthy commutes are related to decision to leave jobs (Deding et al., 2009; Zax & Kain, 1991) and intention to leave precedes voluntary turnover (Tett & Meyer, 1993), commuting stress is linked to turnover intention. The results of their study indicated that commuting stress influences employees' work

satisfaction and willingness to leave. Additionally, burnout was found to be a significant

mediator between commuting stress and job outcomes, which reveals an underlying mechanism

for the outcomes of commuting stress.

People attempt to reduce the stress caused by a long commute by either moving

residencies or jobs. This decision is often contingent upon a spouse's commute. If the current

distance between the workplaces is longer (conditional on commuting distances), then the

household is less likely to decrease one worker's commuting distance without raising the

commuting distance of the other worker. Deding et al. (2009) provided further support for a

connection between commute length and decision to change jobs. The authors found that when

the worker's own commuting distance is long and the spouse's commuting distance is short, it

seems that the likelihood of changing jobs is high, and the likelihood of changing residence is

low. Furthermore, given a long commuting distance, women with children were more likely than

other women to shift jobs. Residence mobility was positively influenced by both spouses'

commuting distances and negatively influenced by the distance between the workplaces, while

job mobility is influenced positively by the commuting distance and the distance between the

workplaces, and negatively by the spouse's commuting distance. Deding et al. (2009) found that

workers with a long commute are more likely to switch residence or jobs because they are not

adequately compensated for their commuting costs (e.g., by higher wages). Deding et al.'s

(2009) findings are consistent with the wasteful commuting literature (Kim, 1995; Ma &

Banister, 2006), which indicates that in the housing and labor markets, households are not

sufficiently compensated for commuting costs.

Workplace stress has been related to poor job performance, absenteeism, and turnover

(Kahn et al., 1964; Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). Quitting a job would save money that would

otherwise be lost due to the burden of that job. Commuting to work can be viewed as part of the burden, therefore no longer having to commute or changing jobs to have a shorter commute can alleviate this stress. From a COR theory perspective, people strive to protect and build their resources to cope with demands, therefore by quitting a job an employee is preserving their time, energy, and money that is typically spent (or lost) commuting. Commuting appears to be an influential factor that affects peoples' decisions to remain with or leave an organization. Thus, it was proposed that commuting time will be positively related to turnover intentions.

H3: Commuting time will be positively related to turnover intentions.

The way that people experience work and their relationship with their supervisors are factors that can influence intentions to leave or remain with the organization (Wells & Peachey, 2011). Wells and Peachey (2011) found that transformational leadership has a direct negative impact on voluntary organizational turnover intentions. Therefore, they concluded transformational leaders will encourage employee to voice their opinions, and since workers feel free to express their views or frustration, they may be less likely to leave the company voluntarily. Their findings also indicated that satisfaction with the leader would mediate the relationship between leadership actions (transformational and transactional) and voluntary organizational turnover intentions. The inclusion of satisfaction with the leader as a mediating variable between transformational leadership activity and voluntary organizational turnover intentions was the main theoretical contribution to the literature on leadership and turnover (Wells & Peachey, 2011).

CHAPTER FOUR

FAMILY SUPPORTIVE SUPERVISOR BEHAVIOR

Social support is defined by Cobb (1976) as information that leads an individual to believe that he or she is cared for, loved, and esteemed. Workplace social support involves individuals' perceptions that their well-being is valued by their coworkers, supervisors, and organization (Kossek et al., 2011). Social support is an important topic within organizational research. Social support influences peoples' personal and professional relationships, thus impacting peoples' social networks. There are several types of social support including, instrumental (e.g., problem-solving), informational (e.g., giving guidance), and emotional (e.g., providing reassurance) (Taylor, 2011; Schwarzer et al., 2004). Social support has beneficial effects on physical and mental health (Taylor, 2011). Additionally, the perception of social support can reduce peoples' stress (Taylor, 2011). Employers can fulfill a constructive role in shaping important job and community outcomes by improving workplaces to be more socially supportive of healthy work–family relationships (Kossek et al., 2011).

Hammer et al. (2007) extended the concept of social support to include family supportive behaviors. Family supportive supervisor behaviors are actions and initiatives taken by supervisors that benefit employees through social support (Hammer et al., 2007). Hammer et al.'s (2009) development and validation of the multidimensional construct of FSSB demonstrated that FSSB is distinct from general supervisor support. However, the authors note that future research examining supervisor support and WFC, as well as other job outcomes, should include measures of both constructs (FSSB and general supervisor support) because they are distinct constructs with differential prediction (Hammer et al., 2009). In addition to distinguishing FSSB from general supervisor support, Hammer et al. (2009) reduced ambiguity regarding how to

provide family support by clarifying what behaviors are deemed family supportive. The clarification of family supportive behaviors is beneficial to supervisors and managers because specific examples of behavior to demonstrate are helpful for providing support for work-family needs. In a thorough review of FSSB literature, Crain and Stevens (2018) list the dimensions of FSSB as:

> [E]motional support (i.e., communication indicating care and concern regarding employees' nonwork life), instrumental support (i.e., reactively providing resources and services through management transactions to assist employees with managing work and nonwork on an individual and as-needed basis), role modeling (i.e., exhibiting effective management of one's own work–nonwork responsibilities), and creative work–family management (i.e., proactive strategic efforts initiated by supervisors to improve employees' ability to manage nonwork demands while additionally promoting employee effectiveness at work) (p. 870).

The rise in FSSB literature is consistent with the notion of improving workers' lives and suggests a means of improvement can come from the development and implementation of organizational changes (e.g., family supportive behaviors, policies, and practices).

According to Thomas and Ganster (1995), family-supportive work environments are comprised of family-supportive policies and family-supportive supervisors, and together these reflect an organization's degree of supportiveness for employees with family responsibilities. Family supportive policies include support that makes managing work and family responsibilities easier such as childcare, elder care, flextime, and telecommuting, but not include health care benefits, insurance packages, or employee assistance programs (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). A family-supportive supervisor empathizes with their employees' need to maintain a

balance between work and family responsibilities and provides this support through accommodations such as flexible scheduling, tolerating brief personal calls after school hours, allowing time to arrange elder-care, or offering emotional support when an employee is going through a tough family issue (Thomas & Ganster, 1995).

Supervisors serve as the link between formal family-supportive policies that are available to individuals in the workplace (e.g., healthcare, alternative work arrangements) and informal family-supportive constructs such as organizational culture and organizational climate (Hammer et al., 2007). FSSB exhibited by supervisors are a result of formal and informal organizational support for the family because these organizational level factors (work-family culture and climate) influence the way supervisors implement these family-supportive practices within their organization (Hammer et al., 2007). If an organization has a preexisting family-supportive organizational culture, then it will impact a supervisor to behave in a supportive manner (Hammer et al., 2007).

Training supervisors on how to engage in FSSB simultaneously indicates to the supervisors that the organization values supporting employees' work-family responsibilities and enhances employees' perceptions of their supervisor being family supportive (Hammer et al., 2011). As a test of this idea, Hammer et al. (2011) designed a study in which they created, implemented, and assessed a family supportive supervisor training intervention. Supervisors were predicted to have increased knowledge about family supportive supervision and would view FSSB as a necessary/helpful behavior to exhibit once they received effective training on how to implement these behaviors into their workplace. They found that supervisors reacted positively to the training and the intervention increased their knowledge about family-supportive

supervisory behaviors and resulted in an increase in personal goals for implementing FSSB and improvement in self-reported FSSB.

Leading by example is an effective way for leaders to influence their subordinates. The role modeling dimension of FSSB supports this claim. Koch and Binnewies (2015) discussed the importance of supervisors as role models within the workplace and examined their degree of work-home segmentation behavior to determine if they represented work-friendly role models. Koch and Binnewies (2015) suggested that supervisors' behavior has an impact on their employees, no matter whether the supervisor realizes that their behavior is being observed. If a supervisor acknowledges employees' needs to maintain balance between family and work and provides support through efforts or access to resources that improve employees' ability to juggle duties in both domains, then an employee considers the supervisor to be supportive (Allen, 2001). Employees who believe that the organization values their time away from work, as demonstrated by their supervisor's behavior, tend to perceive high organizational family support (Allen, 2001).

Crain and Stevens (2018) conducted the first comprehensive and systematic review of the FSSB literature to better understand this construct in order to expand the existing information, advance theory, and provide practical intervention strategies for organizations. Based on the changing nature of work and a rise in conflicts between the work and family domains, they argued that organizations need to develop supportive workplace policies and emphasize the criticality of supervisor support for the benefit of their employees who have competing work and nonwork responsibilities. There is a need for both family supportive supervisors and a family-supportive workplace.

Importance of FSSB

As work continues to consume a major portion of individuals' lives, examining ways to enhance the quality of workers' time spent in the work domain and home domain is growing increasingly important. Improvements in FSSB may lead to improvements in organizational outcomes. Research shows that supervisory behaviors deemed supportive by employees have positive effects on job satisfaction (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Similarly, Rofcanin et al. (2017) found that improvements in work performance due to an increase in employees' engagement stemmed from high levels of supervisor support. Additional research focusing on the relationship between FSSB and organizational outcomes has shown that FSSB is negatively associated with WFC, FWC, and related constructs (e.g., WTFPS and work–family balance, job satisfaction, turnover, and commitment) (Crain & Stevens, 2018). Crain and Stevens (2018) applauded the authors of a few recent studies that have examined new significant outcomes, such as family and child outcomes (Allen et al., 2008; Davis et al., 2015; Lawson et al., 2016; McHale et al., 2015) and employee health outcomes (Hurtado et al., 2016). However, future research is needed to provide a wholistic understanding of FSSB's relationship with work and family related outcomes.

Crain and Stevens (2018) found ten studies that looked at FSSB's physical and psychological health outcomes. They noted findings related to physical health outcomes including, Berkman et al.'s (2010) discovery of a positive connection between sleep quantity and a measure of FSSB related to work-family issues and Crain et al.'s (2014) failure to find significant relationships between measures of sleep insufficiency and FSSB. Aside from sleep, Crain and Stevens (2018) found that other studies have looked at a variety of other physical health outcomes. FSSB was found to be indirectly linked to somatic complaints through control and WFC (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Additionally, two studies looked at risk factors for

cardiovascular disease (e.g., smoking habits, obesity), with one finding no substantial links with FSSB (Berkman et al., 2015), and the other finding negative associations when FSSB was assessed with managers' work–family support ratings (Berkman et al., 2010). Regarding psychological health outcomes, Crain and Stevens (2018) found research showing that FSSB has a detrimental relationship with employee experiences of stress (i.e., Hammer et al., 2013; Thompson & Prottas, 2006) and military members' psychological distress (i.e., Huffman & Olson, 2017). FSSB, according to Behson (2005), explains more variation in employee stress than more formal forms of work–family support, such as work schedule flexibility and work–family benefits.

A family-supportive supervisor who demonstrates the ability to effectively manage work and family responsibilities can give employees the belief that it is socially acceptable within the organization to take time away from work to fulfill family obligations. For example, a person that works for a company that focuses on performance ratings and sales and has a supervisor who is considered a "workaholic" may be more inclined to utilize the commuting time to accomplish work. On the contrary, an individual who is part of an organization with a culture that values work-life balance and has a supervisor who exhibits FSSB may be more likely to spend their time commuting on personal/family-related matters.

Supervisors play a critical role in employees' achievement of effective management of work-family demands (Hammer et al., 2007) and employees' utilization of family supportive policies (e.g., if the supervisor is supportive of the policy the employee is more likely to utilize it) (Hill et al., 2016). The creative work-family sub dimension of the FSSB construct is based on the premise that supervisors/management can redesign work responsibilities to improve employees' effectiveness in their work and nonwork domain, thus benefiting employees and the

organization (Hammer et al., 2009). Examining FSSB is important because it allows researchers to provide organizational leaders with evidence of how it influences organizational outcomes (e.g., turnover, job satisfaction) and greater insight to understanding the significance/importance of implementing and reiterating a supportive work-family management (Hill et al., 2016).

Regarding outcomes, the FSSB literature has primarily focused on work-family outcomes with several studies examining work-to-family conflict (WFC) and family-to-work conflict (FWC) (e.g., Allen 2001; Allen et al., 2008; Beham et al. 2014; Behson, 2005; Hammer et al., 2013; Muse & Pilcher, 2011). Supervisory behaviors that were perceived to be supportive of the respondents' nonwork demands had a consistent positive impact on job satisfaction and health outcomes (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). More specifically, among the family-supportive constructs only supervisor support had a significant direct impact on work satisfaction, and indirect effects through control and WFC. Thomas and Ganster's (1995) results demonstrated a link between family supportive measures and WFC, and this study was one of the first studies to show that certain organizational approaches can potentially alleviate this strain and its related effects.

Work outcomes such as a job satisfaction and turnover have been examined extensively in relation to FSBB (e.g., Las Heras et al., 2015; Odle-Dusseua et al., 2012; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson & Prottas, 2006; Yragui et al., 2016). Behson (2005), Hammer et al. (2009), and Hammer et al. (2013) found FSSB to be positively related to job satisfaction and negatively related to turnover intentions. FSSB was found to be positively correlated with work engagement (Matthews et al., 2014; Straub et al., 2017). Straub (2012) proposed a multilevel conceptual framework that accounts for managerial differences and considers managers as part of a social system to further advance the understanding of FSSB. Straub's (2012) framework was designed to explore FSSB and organizational outcomes through empirical testing. The expected

organizational outcomes at the employee level include well-being, job and career satisfaction, job performance, organizational commitment, engagement, and turnover intentions and at the team level include team performance and team cohesion.

Health outcomes of FSSB are an increasingly prominent focus within this literature. Research has linked higher levels of FSSB to better health outcomes such as reduced stress (Behson, 2005), decreased burnout-exhaustion (Koch & Binnewies, 2015), greater subjective well-being (Matthews et al., 2014) and reduced depression (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). This thesis aimed to extend the FSSB literature by examining the relationship between FSSB and health outcomes, specifically overall burnout and the three subdimensions of burnout: physical fatigue, cognitive weariness, and emotional exhaustion. This research study, as well as future research examining health outcomes of FSSB, can contribute to a better understanding of the impact family supportive behaviors exhibited by supervisors has on employee outcomes.

The concept of social support was extended by Hammer et al. (2007) to include family supportive behaviors, which are actions and initiatives taken by supervisors that benefit their employees. The dimensions of FSSB include emotional support, instrumental support, role modeling, and creative-work family management. The extant literature has demonstrated that FSSB uniquely impacts work (e.g., turnover intentions), family (e.g., WFC; FWC), and health (e.g., burnout; well-being) outcomes. Organizations that recognize the influence FSSB has on organizational and individual level outcomes can implement improvements in FSSB within their company that will allow them to retain a competitive advantage in today's world. As researchers, it is important to extend the FSSB literature to gain a better understanding of the impact of FSSB on work, family, and health-related outcomes, which is one of the main purposes of this thesis.

CHAPTER FIVE

FAMILY SUPPORTIVE ORGANIZATIONAL PERCEPTIONS

Family supportive organizational perceptions

To contribute to existing work-family literature and enhance understanding of the impact family-supportiveness on employees and employers, researchers have begun to examine employees' perceptions of work cultures (Allen, 2001; Hill et al., 2016, Wayne et al., 2013). Family supportive organizational perceptions are "global perceptions that employees form regarding the extent the organization is family-supportive" (Allen, 2001, p. 416). Elaborating upon the general definition,

> "FSOP refers to an employee's perception that his/her organization provides support for
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> employees' family roles in ways such as providing time off to attend to family, allowing
>
> them to talk about or address personal matters at work, and giving employees the
>
> opportunity to perform well in family as well as work roles" (Wayne et al., 2013, p. 607).

FSOP is another construct, along with FSSB, receiving an increasing amount of attention in organizational research. The two constructs are related, but employee perceptions of the organization's supportiveness are unique in comparison to perceptions of a supervisor's support and exhibition of family supportive behaviors by supervisors (Allen, 2001).

According to Allen (2001), although a work environment that supports the balancing of dual responsibilities is important for employees, most of the early research has focused on the relationship between availability of family-friendly benefits and related outcomes. Empirical research is needed to better understand employees' perceptions of the degree to which their organization is family supportive. To understand the unique roles of family-supportive benefits,

family-supportive supervisors, and FSOP, Allen (2001) examined the mediating role of FSOP of the relationship between these benefits and various outcomes and the relationship between family-supportive supervisors and outcomes of interest. Allen (2001) found that the more supportive employees perceive their work environment, the less WFC they experience. Additionally, FSOPs were found to be positively related to overall benefit use (Allen, 2001).

By demonstrating the utility of distinguishing the concepts of family supportive supervision and FSOP, Hill et al. (2016) contributed to the understanding of these constructs and the potential magnitude of their impact. Hill et al. (2016) argued that employees who work within the same organization experience similar perceptions simply due to being exposed to the same working environment, policies, and practices. Kossek et al. (2011) built upon Allen (2001) and discussed two major elements that determine the degree to which employees perceive an organization as family supportive. These elements include a perception that the organization is concerned with an employee's responsibility to balance work and family roles, and a perception of access to work-family resources or policies. Organizations can benefit from providing general organizational support. However, with increasing importance placed on providing family supportive resources to employees, organizations that go above and beyond by implementing family-supportive benefits will likely be perceived as valuing their employees compared to those providing basic, work-specific support.

Importance of FSOP for employees and employers

Evidence that shows FSOP is beneficial to individual and organizational outcomes and can be used to convince companies to invest in family supportive policies, supervisors, and practices that generate a workplace environment that employees perceive as family supportive. The return on investment can be seen in the form of affective commitment (Wayne et al., 2013)

or potentially in the form of reduced WFC, burnout, and turnover intentions which are the outcomes of interest within this current study. Wayne et al. (2013) found that organizations that provide family support reap benefits in terms of greater employee commitment. The results indicated that, in addition to the direct relationship between FSOP and employee commitment, FSOP had an indirect relationship with employee commitment through the employee's perceptions of work-to-family conflict and enrichment.

This relationship can be explained using two interconnected paths. First, when employees believe their employer is supportive of their families, they experience a sense of fulfillment which leads to improved performance in the family domain (Wayne et al., 2013). The spouse is the second indirect path. FSOP is associated with reduced work-family conflict, which is associated with more supportive partner attitudes toward the employee's work schedule. This leads to higher partner commitment to the company, and ultimately, higher employee commitment to the organization. As a result of this study and feedback provided by Wayne et al. (2013), the firm at which data were collected initiated work-family policies and workshops to provide family support for their employees.

Lapierre et al. (2008) found that employees' FSOP significantly impacted their overall life satisfaction. Previous implications of FSOP focused on the impact these perceptions have on work-related outcomes, whereas this study suggests that FSOP may also play a significant role in employees' lives outside of work. Matthews and Toumbeva (2014) highlighted an important finding of Kossek's (2005) research that stated the success of the development of a family supportive work environment and the successful implementation of a family supportive policy can be undermined by an unsupportive supervisor. In line with Eisenberger et al.'s (1986) view of supervisors as agents of the organization, supervisors who are not accommodating or

sympathetic to family demands can inadvertently generate perceptions that the organization is not family supportive (Ratnasingam et al., 2012). Thus, it is critical for organizations to have supervisors that demonstrate family-supportive behaviors and to have an organizational culture that is perceived as family-supportive. Efficiency of family friendly programs and benefits can be maximized through a family supportive climate and organizations' active support of employees' use of these benefits (Ratnasingam et al., 2012). Ratnasingam et al. (2012) examined FSOP as a moderator of the relationship between on-site childcare use and both engagement and job satisfaction. The authors found evidence supporting FSOP's moderating role in the relationship between childcare use and work engagement such that a climate that is unsupportive of family life may negative impact childcare program users' work-related attitudes. Therefore, FSOP has the potential to enhance the work-related attitudes of employees utilizing childcare if the organization is positively perceived as family supportive.

Additional research is needed to for these policies and benefits to reach their intended targets and fulfill their goals, namely family supportive supervisors, a family supportive organizational environment, and employee perceptions of family supportiveness (Allen, 2001; Hammer et al., 2009; Thompson et al., 1999). Organizations that implement a family-supportive policy, such as flexible scheduling, have the potential to impact employees' stress caused by commuting. Research shows that offering flexible scheduling and/or telecommuting is an effective way to demonstrate family support from an organization (Allen, 2001; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Shockley and Allen (2007) extended the benefits of FSOP to organizations' facilitation of policy use (e.g., flexible work arrangements (FWA)). Although they did not find support for FSOP as a moderator of the relationship between FWA and either direction of WFC, FSOP was negatively correlated with WIF and FIW, thus reiterating the importance of creating a

family-supportive organizational environment. A consensus that has formed within work-family literature regarding policies, practices, and programs, specifically that the provision of work-family benefits is not satisfactory alone (Allen, 2001; Shockley & Allen, 2007; Thompson et al., 1999). Organizations that foster environments that encourage supervisors to be supportive of work–family issues, and do not penalize employees for devoting time to family should see increased employee satisfaction as well as reduced employee stress, work–family conflict, and turnover (Behson, 2005). The echoing of this consensus by researchers also highlights the need for better understanding of how FSOP can fulfill this deficiency within organizations.

Moderating roles of FSSB and FSOP

Work and family stressors, according to Hobfoll and Shirom (2000), combine to deplete resources, while work resources, such as supportive supervisors, serve to restrict resource depletion. In line with COR theory, interrole conflict causes stress because resources are wasted when balancing responsibilities in both domains. Distress should arise in both the job and family realms if resources are lost as a result of interrole conflict (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999). If work–family conflict arises, FSSB is likely to act as a buffer, preventing further resource loss. Drawing from COR (Hobfoll, 1989), Crain and Stevens (2018) argued that FSSB can protect employees from resource losses associated with WFC and therefore FSSB moderates the relation between family stressors and health outcomes.

Crain and Stevens' (2018) literature review found only five articles that examined FSSB as a moderator. My thesis extends this literature by assessing FSSB's moderating role in the relationship of commuting with WFC, burnout, and turnover intentions. WFC occurs when participation in the work role makes participation in the family role more difficult, and vice versa. According to Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) the three main forms of WFC include time-

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based conflict, strain-based conflict, and behavior-based conflict. Commuting time could be considered as a source of time-based conflict. A family supportive supervisor who understands the difficulty of balancing work and family demands is a helpful resource for employees trying to navigate the dual responsibilities. Supervisors who are supportive of their employees' families provide them with tools, such as social support or instructional materials, to help them deal with work–family conflict (Crain et al., 2014). Thus, FSSB should moderate the relationship between commuting time and WFC, such that there is a weaker relationship for employees with higher levels of FSSB.

H4: FSSB will moderate the (positive) relationship between commuting time and WFC, such that there will be a weaker positive relationship for employees experiencing higher levels of FSSB.

In addition to having a family supportive supervisor, perceiving the organization as a whole to be family supportive can benefit employees. An organization that provides family-friendly benefits (e.g., flexible work schedules, childcare resources) can help employees successfully balance their career and family. For example, if employees have flexible schedules and can drop their children off on the way to work without suffering negative consequences at work, then the employees can fulfill their family responsibility. Feeling supported by one's organization can help reduce the impact of commuting on WFC.

H5: FSOP will moderate the relationship between commuting time and WFC, such that there will be a weaker positive relationship for employees perceiving higher levels of FSOP.

Burnout is associated with a lack of social support from supervisors (Schaufeli & Buunk, 2003). Social support can buffer the effects of stressors such that employees who receive more support are better able to cope with their job demands, regardless of whether support has a direct

effect on burnout. In a similar vein, I argue that FSSB is related to burnout and employees receiving family support will be better able to manage the demands of the commute. According to Hobfoll (1989), social support is considered a resource to the extent that is provides or preserves valued resources. FSSB is a form of social support, thus from a COR theory perspective FSSB is a resource for employees to cope with family and work demands. Employees whose supervisors provide family support to help them manage work responsibilities and their daily commute, regardless of duration, should experience less burnout. Thus, FSSB should moderate the positive relationship between commuting time and burnout, such that there is a weaker positive relationship in the presence of high FSSB.

H6: FSSB will moderate the positive relationship between commuting and burnout, such that there will be a weaker positive relationship for employees experiencing high levels of FSSB.

An organization that values its employees' productivity and commitment, as well as their success outside of work demonstrates supportiveness of dual responsibilities. A family-supportive organizational culture influences employees' perceptions, thus impacting their decisions and behaviors. Employees' perception of family supportiveness (FSOP) within their organization may potentially alleviate the strain caused by a long commute that leads to burnout. For example, an employee experiencing a high level of FSOP may feel less guilty about being fifteen minutes late to work after dropping his/her children off at school on the way to work. FSOPs may assuage the burden of commuting time that contributes to burnout. FSOP should moderate the positive relationship between commuting time and burnout, such that the relationship will be weaker for employees with greater FSOP.

H7: FSOP will moderate the relationship between commuting time and burnout, such that there will be a weaker positive relationship for employees perceiving higher levels of FSOP.

Employees' relationships with their supervisors have a significant impact on how they feel at work. Conflict with coworkers and/or bosses, according to Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998), is a plausible cause for employees to leave an organization, particularly when there is no other way to resolve the conflict. In terms of turnover, studies have shown that there is a negative association between satisfaction with the leader and the likelihood of voluntary turnover. Cotton and Tuttle (1986) published the first meta-analysis of the turnover literature, highlighting 14 studies that showed a negative relationship between supervisor satisfaction and actual turnover, while Griffith and colleagues published a follow-up meta-analysis in 2000, which found the same negative relationship among 16 studies from the 1990s. Fang (2001) discovered that supervisor satisfaction was one of the most relevant predictors of nurse turnover intentions in Singapore, and Abraham et al. (2008) discovered a significant link between immediate supervisor satisfaction and intention to quit one's work. According to Griffith (2004), the best way to explain the relationship between leadership and turnover is satisfaction with the work environment, which includes satisfaction with the leader.

Having a family supportive supervisor may strengthen the relationship between the leader and employee, especially if the FSSBs are beneficial to the employee's needs or job demands. If employees have a good relationship with their supervisor, quitting the company is more likely to result in a psychological loss, making it costly (Mossholder et al., 2005). Similarly, if an employee perceives the organization as supportive of family responsibilities, then they are likely to be content within the organization and less likely to have intentions to leave. For example, an employee with a long commute time may be considering leaving the organization to find a better alternative that involves a shorter commute so the employee can spend more time fulfilling family responsibilities. If that employee has a family supportive supervisor who allows him/her

to commute at a time that allows for him/her to take their children to school, then the employee may feel supported and less likely to leave the organization. Working within an environment that acknowledges and supports the dual responsibilities of workers with families is beneficial to the workers' FSOP. In contrast, employees with long commutes that do not have a supervisor who exhibits FSSBs or do not work in a family supportive environment may leave the organization to eliminate the negative effects of the long commute. Thus, having high levels of FSSB and FSOP should mitigate the relationship between commuting time and turnover intentions.

H8: FSSB will moderate the positive relationship between commuting and turnover intentions, such that there will be a weaker positive relationship for employees experiencing high levels of FSSB.

H9: FSOP will moderate the relationship between commuting time and turnover intentions, such that there will be a weaker positive relationship for employees perceiving higher levels of FSOP.

CHAPTER SIX

HYPOTHESES

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses are proposed based on the literature review.

H1: Commuting time will be positively related to WFC.

H2: Commuting time will be positively related to burnout.

H3: Commuting time will be positively related to turnover intentions.

H4: FSSB will moderate the relationship between commuting time and WFC, such that there will be a weaker positive relationship for employees experiencing higher levels of FSSB.

H5: FSOP will moderate the relationship between commuting time and WFC, such that there will be a weaker positive relationship for employees perceiving higher levels of FSOP.

H6: FSSB will moderate the relationship between commuting and burnout, such that there will be a weaker positive relationship for employees experiencing high levels of FSSB.

H7: FSOP will moderate the relationship between commuting time and burnout, such that there will be a weaker positive relationship for employees perceiving higher levels of FSOP.

H8: FSSB will moderate the relationship between commuting and turnover intentions, such that there will be a weaker positive relationship for employees experiencing high levels of FSSB.

H9: FSOP will moderate the relationship between commuting time and turnover intentions, such that there will be a weaker positive relationship for employees perceiving higher levels of FSOP.

CHAPTER SEVEN

METHOD

Participants and procedure

Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) was used to recruit participants as part of a larger study focused on values shaped by where people live and climate variability within the United States. MTurk allows researchers to rapidly and efficiently create and post experiments (Mason & Suri, 2012). Researchers utilizing MTurk have access to a stable pool of more diverse subjects compared to other online samples and college samples (Buhrmester et al., 2011). Using MTurk is a valid, cost effective way to obtain quality data for conducting research.

The survey was available to U.S. MTurk members. The data were collected in two waves. In order to complete the survey and be eligible for the follow up survey, MTurk members had to pass all attention checks. Attention checks were used to ensure that participants were actively and intentionally answering the survey questions. If participants were careless and did not properly answer the attention check, then they were excluded from the analyses. A total of 609 participants completed both waves of the study. The participants were on average 36 years old. The participant population consisted of 41% males and 59% females. Most of the sample was educated with 25% earning a high school diploma, 17% that had an Associate's degree, 42% had a Bachelor's degree, 14% had a Master's degree, and 2% had a doctoral degree.

Measures

The following section defines the measures used in this study. Relevant MTurk items from the larger study were included. Demographic variables were measured at Time 1 and Time 2. Commuting time was measured at Time 1 and Time 2. Measures of family supportive

supervisor behaviors and family supportive organizational perceptions were completed at Time 1. Work-family conflict, burnout, and turnover intentions were measured at Time 2.

Commuting time was measured with a single item created for the original MTurk survey. The item was "Thinking about your primary job, about how long (in minutes) does it take you to get to work, from the time you leave your house to the time you arrive at your office/worksite?" Respondents answered this item using scale with time intervals from (1) "less than 15 minutes" (2) "15-30 minutes" up to (9) "more than 120 minutes".

Family supportive supervisor behavior was measured with four items adapted from Hammer et al. (2009). The items were adapted to prompt respondents to answer based on their organization. The Cronbach's α for this measure was .92. One item from each of the FSSB scale subdimensions were selected for this survey. An example of an emotional support subdimension item included, "Your supervisor makes you feel comfortable talking to him/her about your conflicts between work and non-work". An example of a role model subdimension item included, "Your supervisor demonstrates effective behaviors in how to juggle work and non-work issues." Respondents rated items on a 7-point scale ranging from (1) "strongly disagree" to (7) "strongly agree".

Family supportive organizational perceptions were measured with five items adapted from Allen (2001). The items were adapted to prompt respondents to answer based on their organization. The Cronbach's α for this measure was .89. Examples items were "My organization believes that work should be the primary priority in a person's life" and "At my organization, attending to personal needs, such as taking time off for sick children, is frowned

upon." Respondents rated items on 7-point scale ranging from (1) "strongly disagree" to (7) "strongly agree".

Work-family conflict was measured with nine items from Carlson et al.'s (2000) work-family conflict scale. The Cronbach's α for this measure was .91. An example of a time-based work interference with family item included, "My work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like." Respondents rated items on a 7-point scale ranging from (1) "strongly disagree" to (7) "strongly agree". An example of a strain-based work interference with family item included, "I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my family." Respondents rated items on a 7-point scale ranging from (1) "strongly disagree" to (7) "strongly agree". An example of a behavior-based work interference with family item included, "Behavior that is effective and necessary for me at work would be counterproductive at home." Respondents rated items on a 7-point scale ranging from (1) "strongly disagree" to (7) "strongly agree".

Burnout was measured with the Shirom-Melamed Burnout Measure (SMBM) (Shirom, 1989). The 14 items were adapted to prompt respondents to answer based on the past 30 workdays. The 14-item SMBM scale included three subscales that measured physical fatigue (items 1 through 6), cognitive weariness (items 7 through 11), and emotional exhaustion (items 12 through 14). The Cronbach's α for the overall burnout measure was .97. The Cronbach's α for the subscales were .96 for physical fatigue, .97 for cognitive weariness, and .94 for emotional exhaustion. An example item from the physical fatigue subscale included, ""In the past 30 workdays, I feel like my "batteries" are "dead"". An example of a cognitive weariness subscale item is "In the past 30 workdays, I have difficulty concentrating". An example item from the emotional exhaustion subscale is "In the past 30 workdays, I feel I am not capable of investing

emotionally in coworkers and customers". Respondents rated items on a 7-point scale ranging from (1) "never or almost never" to (7) "always or almost always".

Turnover intentions were measured using nine items adapted from Hom et al. (1984). Turnover intentions were measured regarding the job, retirement plans, and the organization.The items were adapted to prompt respondents to answer based on their organization. The Cronbach's α for this measure was .93. An example of a general turnover intention item included, "I am planning to search for a new job outside my job during the next 12 months". An example of a retirement intention item included, "I am planning to retire in the near future". An example of an organizational turnover intention item included, "I often think about quitting this organization". Respondents rated items on a 7-point scale ranging from (1) "strongly disagree" to (7) "strongly agree".

Data analysis. The data were cleaned by removing any participants who did not complete the survey at Time 1 and Time 2, as well as those who did not pass the attention checks. The data were then imported to RStudio. A subset of the data was created using all relevant variables from the model. The data were examined, and outliers were removed as necessary. Demographics were examined to determine the average age, gender breakdown, education level percentages, and range of occupations of participants.

The MICE (Multivariate Imputation via Chained Equations) package was used to check patterns of missingness within the original data set. Specifically, the function md.pattern() was used to provide a complete and compact summary of the missing data pattern. The methods used by the MICE package include PMM (Predictive Mean Matching) (for numeric variables), logreg (Logistic Regression) (for binary variables with 2 levels), polyreg (Bayesian polytomous regression) (for factor variables greater than or equal to two levels), and proportional odds model

(for ordered variables greater than or equal to two levels). Subsequently, the VIM package was used to visualize the patterns of missing data. Visualization of missing and imputed values can support the test decision, as well as reveals more details about the data structure (Templ et al., 2013; RStudio package). A notable advantage of using VIM is that statistical requirements for a test can be checked graphically, and problems like outliers or skewed data distributions can be discovered (Templ et al., 2013; RStudio package). Due to the amount of data missing, the MICE package was further used for data imputation. According to van Buuren and Groothuis-Oudshoorn (2011), various diverse fields, including occupational health and psychology, have utilized the application of imputation by chained equations to address complex incomplete data problems. The MICE package method for numeric variables is Predictive Mean Matching (PMM), and since all of the variables in the subset of data were numeric this is the method that was utilized. The function sum() and function is.na() were used in conjunction to ensure that there were no more missing data in the imputed dataset.

After successful data imputation, aggregate variables were created for the appropriate item scales. For time one variables, an aggregate variable was created for FSSB using all four items; an aggregate variable was created for FSOP using all five items that had previously been reverse coded. For time two variables, aggregate variables were created for WFC, turnover intentions, total burnout, and the three burnout scales (physical fatigue, cognitive weariness, and emotional exhaustion) using the appropriate items from each respective scale. For commute time (predictor variable), the dplyr package was used to convert the nine commute time intervals into minutes. Commute time responses were originally coded (1) through (9) with (1) equaling less than 15 mins, (2) equaling 15 to 30 minutes, and subsequent 15-minute intervals all the way to (9) which equaled more than 120 minutes. Using the dplyr package, the commute time codes

were converted to minutes based on the median time of each interval. For example, if a participant responded to the commute time item with a (2), then the converted variable would be a 22 in the dataset (representing 22 minutes). Item nine was converted to 127 minutes based on the same median times used for the other intervals.

Data visualization was conducted using the car package in RStudio. Histograms and scatterplots of all model variables were created. Pearson's product-moment correlations were conducted on commute time and each outcome variable. A correlation matrix of all model variables was created using the stats package (Table 1). Means, standard deviations, and correlations are included in Table 1.

A series of linear regressions and moderated linear regressions were performed in RStudio (R) using the car, dplyr, lavaan, MICE, psych, scales, stats, VIM, and rockchalk packages. The series of linear regressions were conducted to examine the relationships between commute time and WFC, overall burnout, physical fatigue, cognitive weariness, emotional exhaustion, and turnover intentions. Next, a series of moderated linear regressions were conducted to examine FSSB and FSOP as moderators of the relationships between commute time and the outcomes variables of interest.

CHAPTER EIGHT

RESULTS

Correlations

Prior to performing the series of linear regressions and moderated linear regressions, Pearson's product-moment correlations were conducted between the variables. There were no statistically significant correlations between commute time and the outcome variables of interest, although the correlation between commute time and WFC approached significance at alpha .05 (this is consistent with *hypothesis 1*). Results indicated there was a statistically significant correlation between WFC and FSSB (-.30), FSOP (-.30), overall burnout (.57), physical fatigue (.57), cognitive weariness (.48), emotional exhaustion (.44), and turnover intentions (.35) all with $p < .001$. There was a statistically significant correlation between commute time (time 1) and FSSB (time 1), $r(609) = -.08$, $p < .05$. There was a statistically significant correlation between commute time (time 1) and FSOP (time 1), $r(609) = -.08$, $p < .05$. All correlations are included in Table 1.

Regressions Analyses

A series of linear regressions were performed for each fitted model. The linear regressions did not yield significant results. Thus, all of the linear regression conducted on the relationships between commute time and WFC, overall burnout, physical fatigue, cognitive weariness, emotional exhaustion, and turnover intentions, respectively, did not indicate a significant effect of commute time. Following the series of linear regressions, a series of moderated linear regressions were conducted.

Moderation analyses were conducted to examine the effects of FSSB and FSOP on the relationships between commuting time and the outcome variables of interest. The moderated linear regression examining FSSB's effect on the relationship between commute time and WFC indicated that there is a significant main effect of FSSB, $t(609) = -5.94$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .09$. This suggests that for every one unit increase in FSSB there is a .32 point decrease in participants' WFC. There was no significant moderating effect of FSSB on the relationship between commute time and WFC. Since there was no significant moderating effect of FSSB, this suggests that higher or lower levels of FSSB do not impact the relationship between commuting time and WFC. The moderated linear regression examining FSSB's effect on the relationship between commute time and turnover intentions yielded a significant main effect of FSSB on turnover intentions, $t(609) = -5.30$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .11$. This implies that for every one unit increase in FSSB there is a .43 point decrease in turnover intentions. There was no significant interaction effect, thus FSSB was not found to moderate the relationship between commute time and turnover intentions.

The moderated linear regression examining FSSB's effect on the relationship between commute time and overall burnout yielded a significant main effect of FSSB on overall burnout, $t(609) = -6.41$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .12$. This indicates that for every one unit increase in FSSB there is a .36 point decrease in participants' overall burnout. There was no significant interaction effect, thus no significant moderating effect of FSSB on this relationship. The moderated linear regressions examining the moderating effect of FSSB on the relationships between commute time and the physical fatigue, cognitive weariness, and emotional exhaustion subscales of burnout indicated that there was a significant main effect of FSSB on each outcome, respectively, $t(609) = -6.46$, $p < .001$ (physical fatigue), $R^2 = .14$; $t(609) = -4.79$, $p < .001$

(cognitive weariness), $R^2 = .06$; $t(609) = -5.76$, $p < .001$ (emotional exhaustion), $R^2 = .08$. For every one unit increase in FSSB there was a .41 point decrease in participants' physical fatigue, a .30 point decrease on cognitive weariness, and a .36 point decrease in emotional exhaustion. There was no statistically significant interaction resulting from these three moderated linear regressions, thus indicating that there is no significant moderating effect of FSSB on the relationships between commute time and physical fatigue, cognitive weariness, and emotional exhaustion, respectively.

Following the moderated linear regressions performed to examine the moderating effect of FSSB on the relationships between commute time and outcome variables of interest, a series of moderated linear regressions were conducted to examine the moderating effects of FSOP on these relationships. The regression examining the effect of FSOP on the relationship between commute time and WFC yielded a significant main effect of FSOP on WFC, $t(609) = -3.68$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .10$. This suggests that for every one unit increase in FSOP there is a .22 point decrease in participants' WFC. There was no significant interaction effect, thus FSOP did not have a significant moderating effect on the relationship between commute time and WFC. The regression examining the moderating effect of FSOP on the relationship between commute time and overall burnout did not yield any significant results (although the main effect of FSOP was significant at the alpha level 0.1). There was no significant interaction effect, indicating that FSOP did not have a moderating effect on the relationship between commute time and overall burnout.

The regression examining the moderating effect of FSOP on the relationship between commute time and the physical fatigue yielded a significant main effect of FSOP, $t(609) = -2.10$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = .04$. This suggests that for every one unit increase on FSOP there was a .16 point

decrease in participants' physical fatigue. There was no significant interaction effect, thus FSOP did not moderate the relationship between commute time and physical fatigue. The regressions examining the moderating effect of FSOP on the relationships between commute time and cognitive weariness and emotional exhaustion, respectively, indicated that there were no significant main effects of FSOP on these relationships, as well as no significant interaction effects. Thus, FSOP did not moderate the relationships between commute time and cognitive weariness and emotional exhaustion.

The regression examining the moderating effect of FSOP on the relationship between commute time and turnover intentions indicated there was a significant main effect of commute time on turnover intentions, $t(609) = 2.10$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = .05$. This indicates that for every one-minute increase in commute time there is a .02 increase in participants' turnover intentions. Additionally, this moderated regression indicated there was a significant interaction between FSOP and commute time, $t(609) = -2.02$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = .05$. Therefore, participants' turnover intentions derived from commute time depends on the level of FSOP.

The moderated linear regression analyses' results indicated that FSSB did not moderate the effects of commute time on WFC, overall burnout, physical fatigue, cognitive weariness, emotional exhaustion, or turnover intentions. However, the series of moderated linear regressions did indicate that there were significant main effects of FSSB on all of the outcome variables. The moderated linear regression analyses demonstrated that FSOP did not moderate the effects of commute time on WFC, overall burnout, physical fatigue, cognitive weariness, and emotional exhaustion. However, analyses indicated that FSOP moderated the effect of commute time on participants' turnover intentions. Regarding the main effects of FSOP, the analyses revealed that there were significant main effects of FSOP on participants' level of WFC and physical fatigue.

CHAPTER NINE

DISCUSSION

People spend a majority of their time at work and at home, thus their time is split between these two domains. Commuting time is time spent between the work and family domain that employees are not compensated for, yet this time impacts their work, family, and health-related outcomes. There is limited commuting literature focusing on the relationship between commuting and its impact on family, health, and work-related outcomes. This thesis extends the commuting literature by specifically examining commute time and its impact on employees' WFC, burnout, and turnover intentions.

As the nature of work continues to change due to advances in technology and mass transportation, increases in dual-career households, and impacts of a global pandemic, it is critical for organizations to be adaptable. In order to maintain a competitive advantage, organization must be able to attract and retain talented employees. Providing family supportive initiatives and actions, is a way for organizations to demonstrate support and flexibility for their employees. This study demonstrated the impact of FSSB and FSOP on employees' WFC, burnout, and turnover intentions. Within the work-family literature few studies have examined FSSB and FSOP as moderator. To my knowledge, no research to date has examined FSSB and FSOP as moderators of commute time's relationships with various employee outcomes. Therefore, this study extends the work-family literature by examining FSSB and FSOP as moderators, and the commuting literature by examining effects of commute time on employee outcomes.

Discussion of findings

Based on the original model, it was expected that commute time would be positively related to WFC, burnout (and the three burnout subscales), and turnover intentions. This expectation implied that as commute time increased people's level of negative family, health, and work-related outcomes should also increase. Additionally, FSSB and FSOP were expected to moderate the relationships between commute time and WFC, overall burnout, physical fatigue, cognitive weariness, emotional exhaustion, and turnover intentions, respectively. In other words, the relationship between commute time and WFC, burnout, and turnover intentions should be weaker for employees experiencing higher levels of FSSB. The family supportive behaviors exhibited by the supervisor were expected to alleviate the negative effects of commute time on employees' family, health, and work-related outcomes. Similarly, the relationship between commute time and the outcome variables of interest should be weaker for employees' perceiving higher levels of FSOP.

The results of the linear regressions indicated that there were no statistically significant effects of commute time on WFC, overall burnout, the three burnout subscales, and turnover intentions. Thus, Hypothesis 1, 2, and 3 were not supported. In addition to commute time, there are other factors related to the commuting experience, such as distance and mode of transportation, which were not included in the data and subsequently not included in the proposed model. The exclusion of these additional factors could have contributed to the insignificant impact of commute time on the various outcomes.

The results of the moderated linear regression analyses revealed that neither FSSB nor FSOP moderated the effect of commute time on WFC, overall burnout, physical fatigue, cognitive weariness, emotional exhaustion, or turnover intentions. Thus, the results indicated that Hypotheses 4 through 9 were not supported in the data. Other factors such as job satisfaction,

work engagement, or number of children could have affected the relationship between commute time and the outcome variables to a greater extent than FSSB or FSOP.

However, the results of the moderated linear regressions showed that there were significant main effects of FSSB on all of the outcome variables, and there were significant main effects of FSOP on WFC and physical fatigue. An increase in FSSB resulted in a decrease in participants' WFC, overall burnout, physical fatigue, cognitive weariness, emotional exhaustion, and turnover. An increase in FSOP resulted in a decrease in participants' WFC and physical fatigue. The moderated linear regression results also indicated that FSOP moderated the relationship between commute time and turnover intentions. Commute time was found to have a significant main effect on turnover intentions. Therefore, employers should be mindful of the impact that longer commutes have on their employees' turnover intentions, as well as the impact of increasing FSOP can have on mitigating the negative effects of commute time. Overall, the results of this study suggest that family supportive behaviors exhibited by supervisors affect employees' family, health, and work-related outcomes. In a similar fashion, the results imply that employees' perceptions of family support from their organization affect their family, health, and work-related outcomes.

Previous research examining FSSB and organizational outcomes had shown a negative association between FSSB and WFC, FWC, and related constructs (e.g., job satisfaction, turnover) (Crain & Stevens, 2018). With the primary focus of FSSB literature being on work-family outcomes, several studies have examined FSSB's relationship with WFC and FWC (e.g., Allen 2001; Allen et al., 2008; Beham et al. 2014; Behson, 2005; Hammer et al., 2013; Muse & Pilcher, 2011). This study's findings indicating an association between FSSB and WFC supports this previous research. Additionally, work outcomes such as turnover and job satisfaction have

been examined in relation to FSSB (e.g., Las Heras et al., 2015; Odle-Dusseua et al., 2012; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson & Prottas, 2006; Yragui et al., 2016). Behson (2005), Hammer et al. (2009), and Hammer et al. (2013) found FSSB to be negatively related to turnover intentions. The results of this study showed a similar link between FSSB and turnover intentions. Within the FSSB literature, health outcomes have emerged as a prominent focus area and previous research has linked higher levels of FSSB to better health outcomes such as reduced stress (Behson, 2005), decreased burnout-exhaustion (Koch & Binnewies, 2015), and greater subjective well-being (Matthews et al., 2014). The emotional exhaustion dimension of burnout was included as an employee health outcome within this study, and the results support prior research suggesting that higher levels of FSSB are linked to lower levels of burnout-exhaustion (Koch & Binnewies, 2015). This study's findings of an association between FSSB and WFC, burnout, and turnover intentions supports extant FSSB literature.

This study also aimed to contribute to the FSOP literature by examining the moderating effects of FSOP on family, health, and work-related outcomes. Previous research has found that FSOP is directly related to employee commitment and indirectly related to employee commitment through employees' perceptions of WFC conflict and enrichment (Wayne et al., 2013). FSOP has also been found to significantly impact employees' overall life satisfaction (Lapierre et al., 2008). The results of this study add to the FSOP literature by demonstrating an association between FSOP and WFC, physical fatigue, and turnover intentions. Future research should explore how the levels (i.e., low, moderate, high) of FSSB and FSOP impact specific employee family, health, and work-related outcomes.

Implications for findings

The following section addresses the practical implications offered by this study. The results of this study demonstrated that there are beneficial effects of FSSB and FSOP. Although these constructs were not related to commuting time, FSSB and FSOP impacted important employee outcomes (i.e., WFC, burnout, turnover intentions). Therefore, there are practical implications for emphasizing FSSB and FSOP in organizations. One way to indicate the importance of using FSSB to benefit employees would be by implementing a training that focuses on family supportive behaviors. Hammer et al. (2011) developed, implemented, and assessed a training intervention focused on family supportive supervision. The rationale for this training intervention was that by training supervisors how to engage in FSSB this would indicate that the organization values supporting employees' work-family responsibilities and also enhance employees' perceptions of their supervisor. Supervisors reacted positively to the family supportive supervision training intervention and resulted indicated that the training increased FSSB knowledge and increased personal goals aiming to implement FSSB (Hammer et al., 2011). Thus, utilizing a similar training that is appropriate based on the level of need (for FSSB) within an organization is a practical implication derived from this study.

Another practical implication for managers is to create and implement family supportive policies and initiatives within the organization. If people feel as if the organization cares about them and recognizes their dual responsibilities, then they will perceive higher levels of organizational support (FSOP). Even if employees are not actively using the family supportive policies or programs it is better to have these resources available for employees than for these resources to be nonexistent. Workshops can be held to inform employees of family supportive policies and resources as well as to explain how to use them. Hosting family supportive policy/program workshops would also contribute to employees' perceived benefits to using these

resources. By enhancing employees' FSOP, organizations should benefit from improved employee family, health, and work-related outcomes.

Limitations

There are several important limitations of this study to acknowledge. These limitations likely contribute to the overall insignificant findings. An important limitation to note is that this study used self-report measures for all variables. Some of the drawbacks of relying solely on self-report measures include the influence of social desirability (Paulhus, 2017) and faking (Donovan et al., 2003). Future research would benefit from including non-self-report measures for these variables in addition to the self-reported measures.

Second, the data utilized in this study was collected as part of a larger study focusing on values shaped by where people live and climate variability within the United States, therefore more survey items focused on variables outside of the proposed model in this study. In other words, if the survey focused more on participants commuting experience, then other commuting-related items could have been included in the survey and ultimately the data analyses that might have contributed to a significant impact on the various outcomes. This study relied on self-reported measures of participants' commute time in minutes. Commuting related factors that were outside the scope of this study include commuting distance, traffic/congestion, and mode of transportation (i.e., public transportation, bike riding, walking).

Third, the six-week time lag used in this study could be considered a limitation. Commute time that was reported at time 1 did not differ significantly from commute time reported at time 2. Future research should examine how changes in commute time (increased or decreased time in minutes) impact the outcome variables used in this study. Levels of FSSB and

FSOP were only reported at time 1. Examination of a change in the level of these constructs could reveal moderating effects of each.

The fourth important limitation to note is that although prior research has shown that MTurk workers (MTurkers) are a reasonable representation of the US population (Michel et al., 2018), the MTurkers that participated in this study may not be a representative sample that can be generalized to other worker populations. Descriptive statistics indicated a wide range of occupations that were self-reported by participants in this study, however, only 36.9% of participants were employed full-time. Therefore, future research may benefit from different data collection methods that provide a sample with a greater percentage of full-time workers.

Another limitation of this study pertains to the use of job turnover intentions as an outcome variable. If the outcome variable of interest in the model was turnover intention due to retirement (i.e., planning to retire in the near future), then the regression may have yielded significant results due to commute time having a greater impact on someone who is closer to retirement compared to someone who recently entered the workforce. Workforce aging and retirement are pertinent challenges that organizations' Human Resource (HR) departments are facing today (Kanfer, 2010; Schmidt & Lee, 2008). According to Kanfer (2010), many organizations have started to implement programs designed to retain aging workers, but it is critical for these organizations to have a clear understanding of what factors significantly affect turnover intentions. Future research should aim to better understand the impact of commute time on turnover intentions (in general and retirement related). Additionally, this study found that there was a main effect of FSSB on turnover intentions, therefore, organizations may benefit from HR initiatives or programs that focus on increasing FSSBs.

Similarly, organizational turnover intentions (i.e., frequent thoughts about quitting an organization) may have resulted in a significant outcome, especially if an individual was considering going to work for an organization that has a shorter commute time compared to the current one. Steinmetz et al. (2014) found that employees who are subjected to lengthy travel times to physically report to work are less likely to stay with the same company, thus having higher turnover intentions.

A substantial amount of missing data resulted in the use of data imputation. Although the data imputation method used in this study was valid, having fewer missing data would eliminate the need to conduct data imputation analyses. Ideally, using a different type of data collection method could result in significantly less missingness of data. Perhaps conducting interviews with employees would allow for more detailed responses as well as lead to more complete survey responses. Another consideration would be to distribute a shorter survey to avoid issues with survey fatigue.

Directions for future research

Future research should use current commuting data to more accurately reflect the impact of commute time on workers' family, health, and work-related outcomes. Commuting trends have changed since the data for this study was collected. Recent decades have shown the trend for commuting time has increased both in the U.S. (Gimenez-Nadal & Molina, 2019; Hoehner et al., 2012;) and internationally (Denstadli et al., 2017; Künn-Nelen, 2016; Roberts et al., 2011). Future research should be conducted to better understand employees' attitudes towards commuting. Elfering et al. (2020) noted that despite commuting time not being a part of the formal workday, it is viewed as an extension of work time. Further research ought to explore

employees' perceptions of commute time and attitudes toward commuting to better understand the impact commute time has on family, health, and work-related outcomes.

This study found that there was a main effect of FSSB on turnover intentions, therefore, future research ought to be conducted to determine the extent to which FSSB affects turnover intentions. A practical implication that stems from this study's finding of a significant effect of FSSB on turnover intentions is that HR departments in organizations could benefit from developing a program geared toward retaining aging workers that focuses on improving or increasing supervisors' family supportive behaviors. It is critical for organizations to ensure that the interventions reach the target group of individuals (i.e., aging workers). Similarly, main effects of FSSB were found on WFC, overall burnout, physical fatigue, cognitive weariness, and emotional exhaustion, accordingly future research could explore the extent to which FSSB affects each of these outcomes, as well as how implementing FSSB training influences these respective outcomes. In addition to determining the extent to which FSSB training influences these outcome variables of interest, this future research direction would also build upon Hammer et al.'s (2011) findings that supervisors had positive reactions to training on how to engage in FSSB and the intervention also resulted in improvement in self-reported FSSB and in an increase in personal goals for implementing FSSB. On a related note, research has found promising evidence that FSSB training effects are beneficial to workers' health, well-being, and work-family conflict (e.g., Kelly et al., 2014; Olson et al., 2015), thus future research examining HR training programs/interventions with a focus on FSSB could further explore these effects.

As previously mentioned, a limitation of this study was the use of only job turnover intentions. Future research should examine commute time effects on organizational turnover intentions and retirement-focused turnover intentions to draw comparisons and better understand

commute time's effect on turnover intention measures. Similarly, future research could test a model that includes family-work conflict (FWC), in addition to WFC, to examine the bidirectional nature of this conflict in relation to commute time and the moderating variables. The work and family domains compete for a valuable resource: time. It would be interesting to assess the differences between commute time's impact on participants' WFC compared to FWC.

Building off the aforementioned future research direction regarding the use of a data collection method that would provide a larger sample of full-time workers, a unique avenue for future research would be to examine the differences in how commute time affects various outcomes (i.e., WFC, burnout, turnover intentions) across full-time workers, part-time workers, and nonstandard workers. Watson et al. (2021) proposed differences in job demands (alienation, emotional labor, and underemployment) and job resources (autonomy, social support, and task identity) for different types of gig workers (e.g., contingent workers, independent contractors, platform workers). A fruitful avenue for future research would be to examine the effect of commute time on family, health, and work-related outcomes as well as job demands and resources for full-time, part-time, and nontraditional workers.

Conclusion

To my knowledge, this is the first study to examine the relationship between commute time and employees' family, health, and work-related outcomes. In addition to bridging the gap between commuting and work-family literature, this thesis also contributed to the scarcity of literature examining FSSB an FSOP as a moderator. Although FSSB and FSOP did not moderate the relationship between commute time and the outcomes of interest, the results of this study showed that FSSB and FSOP affect employees' WFC, burnout, and turnover intentions. Higher levels of FSSB were associated with lower levels of WFC, overall burnout, physical fatigue,

cognitive weariness, emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions. Higher levels of FSOP were

linked to lower levels of WFC, overall burnout, physical fatigue, and turnover intentions.

Organizations and their leaders should recognize the significance of implementing FSSB and

improving FSOP and use these family supportive policies and practices to support their

employees' work and nonwork responsibilities.

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Appendix A

Tables

Table 1. Means, standard deviations, and correlations of study variables

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Commute Time (T1)	23.47	17.60	1.00								
2. WFC (T2)	3.24	1.29	0.08	1.00							
3. Burnout (T2)	3.01	1.38	0.02	0.57***	1.00						
4. Physical Fatigue (T2)	3.41	1.58	0.01	0.57***	0.94***	1.00					
5. Cognitive Weariness (T2)	2.80	1.50	0.02	0.48***	0.91***	0.76***	1.00				
6. Emotional Exhaustion (T2)	2.59	1.58	0.04	0.44***	0.801***	0.66***	0.65***	1.00			
7. Turnover Intentions (T2)	3.38	1.97	0.04	0.35***	0.53***	0.56***	0.41***	0.43***	1.00		
8. FSSB (T1)	4.95	1.44	-0.08*	-0.30***	-0.34***	-0.37***	-0.25***	-0.28***	-0.34***	1.00	
9. FSOP (T1)	3.64	1.34	-0.08*	-0.30***	-0.17***	-0.18***	-0.13***	-0.12***	-0.21***	0.43	1.00

Note. SD is used to represent standard deviation. *** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$

The Hypothesized Model
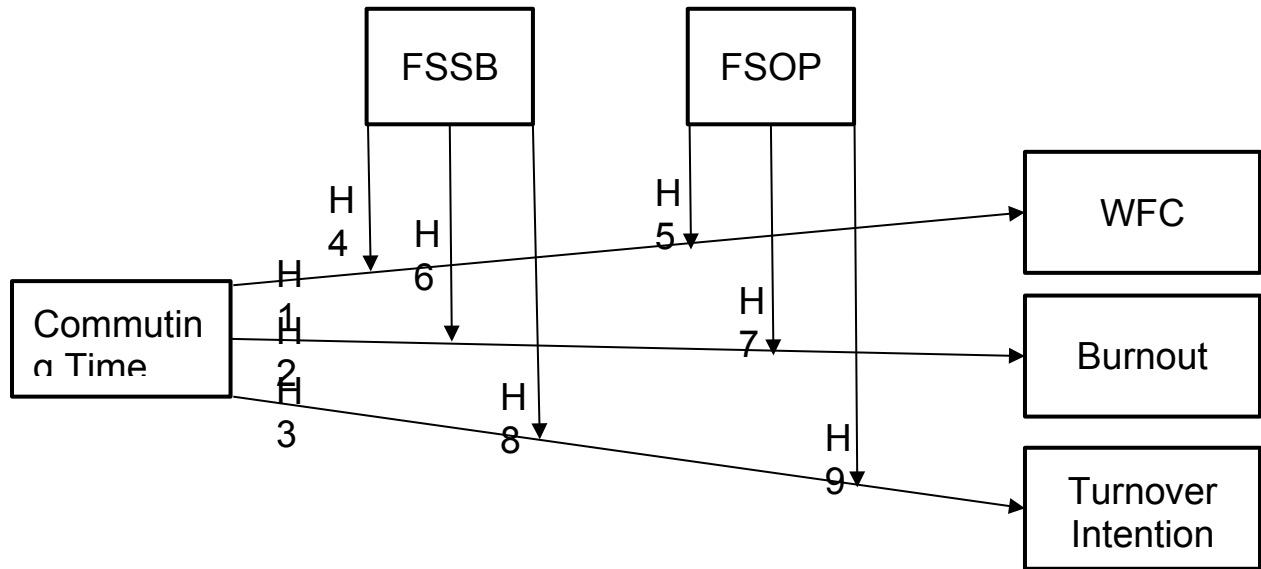
Appendix C

Measure of Work Family Conflict

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about your primary job.

1= Strongly Disagree

2= Disagree

3= Slightly Disagree

4= Neither Agree nor Disagree

5= Slightly Agree

6= Agree

7= Strongly Agree

1. My work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like.
2. The time I must devote to my job keeps me from participating equally in household responsibilities and activities.
3. I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities.
4. When I get home from work I am often too frazzled to participate in family activities/responsibilities.

5. I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my family.

6. Due to all the pressures at work, sometimes when I come home I am too stressed to do the things I enjoy.

7. The problem-solving behaviors I use in my job are not effective in resolving problems at home.

8. Behavior that is effective and necessary for me at work would be counterproductive at home.

9. The behaviors I perform that make me effective at work do not help me to be a better parent and spouse.

Appendix D

Measure of Burnout

Please indicate the frequency to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about your primary job.

1 = Never or almost never

2 = Very rarely

3 = Rarely

4 = Occasionally

5 = Frequently

6 = Very frequently

7 = Always or almost always

1. In the past 30 workdays, I feel tired.

2. In the past 30 workdays, I have no energy for going to work in the morning.

3. In the past 30 workdays, I feel physically drained.

4. In the past 30 workdays, I feel fed up.

5. In the past 30 workdays, I feel like my "batteries" are "dead".

6. In the past 30 workdays, I feel burned out.

7. In the past 30 workdays, My thinking process is slow.

8. In the past 30 workdays, I have difficulty concentrating.

9. In the past 30 workdays, I feel I'm not thinking clearly.

10. In the past 30 workdays, I feel I'm not focused in my thinking.

11. In the past 30 workdays, I have difficulty thinking about complex things.

12. In the past 30 workdays, I feel I am unable to be sensitive to the needs of coworkers and customers.

13. In the past 30 workdays, I feel I am not capable of investing emotionally in coworkers and customers.

14. In the past 30 workdays, I feel I am not capable of being sympathetic to co-workers and customers.

Appendix E

Measure of Turnover Intentions

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about your primary job.

1= Strongly Disagree

2= Disagree

3= Slightly Disagree

4= Neither Agree nor Disagree

5= Slightly Agree

6= Agree

7= Strongly Agree

1. I am planning to search for a new job outside my job during the next 12 months.

2. I often think about quitting my job.

3. If I have my own way, I will be working in some other job one year from now.

4. I am planning to retire in the near future.

5. I often think about retiring.

6. If I have my own way, I will be retiring a year from now.

7. I am planning to search for a new job outside this organization during the next 12 months.

8. I often think about quitting this organization.

9. If I have my own way, I will be working for some other organization one year from now.

Appendix F

Measure of Family Supportive Supervisor Behaviors

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about your primary job.

1= Strongly Disagree

2= Disagree

3= Slightly Disagree

4= Neither Agree nor Disagree

5= Slightly Agree

6= Agree

7= Strongly Agree

1. Your supervisor makes you feel comfortable talking to him/her about your conflicts between work and non-work.

2. Your supervisor demonstrates effective behaviors in how to juggle work and non-work issues.

3. Your supervisor works effectively with employees to creatively solve conflicts between work and non-work.

4. Your supervisor organizes the work in your department or unit to jointly benefit employees and the company.

Appendix G

Measure of Family Supportive Organizational Perceptions

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about your primary job.

1= Strongly Disagree

2= Disagree

3= Slightly Disagree

4= Neither Agree nor Disagree

5= Slightly Agree

6= Agree

7= Strongly Agree

1. My organization believes that individuals who take time off to attend to personal matters are not committed to their work.*

2. My organization believes that the most productive employees are those who put their work before their family life.*

3. My organization believes that work should be the primary priority in a person's life.*

4. My organization believes that employees should keep their personal problems at home.*

5. At my organization, attending to personal needs, such as taking time off for sick children, is frowned upon.*

Note: * indicates the item should be reverse-scored.