

ABSTRACT

Lauren N. Scanlan. THE TELEDEMIC. HOW TELEWORK INFLUENCES EMPLOYEE PRODUCTIVITY AND HEALTH. (Under the direction of Dr. Mark Bowler) Department of Psychology, December 2022.

This study had three primary aims, the first of which was to create and evaluate a novel measure of telework based on the conceptualization of Kossek, Lautsch, & Eaton, (2006). Subsequently, this study produced the Psychological Job Control Measure of Telework which had three factors: the ability to control (1) where, (2) when, and (3) how one telecommutes. The second aim of this study was to test telework's influence on the variables of interest: work-life balance, proactive personality, burnout, and withholding effort. Overall, telework moderated the relationship between work-life balance and burnout; as well as the relationship between work-life balance and withholding effort. Similarly, telework moderated the relationship between proactive personality and turnover intentions. The third aim was to use qualitative methods to further contextualize the quantitative findings. With this, more context for these relationships was derived (e.g., the necessity of boundary management, attitudes toward transitioning to telework, positive sentiments toward telework). Overall, this study provided qualitative context to the relationships found between the variables, which helps bridge the gap of qualitative research in Industrial-Organizational Psychology research.

HOW TELEWORK INFLUENCES EMPLOYEE PRODUCTIVITY AND HEALTH

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Table of Contents

Signature Page	iii
Acknowledgements.....	iv
List of Tables	x
List of Figures	xii
CHAPTER I: GENERAL INTRODUCTION	1
CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW	4
Telework Overview	4
Motivations and Outcomes of Telework.....	6
Work-life Conflict Overview	9
Antecedents of Work-life Conflict.....	10
Outcomes of Work-life Conflict	11
Proactive Personality Overview.....	11
Outcomes of Proactive Personality	12
Burnout Overview	12
Antecedents of Burnout	13
Outcomes of Burnout.....	15
Withholding Effort Overview	16
Antecedents of Withholding Effort.....	16

Outcomes of Withholding Effort	17
Job Demands-Resources Model.....	18
CHAPTER III: TWO SAMPLES, ONE QUANTITATIVE STUDY	20
Aim 1:	22
Hypothesis 1 (H1):.....	22
Aim 2:	22
Hypothesis 2 (H2):.....	22
Hypothesis 3 (H3):.....	22
Hypothesis 4 (H4):.....	22
Hypothesis 5 (H5):.....	22
Methods and Measures	23
Sample 1: MTurk	23
Participants and Procedures	23
Sample 2: Faculty Sample	24
Participants and Procedures	24
Measures	26
Telework	26
Test Design	26
Initial Factor and Item Development	26

Hypothesis 1 (H1):.....	27
Work Interference with Life	29
Life Interference with Work	30
Proactive Personality	30
Burnout	30
Turnover Intentions.....	31
Withholding Effort.....	31
Data Analyses	31
Sample 1: MTurk	31
Burnout.	31
Turnover Intentions.....	34
Withholding Effort.....	37
Sample 2: Faculty Sample	40
Burnout	40
Turnover Intentions.....	43
Withholding Effort.....	45
CHAPTER IV: QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS	49
Aim 3:	50
Qualitative Methods.....	50

Participants and Procedures	51
Sample 1: MTurk	51
Sample 2: Faculty Sample	52
Qualitative Data Analysis Aims.....	53
Qualitative Results	53
Sample 1: MTurk	53
Sample 2: Faculty Sample	59
CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION.....	65
General Implications	65
Quantitative Analyses Discussion.....	65
Burnout	65
Turnover Intentions.....	69
Withholding Effort.....	71
Qualitative Analyses Discussion.....	72
Understanding of the Psychological Concept of Telework	73
Telework's relationship with WLB and Burnout.....	73
General Attitudes Toward Telework Transition	76
Study Limitations.....	77
Future Research	78

Conclusions.....	79
References.....	81
APPENDIX A: TABLES AND FIGURES	93
APPENDIX B: IRB APPROVAL LETTER AND INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT....	123

List of Tables

Table 1.1. Items in Psychological Experience of Telework Measure.....	93
Table 1.2. Factor Analysis for the Psychological Measure of Telework.....	94
Table 1.3. Final CFA Parameter Estimates.....	95
Table 1.4. Second Order Factor Loadings	96
Table 1.5. Final CFA Residual Variances	97
Table 2.1 Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Reliabilities for MTURK Sample.....	98
Table 2.2. Frequency of Industries for MTurk Sample	99
Table 2.3. Level of Education.....	100
Table 3.1. Predicting Burnout.....	101
Table 3.2. Predicting Burnout as Moderated by Telework and Proactive Personality, Work Interference with Family, and Family Interference with Work	102
Table 3.3. Conditional Effects of Burnout as Moderated by the Psychological Concept of Telework and Family Interference with Work.....	103
Table 3.4. Predicting Turnover Intentions	104
Table 3.5. Predicting Turnover Intentions as Moderated by Telework and Proactive Personality, Work Interference with Family, and Family Interference with Work	105
Table 3.6. Conditional Effects of Predicting Turnover Intentions as Moderated by Telework and Family Interference with Work.....	106

Table 3.7. Predicting Withholding Effort	107
Table 3.8. Predicting Withholding Effort as Moderated by Telework and Proactive Personality, Work Interference with Family, and Family Interference with Work	108
Table 3.9. Conditional Effects of Predicting Withholding Effort ad Moderated by Telework and Family Interference with Work.....	109
Table 4.1. Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Reliabilities for Faculty Sample	110
Table 4.2. Frequency of Industries for IPAR Sample	111
Table 5.1. Predicting Burnout	112
Table 5.2. Predicting Burnout as Moderated by Telework and Proactive Personality, Work Interference with Family, and Family Interference with Work	113
Table 5.3. Predicting Turnover Intentions	114
Table 5.4. Predicting Turnover Intentions as Moderated by Telework and Proactive Personality, Work Interference with Family, and Family Interference with Work	115
Table 5.5. Conditional Effects of Predicting Turnover Intentions as Moderated by Telework and Proactive Personality	116
Table 5.6. Predicting Withholding Effort	117
Table 5.7. Predicting Withholding Effort as Moderated by Telework and Proactive Personality, Work Interference with Family, and Family Interference with Work	118

List of Figures

Figure 1. Conditional Effects of Burnout as Moderated by the Psychological Concept of Telework and Family Interference with Work (MTurk Sample).....	119
Figure 2. Conditional Effects of Predicting Turnover Intentions as Moderated by Telework and Family Interference with Work (MTurk Sample).....	120
Figure 3. Conditional Effects of Predicting Withholding Effort and Moderated by Telework and Family Interference with Work (MTURK Sample).....	121
Figure 4. Conditional Effects of Predicting Turnover Intentions as Moderated by Telework and Proactive Personality (Faculty Sample).....	122

CHAPTER I: GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Telework is a work design that allows employees to work in a location other than their central office, and often allows employees to work at a different pace than a typical 9-to-5 job (Allen, Renn, & Griffeth, 2003; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). This construct has typically been studied in two ways – a dichotomous view of whether or not someone teleworks and in hours used to telework per week (Eaton, 2003; Kossek, Lautsch, & Eaton, 2006). However, as telework is more than an all or nothing construct (e.g., either I telework, or I do not) – its full spectrum of benefits has not been considered in the current literature. Telework has been used as a benefit for employees. Telework has been implemented to increase work-life balance, reduce operations costs, and help retain employees (Mello, 2007). Given the recent events associated with the COVID-19 pandemic, telework has been thrust upon many individuals without warning. This situation has forced employers and employees into a situation for which they might be unprepared. The sudden transition from part-time to full-time telework is likely to jar employees, and they are unlikely to view this as the resource it is usually considered as.

Work-life balance – or its counterpart work-life conflict – has individual and organizational outcomes such as work and life dissatisfaction (Greenhaus et al., 2003) and turnover intentions (Isenhour et al., 2012). Previous research has focused primarily on work-family conflict. This is inadequate as there is more to the human experience than family. Thus, research should focus on all the domains outside of work and its interface with the work domain (Keeney et al., 2013). Telework is a tool that organizations use with the intention to enhance work-life balance (Hill et al., 2001). However, the benefits of telework's impact on work-life balance are unclear (Baruch & Nicholson, 1997; Cheuk, 2006; Golden et al., 2006; Lapierre & Allen, 2006).

Burnout is a construct that has been gaining awareness not only in research but also in the media. It was originally conceptualized in 1981 as a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that leads to reduced personal efficacy in service workers (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Burnout has since been studied outside of service workers and has been applied as a general occupation phenomenon (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). It has even been deemed a diagnosable syndrome by the World Health Organization (WHO, 2019). Burnout has been linked to outcomes such as negative health consequences (Schaufeli et al., 2008) and poor job performance (Alacorn, 2011; Maslach et al., 2011). In the JD-R framework, burnout has been cited as a health outcome of high demands and low resources at work (Alacorn, 2011; Bakker et al., 2005). In this context, telework can be considered a job resource that might be able to mitigate burnout.

Withholding effort is whether or not an employee will give less than their full effort when performing work tasks (Kidwell & Bennett, 1993). Withholding effort has high costs for organizations because productivity time is lowered (Dobos, 2017). Withholding effort is also related to increased turnover (Bennett & Naumann, 2005). Managers willingness to endorse telework programs is a predictor of the usage of the program, however interest among many managers is low as they do not see the need for change, they fear loss of control (Bailey & Kurland, 2002). Some outcomes of telework are self-reports of increased productivity; however, the increased productivity reports might be confounded with longer hours of working (Cheuk, 2006). Therefore, the investigation of telework's impact on withholding effort is likely to be noteworthy.

Proactive personality is a dispositional trait defined as, "the relatively stable tendency to effect environmental change" (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Proactive personality is related to lower

levels of burnout (Alarcon et al., 2009). This construct is likely to help employees buffer the relationship between demands and burnout. Those with a proactive personality are more likely to consider telework a resource which can diminish levels of burnout.

The purpose of this study is to enhance the knowledge of how telework impacts both the employee experience, as well as the influence of telework on employee and organizational outcomes. Overall, previous studies have not measured telework's capabilities to enhance employee's ability to change where, when, and how they work (Kossek et al., 2006). This study seeks to close that gap by considering and measuring telework with new methodology. Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, telework has been forced upon employees as one of the only safe means of maintaining a work-life. Investigating this critical transition can provide insight on how telework functions in an extreme case. Furthermore, this study seeks to consider telework within the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) framework. In this framework, telework is considered a resource that can enhance beneficial employee health outcomes (Hoeven & Zoonen, 2015). This framework will enrich the knowledge of how telework as a benefit can moderate the relationships between other employee resources such as work-life balance and personality and their relationship with health outcomes such as burnout and organizational outcomes such as turnover intentions and withholding effort.

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

Telework Overview

The roots of telework began when the advancement of IT and telecommunications technology led to the decentralization of organizations. There are 4 phases of organization evolution which lead to decentralization; centralization, fragmentation, dispersion, and diffusion. Centralization is the traditional working model where all major functions are located at a central site. Fragmentation is when subunits of the central location function outside the major central location. An example of this would be if an organization had a central location for administration while having production factories at varying locations. Dispersion is when there are a number of different work centers at varying locations. Lastly, total diffusion is telecommuting from home (Nilles, 1975). Teleworking was originally conceptualized as a way to reduce environmental problems such as reduced traffic, pollution, and reduced strain on public transport (Hill et al., 2001; Mello, 2007). Other societal (e.g., ADA compliance, helps with new parents), employee (e.g., increased job satisfaction, enhanced employment opportunities), and organizational benefits (e.g., reduced operations costs, retention aid) emerged from the practice which led to the further study and definition changes of telework (Mello, 2007).

Telework has been called many different names such as homeworking, telecommuting, flexible work designs, distributed work, and new ways to work (Allen et al., 2003; Baruch & Nicholson, 1997; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Hoeven & Zoonen, 2015; Peters et al., 2014). Homeworking is when an employee performs all or the greater part of their work from a domiciliary base, physically separate from the employer's location (Baruch & Nicholson, 1997). Building off this definition, distributed work arrangements are those that allow employees and their tasks to be shared across settings away from a central place of business of physical

organization (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). Flexible work designs (FWD) are the result of advanced communications that allow for spatial and temporal flexibility at work (Hoeven & Zoonen, 2015). New ways to work (NWW) are a set of practices that help create healthy, happy workers which include empowerment, creating trust relationships and the use of telework (Peters et al., 2014). However, all of these definitions build off of the central definition of telecommuting. Telecommuting is the alternative work arrangement facilitated by technology that allows for an employee to physically work away from employer's premises. Most arrangements are part-time and it does not require a computer (Allen et al., 2003).

Telecommuting is the delocalization of work for an organization, which can use a form of IT (Cheuk, 2006). Telework can also be defined as the use of technology to conduct business at a distance, in other words telework is alternative work forms for delocalization. Telecenters (i.e., co-working spaces, e.g., WeWork, Starbucks, etc.) are places that reduce commutes such as satellite offices, and neighborhood work centers (Allen et al., 2003; Cheuk, 2006). Teleworkers are employees who work away from an employer's office in any capacity (Mello, 2007). Though telecenters exist, most telework is performed by teleworkers at home (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). Flexibility practice is the amount of flexible time actually used (i.e. the volume of hours worked at home; Kossek et al., 2006). In sum, teleworkers utilize telework in order to telecommute at telecenters – though they usually do so at home.

Previous studies have only considered the formal flexibility policy use – an employee obtaining permission from HR to utilize their organization's telecommuting policy – as a teleworker. This is a dichotomous view of telework. Having and using a policy in this frame constitutes a flexible job (Eaton, 2003). Therefore, in line with previous research methodology,

this study focuses on this view of telework as a moderator for the relationship of work-life balance (WLB), burnout, turnover intentions, and withholding effort.

Most teleworkers are not full-time teleworkers and this knowledge negates much past research which assumed a population of full-time teleworkers (Bailey & Kurland, 2002). The teleworker population is divided along occupational and gender lines; full-time male professional workers and part-time female clerical workers are those who are most likely to be teleworkers (Bailey & Kurland, 2002; Cheuk, 2006). Though more men telework than women, women with children at home cite work-life balance and a key driver for telework and is assumed to be one the main motivators for telework programs (Bailey & Kurland, 2002). However, couples without children are more interested in telecommuting than those with children (Cheuk, 2006). Though it might seem as though teleworkers might have a personality makeup that predicts their willingness to telecommute, the ability to telework largely depends on the job (Bailey & Kurland, 2002; Baruch & Nicholson, 1997).

Motivations and Outcomes of Telework

Employers are motivated to adopt telework programs for a variety of reasons, including its documented environmental, societal, organizational and employee benefits (Mello, 2007). Telework was originally conceptualized to reduce commutes (Hill et al., 2001). Environmental benefits of telework are reduced traffic and pollution and reduced strain on public transport (Mello, 2007). Telework can also help alleviate concerns related to ADA compliance and benefitting working parents and caregivers. Utilizing telework policies can help ease the transition of those on FMLA and other leave (e.g., parental, disability) back into the world of work (Allen et al., 2003; Mello, 2007). There are also more direct organizational benefits with the use of telework.

Telework is associated with increased productivity, increased morale and motivation, enhanced customer service, reduced operations cost, retention aid, reduced absenteeism and turnover, and increased recruitment opportunities – all of which help benefit organizations (Allen et al., 2003; Cheuk, 2006; Hill et al., 2001; Hoeven & Zoonen, 2015; Kossek et al., 2006; Mello, 2007). Implementing telework policies can reduce overhead costs by reducing the amount of office space and equipment needed on site (Allen et al., 2003). Organizations can also benefit by increasing their recruitment geographical pool. Having opportunity to work in places other than centralized offices can allow for top talent to be recruited from dispersed regions. This can also help increase retentions efforts; if top talent within the company needs to relocate for personal reasons, allowing for them to telework can retain these employees (Cheuk, 2006; Hill et al., 2001). Telework has also been correlated with organizational outcomes such as increased productivity, and increased organizational loyalty (Hill et al., 2001).

Telecommuting has performance related implications. Teleworking has been associated with an increase in working hours (Baruch & Nicholson, 1997), increased productivity (Mello, 2007), and increased job satisfaction (Cheuk, 2006; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). Formal use of telework policies lead to an increase in supervisor performance ratings (Kossek et al., 2006). Self-reports of increased productivity and job satisfaction have been identified in teleworkers. However, the increased productivity reports might be confounded with longer hours of working and the increased job satisfaction reports might be confounded with the enjoyment of freedom and flexibility (Cheuk, 2006). Telecommuting has favorable effects on perceived job satisfaction and job performance (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). Kossek, Lautsch, and Eaton (2006), found that formal users of a telework policy had higher performance ratings. As telecommuting increases, job satisfaction increases – this relationship is mediated by autonomy perceptions

(Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). However, in a metaanalysis performed by Gajendran and Harrison (2007), there was no found relationship between telecommuting and job performance, but supervisor ratings or archival records of performance was positively related to telework.

Work-life balance is a primary motivator for employers to implement telework programs and for employees to participate in telecommuting (Hill et al., 2001). More extensive telework has been shown to lead to lower work to family conflict (Golden et al., 2006). Those who use work-family benefits (i.e., telecommuting opportunities) have lower turnover intentions (Kossek et al., 2006). Women see telework as a means for work-life balance more so than men (Cheuk, 2006). One of the main arguments for telework is that it provides easier childcare arrangements (Baruch & Nicholson, 1997); and women with children who utilize telework programs reported lower depression. Overall, formal policy users of telecommuting leads to higher depression (other than women with children). Employees who perceive higher psychological job control have lower depression and family to work conflict. Boundary management strategies higher on integration of roles are positively related to work family conflict – the integration of roles leads to higher conflict (Kossek et al., 2006). Telecommuting is negatively associated with work family conflict; as telecommuting increases, work family conflict decreases. Telecommuting has a negative effect on work interference with family and family interference with work. As telecommuting increases both work interference with family and family interference with work decreases. Additionally, telecommuting intensity moderated work family conflict such that high intensity telecommuting had a negative effect on work family conflict but not low intensity teleworking (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). However, the beneficial impact of telework on work-life balance has inconclusive results. Telework can lead to the potential for overworking and lack of work/family boundaries (Cheuk, 2006). Telework has been associated with an increase in the

perception of home related stress (Baruch & Nicholson, 1997). More extensive telework leads to higher family to work conflict (Golden et al., 2006). Telework users reported higher time-based family interference with work than non-teleworkers. Telework does not help avoid work family interference. Teleworkers reported more time-based family interference with work, but not strain based family interference with work. There were no reports of work interference with family amongst teleworkers which indicated that family might deplete work resources more than the opposite (Lapierre & Allen, 2006). Therefore, increasing work-life balance for employees is the primary goal of a telework program, factors such as makeup of a home office, and telework intensity should be considered. Though not all teleworkers are parents, providing daycare for new parents might be a more viable option to help achieve work-life balance for this group.

Work-life Conflict Overview

When considering the balance between work and life, the most common conceptualization is “work family balance.” However, when considering the multitudes of roles one takes on outside of work and family such as but not limited to religious beliefs, volunteering, and leisure time, work-life balance is the more appropriate construct to consider multiple roles (Keeney et al., 2013; Lodi-Smit & Roberts, 2007). Work and life roles can have requirements that are incompatible with one another. Time requirements of one role, energy being devoted to one role, and specific behaviors of one role may be incompatible with the other roles’ needs. When these incompatibilities arise, it is considered work-life conflict (WLC; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Work-life conflict has two, bidirectional domains, work interference with life (WIL) and life interference with work (LIW). Work interference with life (WIL) happens when work roles conflict with life roles, while life interference with work happens when life roles conflict with work roles (Keeney et al., 2013).

Antecedents of Work-life Conflict

Several authors have already begun a discussion of where work-life conflict can manifest from. Many of these factors relate back to the individual and their attitude or ability toward life and work. Poor boundary management skills are one such common source of work-life conflict. Individuals who fail to create tangible boundaries between life and work often fail to mitigate work-life conflict, often by having to sacrifice an aspect of one domain for the other (Allen et al. 2014). Dispositional traits are another example of personal characteristics that can create work-life conflict. Negative traits such as negative affect and neuroticism create more vulnerability while positive traits such as positive affect and self-efficacy create less vulnerability (Allen et al., 2012). Individual factors are also related to work-life conflict. Individuals with high perceived financial needs or a strong career identity correlate to heavy workloads which leads to increased WIL (Major et al., 2002); individual factors such as job involvement and locus of control were also found to be strong antecedents (Michel et al., 2011).

There are also factors outside of the individual that can propagate work-life conflict. Organizational factors such as work overload, organizational expectations, and organizational rewards are all related to heavy workloads which leads to increased WIL (Major et al., 2002). Other work-related variables that are antecedents of WFC/WLC are role overload, organizational support, and job autonomy (Michel et al., 2011). Flexible work policies (i.e., telework policies) have been studied in relation to WLC in women. Results suggested that flexible work-related more with WIL than LIW. Being able to have more flexibility with time has a stronger relationship with WIL than flexibility of space to work (Shockley & Allen, 2007).

Outcomes of Work-life Conflict

Work-life conflict and its outcomes are important to study due to the strong connection between balancing work and life with overall life satisfaction. WIL is closely linked to work and professional consequences whereas LIW is linked to life and personal consequences (Amstad et al., 2011). High levels of work-life balance have been associated with greater job and life satisfaction, and lesser anxiety (Haar et al., 2014), while the presence of work-life conflict has been associated with increased work and life dissatisfaction (Greenhaus et al., 2003). When conflicting role demands occur, food choices are one coping mechanism people use, which has further health implications (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011). Heavy workloads lead to increased WIL, which leads to increased psychological distress (Major et al., 2002). One major organizational outcome of work-life conflict is increased turnover intentions (Isenhour et al., 2012).

Proactive Personality Overview

Proactive personality is a stable, latent trait variable defined as “the relatively stable tendency to effect environmental change” (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Individuals high in this trait directly alter and influence their environments (Crant, 1995). Those who are high in this trait bring change to their environment. Those who are low in proactive personality are passive with regards to their environment and adapt to their environmental constraints (Bateman & Crant, 1993). In other words, someone high in this trait might be confronted with a situation and will adapt to and react to the situation by taking action and changing the environment (Claes et al., 2005). This construct has been studied as a personality trait that is a precursor to many organizational outcomes (Belwalkar & Tobacyk, 2018).

Outcomes of Proactive Personality

Proactive personality has organizational and individual outcomes. Most important to organizations, those higher in proactive personality are likely to have higher job performance (Crant, 1995). Having a proactive personality has a negative relationship with emotional exhaustion, a negative relationship with cynicism, and a positive relationship with personal accomplishment all of which are components of burnout (Alarcon et al., 2009).

Burnout Overview

Burnout was originally conceptualized as a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that led to reduced personal efficacy that afflicted those who were helping professionals (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Maslach & Jackson (1981) created the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) based on the need to assess burnout. This assess burnout on a frequency and an intensity scale of emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and reduced efficacy. However, more recent work has indicated that burnout and the MBI is applicable outside of human service workers and found that the MBI generalized to other occupational groups that did not directly interact with clients (e.g., managers; Boles et al., 2000; Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). Different versions of the MBI such as the MBI-HSS (Human Services Survey) for human services and healthcare and the MBI-GS (General Survey) for occupations that are not clearly human service oriented have been created in order to adapt to the generalizability of burnout (Maslach et al., 2001). These alternative forms of the original MBI still focus on the three core components of burnout.

With this in mind, burnout is more generally the chronic syndrome that is a response to prolonged stressors at work that leads to exhaustion and disinterest in work context (Alarcon, 2011; Hakanen & Bakker, 2017). Burnout typically is considered to have three components,

emotional exhaustion, cynicism or depersonalization, and reduced professional/personal efficacy (Maslach et al., 2001). Emotional exhaustion can be considered as the widely understood stress dimension of burnout. It further prompts the rest of the burnout experience as people tend to distance themselves from their work experience as a result of exhaustion as a coping mechanism. Cynicism or depersonalization is putting distance between oneself and those with which one interacts in an attempt to impersonally objectify them. This cynical strategy makes it easier to cope with demands when people are not considered people. Lastly, inefficacy or reduced personal and/or professional accomplishment, arises when the other two aspects of burnout interfere with ones' ability to do their work effectively (Maslach et al., 2001).

Antecedents of Burnout

There are many documented antecedents of burnout. There are also differing antecedents of overall burnout and the three components of burnout, emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and reduced professional efficacy. Considering the original conceptualization of burnout being especially prevalent in the human services industry, there are antecedents that directly apply to this idea. Interpersonal relations (e.g., constantly dealing with other peoples' problems) are related to burnout (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). Zapf and colleagues (2001) found that higher levels of emotional labor lead to higher levels of burnout. Customer-related social stressors (CRSS) also have an association with burnout. CRSS explained 5-9% of additional variance in exhaustion, depersonalization, and professional efficacy above and beyond other stressors such as social stressors, lack of supervisor support, and lack of colleague support (Dormann & Zapf, 2004). There are other burnout antecedents that do not necessarily limit burnout to the helping professions.

There has been a vast amount of research in burnout regarding job context (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Bakker et al., 2005; Alarcon, 2011). Job-related variables which are not limited to the service professions such as role conflict, role ambiguity, role overload, - the lack of skills necessary to do work in the allotted time - and contingency of organizational outcomes – the extent to which rewards and punishment are linked to performance - have all been associated with burnout (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). Additionally, a large body of research has been rooted job demands and resources. The job demands-resources (JD-R) model which states that stress develops when job demands are high and job resources are limited, and has been applied to burnout (Bakker et al., 2005); higher demands, lower resources, and lower adaptive organizational attitudes are related to burnout (Alarcon, 2011).

Though many of these antecedents have been applied to overall burnout, it is imperative to also consider which antecedents apply to each component of burnout as well. Environmental demands play a larger role in emotional exhaustion than resources, particularly when considering emotional labor (Alarcon, 2011). Personality-wise, proactive personality is related to all three components of burnout (Alarcon et al., 2009). Overall, emotional exhaustion is the key experience of burnout. Expectations for high achievement can lead to emotional exhaustion, therefore overachievers tend to experience this stage more often. It is also a response to demand stressors such as interpersonal interactions, role conflict, and work overload (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). Job demands had the strongest relation to emotional exhaustion. Of the three burnout dimensions, personal accomplishment develops largely independent of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Depersonalization is associated with role stress and stressful events. Emotional exhaustion and depersonalization were associated with turnover intentions, organizational commitment, and control coping (Lee & Ashforth, 1996). Bakker and colleagues

(2005) examined burnout with relation to the Job Demands-Resources model. Results indicated that job demands were the most important predictors of emotional exhaustion while lack of resources were the most important predictors of depersonalization and reduced professional efficacy. Employees also reported the highest levels of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization when high job demands coupled with low available resources. Job demands (e.g., workload, emotional demands, and physical demands) did not result in burnout if employees experienced autonomy, feedback, social support, and supervisor support (Bakker et al., 2005). With regards to how burnout and engagement differ, burnout is mainly predicted by job demands and lack of resources while engagement is predicted by the availability of job resources (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

Outcomes of Burnout

Burnout has many negative health consequences (Schaufeli et al., 2008). Burnout mediates the relationship between job demands and health problems (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Physical and emotional consequences of burnout include lowered self-esteem, increased irritability, increased depression and anxiety, increased fatigue, increased substance abuse, and gastrointestinal issues (Alarcon, 2011; Cordes & Dougherty, 1993;). Hakanen and Schaufeli (2012), questioned the directionality of the effect of burnout and engagement and depressive symptoms and life satisfaction. Results of a longitudinal analysis indicated that burnout predicted depressive symptoms and lowered life satisfaction over time. Engagement had a negative effect on depressive symptoms and a positive effect on life satisfaction over time, controlling for burnout. Burnout also has interpersonal, social implications. Burnout is related to poor social functioning and withdrawal from social connections (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Schaufeli et

al., 2008). These outcomes are likely to have cascading effects into both the work and personal lives of affected employees.

However, most critically to organizations, there are workplace outcomes to burnout as well. Burnout has been shown to lead to lower overall job performance (Alacorn, 2011; Maslach et al., 2011). Burnout has been associated with absenteeism, turnover intentions, and actual turnover (Maslach et al., 2011). There have also been links between burnout and job dissatisfaction (Aiken et al., 2002).

Withholding Effort Overview

The “likelihood that an individual will give less than full effort on a job-related task” is withholding effort (Kidwell & Bennett, 1993). An employee being compensated for non-work-related efforts – such as those who are paid salary while malingering on company time - are considered to be production deviants (Dobos, 2017). Other related constructs to withholding effort are cyberloafing (Henle & Blanchard, 2008), free riding, social loafing, and shirking (Bennett & Naumann, 2005). Though similar to withholding effort, all of these other constructs are context specific. For example, cyberloafing is specific in that it involves spending time on non-work related tasks (Kidwell & Robie, 2003). New technologies such as the virtual workplace (e.g. teleworking) have allowed for employees to seek out ways to reduce their workload (Kidwell, 2010). Therefore, investigating this phenomenon in the context of telework should provide more insight into both teleworking and withholding effort.

Antecedents of Withholding Effort

Many individual and organizational factors are antecedents of withholding effort. One example is organizational contexts. Organizations that are continuously decreasing the costs of operations (i.e., low-cost operators), global competitors, and high involvement firms have all

been associated with higher levels of withholding effort. These contexts have changed the workplace to have emphasis on impression management (Kidwell, 2010). Positive group context, job satisfaction, and effort-performance expectancy are also negatively related to withholding effort (Kidwell & Valentine, 2009). The growing relevance of the electronic workplace and knowledge-based work are also correlated with higher levels of withholding effort (Kidwell, 2010).

When one is unable to identify an individual contribution to a task, there is a higher likelihood for someone to withhold effort. Those who have a personal stake in their work are less likely to withhold effort (Bennett & Naumann, 2005). Incentives also play a role in withholding effort. If the incentives are purely based on outcomes instead of linking incentives to effort related to obtaining the outcomes, withholding is more likely to occur (Bennett & Naumann, 2005). Assuming that effort is associated with better outcomes, changing these contexts should not be entirely difficult.

Outcomes of Withholding Effort

Production deviants make their coworkers the victims of their actions rather than their employers (Dobos, 2017). Withholding effort has been associated with negative performance spirals among coworkers who have to put up with the consequences of their low effort coworkers (Miles & Klein, 2002). Additionally, when considering team dynamics, those who perceive free riders within their team tend to commit less to the group goal and reduce their task performance (Miles & Klein, 2002). Those who withhold effort are more likely to avoid conflict than their non-withholding team members (Kidwell, 2010). Production deviants are guilty not only of affecting their coworkers but also of time theft from their employer – the assumption being that workers must give it their reasonable all. Additionally, Dobos (2017) argues that employees owe

their employers a debt of gratitude for employment and fulfills that debt by giving it their reasonable all. There are financial, organizational, and personal costs to withholding effort. When withholding effort occurs, the transactional contract between an employee and the organization are not being met. The costs of withholding effort are related to decreased productivity, decreased morale, and increased turnover – all of which are associated with high financial costs (Bennett & Naumann, 2005).

Job Demands-Resources Model

The Job Demands-Resources Model (JD-R) states that characteristics of a job are either demands or resources. Demands deplete employees which cause health problems. Resources enhance motivation, enjoyment, and absorption at work. This framework has been used to describe the effects of organizational and job design on factors such as telework (Hoeven & Zoonen, 2015) and burnout (Bakker et al., 2005).

The JD-R model states that stress develops when job demands are high and job resources are limited, has been applied to burnout (Bakker et al., 2005). Higher demands, lower resources, and lower adaptive organizational attitudes are related to increased burnout (Alarcon, 2011). In general, job demands are positively related to burnout (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001).

With respect to telework, policies can create both job resources and job demands. Flexible work designs (e.g., telework) and employee well-being are associated through increases in work-life balance, increases in autonomy, increased communication, and fewer work interruptions (Hoeven & Zoonen, 2015). When employees do not experience empowerment and do not consider their working conditions as job resources, employees do not experience enjoyment from work. Relevant to this study, new ways to work (i.e., telecommuting policies)

might help employees feel empowered or consider their working conditions as job resources (Peters et al., 2014).

CHAPTER III: TWO SAMPLES, ONE QUANTITATIVE STUDY

Most previous studies have only considered (1) formal flexibility policy use – an employee obtaining permission from HR to utilize their organization’s telecommuting policy – as a teleworker. This is a dichotomous view of telework. Having and using a policy in this frame constitutes a flexible job (Eaton, 2003). It is important to also consider the (2) amount of flexibility time actually used, which can be measured in volume of hours worked at home (or otherwise).

Considering the degree to which one teleworks has differing outcomes on work family conflict, measuring it correctly – not as a dichotomous variable – is important. Golden and colleagues (2006) discovered that the more extensively one teleworks the lower their work to family conflict but the higher their family to work conflict. Job autonomy positively moderates the impact of telecommuting on work family conflict; lower levels of job autonomy changes the effects on work-family conflict, but higher levels do not. Flexibility positively moderates the impact of telecommuting and work family conflict; when flexibility is high work family conflict decreases at a faster rate. With respect to temporal measurement, hours per week used to telecommute should be estimated. This is because many employers measure time at work in hours per week rather than days per week. There is a curvilinear relationship with telecommuting and job satisfaction that peaks at 15 hours a week (Cheuk, 2006). Few studies have considered length of telework arrangements in this manner (Bailey & Kurland, 2002).

Kossek, Lautsch, & Eaton (2006), argues that there are three different ways to measure an employees’ use of telework; (1) a dichotomous, formal flexibility policy measurement, (2) a continuous measure that considers amount of flexibility time actually used, and (3) the

psychological experience of job flexibility – the perception that one believes they have control over where, when, and how they work.

With respect to psychological measurement of perceived flexibility the most accurate depiction of this experience would come from a measure that considers employees' perception that they have control over where, when, and how they work. By utilizing all three of these measures, the true degree of telework can be measured. Simply measuring the use of a policy does not capture all of the variance of the outcomes of said policy, and more careful measurement of a psychological construct is likely to give rise to new and improved results. Hence this study hopes to measure telework dichotomously, continuously, and psychologically while also examining the measurements' differential impact on WLC, proactive personality, burnout, turnover intentions, and withholding effort.

This study seeks to address gaps in the current literature. Firstly, this study seeks to establish a new conceptualization of telework, which will include a new measure of telework. The psychological perception of job control with regards to telework is the perception that one believes they have control over where, when, and how they work because of telework. Thus, the establishment of this measure and concept will provide new insight on how telework truly effects organizations and employees. Secondly, this study seeks to encompass the construct of work-life balance (WLB) rather than work family conflict (WFC). Broadening this conceptualization allows for the consideration of more inclusive work-life issues. This inclusivity can be further applied to work-life policies in organizations (Keeney et al., 2013). The use of this conceptualization will allow for further clarification on how telework influences the work-life domain, as previous research has focused on the work-family domain.

This study also seeks to examine how telework influences WLB's and proactive personality's effect on burnout, withholding effort, and turnover intentions. With respect to the JD-R, telework can be considered a resource that can help moderate the relationships between work-life balance and burnout, withholding effort, and turnover intentions. The same can be said for telework's influence on the relationship between proactive personality and burnout, withholding effort, and turnover intentions. This framework seeks to examine to what extent telework impacts these relationships. Thus, the aims of this study are as follows:

Aim 1: Create and evaluate a new measure of telework.

Hypothesis 1 (H1): A 3-factor model will have acceptable model fit.

Aim 2: Test a model considering Telework's influence on the variables of interest.

Hypothesis 2 (H2): Work-life balance (WLB) will be negatively associated with burnout (H2a), turnover intentions (H2b), and withholding effort (H2c).

Hypothesis 3 (H3): Proactive personality will be negatively associated with burnout (H3a), turnover intentions (H3b), and withholding effort (H3c).

Hypothesis 4 (H4): Telework will moderate the relationship between WLB and burnout (H4a), turnover intentions (H4b), and withholding effort (H4c) such that higher levels of telework will moderate these associations.

Hypothesis 5 (H5): Telework will moderate the relationship between proactive personality and burnout (H5a), turnover intentions (H5b), and withholding effort (H5c) such that higher levels of telework will moderate these associations.

Methods and Measures

Sample 1: MTurk

Participants and Procedures

Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) was used for data collection. Individuals who were working full time (35+ hours a week) in the US were considered for this study. Only MTurk workers with over a 95% rating were included in the sample as this population is more likely to provide quality work (Peer et al., 2014). Though the validity of using MTurk workers has been contested, MTurk samples allow for a more representative sample, do not have the confounding variable limitations (i.e., unmeasured variables that might affect results) that organizational samples might incur, and results from MTurk samples are comparable to other online recruitment for studies (Buhrmester et al., 2016; Landers & Behrend, 2015; Roulin, 2015). Participants were compensated based on minimum wage calculations. The full survey included 95 items. The survey included validity checks in order to ensure data quality. These checks included simple instructions with an example being, “Select the ‘Strongly Agree’ option.” Participants who did not properly respond to the validity checks in the survey questions were excluded from the analysis.

Participants ($N = 248$) were currently employed adults from North America recruited through the online survey pool Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). All participation was voluntary, and each participant was provided a form of informed consent and were compensated for their time. Of the 287 individuals that completed the survey, 248 scored above 4 on their validity checks and completed over 97% of the survey and their data were kept for subsequent analyses. Only full-time workers were considered for participation in this study with mean weekly working hours reported as approximately 41 hours ranging from 35 hours to 72 hours. A

variety of industries were represented in this sample predominately including Computer/IT Sciences (23.6%), Finance (11.8%), and Education (9.8%). For a full breakdown of the represented industries, please refer to Table 2.2. The mean age was approximately 38 years old ranging from 21 years to 73 years; with 42.1% identifying as women and 55.5% identifying as men. The sample was predominately white/Caucasian (80.3%) and Black/African Americans (9.8%), Asian/Asian-Americans (5.5%), and Alaskan Native/Native Americans (0.4%). Approximately 10.6% identified as being of either Hispanic, Latino, or Chicano ethnicity. Regarding education, 55.5% of participants reported finishing some college, 21.7% of participants held a bachelor's degree, and 15.4% of participants held a high school diploma or equivalent. For a full breakdown of the represented education levels, please refer to Table 2.3.

Sample 2: Faculty Sample

Participants and Procedures

Data were collected via the faculty pool at a large southeastern university. The survey included validity checks in order to ensure data quality. These checks included simple instructions with an example being, "Select the 'Strongly Agree' option." Participants who did not properly respond to the validity checks in the survey questions were excluded from the analysis. Considering academic work involves tasks that can be done either in an office (e.g., meetings with students, teaching, office hours) or via telework (e.g., grading papers, responding to emails, preparing lectures), this pool of individuals provided a unique spectrum of telework. Those who do service-oriented jobs, such as teaching professions, have unique job demands and stressors that predispose these individuals to burnout (Shirom, 2003). Maslach and Leiter (1997) found that teachers, more so than other professions, have higher levels of the burnout components of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and lower levels of professional

efficacy. Increasing levels of student diversity create more challenging work situations for teachers (McCarthy & Lambert, 2006). Thus, this population is of particular interest for further research regarding burnout.

The researchers obtained a database containing a sample of 1,000 valid email addresses of faculty and staff members from a large southeastern university. All participation was voluntary, and each participant was provided a form of informed consent; all participants were able to discontinue the survey at any time. Of the 118 individuals that completed the survey, 95 scored above 4 on their validity checks and their data were kept for subsequent analyses. Thus, the participants in the current study consisted of 95 faculty and staff members from a large southeastern university. The mean weekly working hours were approximately 45 hours ranging from 20 hours to 80 hours. The participants predominantly considered themselves to work in Education (84.2%) and consisted of those who reported working in the Healthcare industry (9.5%), the Science and Research industry (3.2%) and Government and Public Administration (1.1%). For a full breakdown of the represented industries, please refer to Table 4.2. The mean age was approximately 49 years old ranging from 31 years to 75 years; with 62.1% identifying as women and 37.9% identifying as men. The sample was predominately white/Caucasian (85.3%) and consisted of Black/African Americans (7.4%), Asian/Asian-Americans (5.3%), and Alaskan Native/Native Americans (1.1%). Approximately 2.1% identified as being of either Hispanic, Latino, or Chicano ethnicity. Regarding education, 16.8% of participants held a Master's degree while the other 83.2% reported holding a Doctorate or Professional degree. For a full breakdown of the represented education levels, please refer to Table 2.3.

Measures

Telework

The Psychological Job Control of Telework measure was created for the purposes of this study. This measure is based on Kossek and colleagues' (2006) postulation that there is a psychological experience of job flexibility which is comprised of the perception that one believes telework allows someone to control over where, when, and how they work.

Test Design

This measure seeks to gather knowledge on how telework has an influence on where, when and how someone works. The original measure consisted of 15 Likert-style items. Both regular and reverse-scored items were created for the measure. Scores were coded so a high score will indicate high levels of telework mediated psychological job control. Responses to this measure were provided using a 5-point scale, ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). A sample item includes, “Telework allows a person to make decisions affecting where they perform their work tasks.” Higher scores on this measure indicate a higher likelihood to endorse telework.

Initial Factor and Item Development

Items were developed on the theory suggested by Kossek and colleagues (2006) that there is a psychological experience of job flexibility which is comprised of the perception that one believes telework awards someone control over where, when, and how they work. For a list of all items created, see Table 1.1. With this, three initial factors were chosen:

1. The psychological experience of Telework on *where* one works
2. The psychological experience of Telework on *when* one works
3. The psychological experience of Telework on *how* one works

The first major aim of this work is to create and evaluate a new measure of telework. The two samples were collapsed to run these analyses ($N = 344$). Thus, the following research question is driving these analyses:

Hypothesis 1 (H1): A 3-factor model will have acceptable model fit.

Confirmatory factor analyses were used to evaluate how well the items fit the measured used for each construct. The statistical software, JASP, was used for the confirmatory factor analysis in this investigation. A fixed factor method was used, as the measure items were already standardized before any analyses were conducted. Each measure had at least 3 items; therefore, no additional identification methods were needed to complete the analyses. A 3-factor CFA model that included all 15 items was performed to verify that the indicators fit the measure well. The results indicated that the model had poor fit, $\chi^2(87) = 1019.61, p < .001$; $CFI = .633$, $TLI = .557$, $RMSEA = .177$. The RMSEA value indicated poor fit, the CFI value indicated poor fit, and the TLI value indicated poor fit, thus the model had poor fit. Modification indices suggested that the problems primarily resided with the reverse coded items.

Modification indices suggested that the problems primarily resided with the reverse coded items and so they were removed and run as their own factor. A 4-factor CFA model that included all 15 items was performed to verify that the indicators fit the measure well. The results indicated that the model had poor fit, $\chi^2(84) = 436.83, p < .001$; $CFI = .861$, $TLI = .826$, $RMSEA = .111$. The RMSEA value indicated poor fit, the CFI value indicated poor fit, and the TLI value indicated mediocre fit, thus the model had poor fit.

An examination of the modification indices indicated that all the reverse-scored items be allowed to load on every latent variable. A 3-factor CFA model that included all 15 items was performed to verify that the indicators fit the measure well, with all the reverse-scored items

loading onto the three factors. The results of the third model which allowed for the reverse-scored items to load on each latent variable indicated that the model had acceptable fit, $\chi^2(78) = 182.37, p < .001$; $CFI = .959$, $TLI = .945$, $RMSEA = .062$. The RMSEA value indicated acceptable fit, the CFI value indicated acceptable fit, and the TLI value indicated acceptable fit, thus the model had acceptable fit. When this method was utilized, the fit was improved, however the model itself was not logical. Additionally, the residual covariances further suggested that the items did not fit within the measure structure.

As the issues seemed to heavily rely on the reverse-scored items, the measure was analyzed without the reverse-scored items. A 3-factor CFA model that included 9 items was performed to verify that the indicators fit the measure well. The results indicated that the model had close fit, $\chi^2(24) = 56.61, p < .001$; $CFI = .97$, $TLI = .96$, $RMSEA = .063$. The RMSEA value indicated acceptable fit, the CFI value indicated close fit, and the TLI value indicated close fit, thus the model had close fit. For comparison, A 1-factor CFA model that included 9 items was performed. The results indicated that the model had poor fit, $\chi^2(27) = 319.17, p < .001$; $CFI = .76$, $TLI = .68$, $RMSEA = .178$. The RMSEA value indicated poor fit, the CFI value indicated poor fit, and the TLI value indicated poor fit, thus the model had poor fit.

Further consideration for this led to the belief that the reverse-scored items were too absolute to measure what they intended to measure. The absoluteness that any aspect of working would have “no” bearing whatsoever on other aspects of work does not resonate with reality. The reverse-scored items were written in a manner such that they did not function well. Thus, the reverse-scored items were removed from subsequent analyses.

A final CFA which included a second order factor was fit to the model. The second order factor indicates that the psychological experience of telework is a holistic experience as a main

construct. This experience includes the sub-factors, but is an overarching experience itself. A CFA model with a second order factor for the 3-factor model that included 9 items was performed to verify that the indicators fit the measure well. The results indicated that the model had close fit, $\chi^2(24) = 34.37, p = .078$; $CFI = .94$, $TLI = .91$, $RMSEA = .036$. Subsequently, all the analyses are based on the single-factor psychological experience of teleworking. For a summary of all tested model fit indices, see Table 1.2. The CFA parameters for this model can be found in Tables 1.3, 1.4, and 1.5. Exploratory correlations on a composite score for Telework were run by age, gender, race, and ethnicity. This measure was unrelated to age, $r = -.09, p = .073$, race, $F(1, 341) = .820, p = .360$, gender, $F(1, 341) = 1.9, p = .168$, or ethnicity, $F(1, 341) = 1.6, p = .210$. The reliability for the measure is acceptable ($\omega_{MTurk} = .84$; $\omega_{Faculty} = .91$).

Work Interference with Life

The 4-item Work Interference with Family (WIF) subscale of the Work-Family Conflict developed by Gutek, Searle, & Klepa (1991) was used to measure Work Interference with Life. These items were originally adapted from the WIF measure developed by Kopelman, Greenhaus, & Connolly (1983). These items were reviewed in order to determine if they needed revision to adjust the terms to adapt to the life domain rather than the family domain (Keeney et al., 2013). Scores are reverse coded such that a high score indicates high levels of interference. Responses to this measure are provided using a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly Agree*). A sample item includes “On the job I have so much work to do that it takes away from my personal interests.” The reliability for the measure is acceptable ($\omega_{MTurk} = .86$; $\omega_{Faculty} = .85$).

Life Interference with Work

The 4-item Family Interference with Work (FIW) subscale of the Work-Family Conflict developed by Gutek and colleagues (1991) was used to measure Life Interference with Work. These items were originally adapted from the FIW measure developed by Burley (1990). These items were reviewed in order to determine needed revisions to adjust the terms to adapt to the life domains rather than the family domain (Keeney et al., 2013). Scores were reverse coded such that a high score indicated high levels of interference. Responses to this measure are provided using a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly Agree*). A sample item includes “My personal demands are so great that it takes away from my work.” The reliability for the measure is acceptable ($\omega_{\text{MTurk}} = .90$; $\omega_{\text{Faculty}} = .79$).

Proactive Personality

The 6-item Proactive Personality Scale (Abbreviated PPS; Claes et al., 2005) was used to measure proactive personality. Responses to this measure are provided using a 5-point scale, ranging from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly Agree*), where higher scores indicated higher levels of proactive personality. A sample item includes “I am always looking for better ways to do things.” This measure has demonstrated acceptable levels of reliability (Claes et al., 2005). The reliability for the measure is acceptable ($\omega_{\text{MTurk}} = .81$; $\omega_{\text{Faculty}} = .71$).

Burnout

The 19-item Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson, 1981) was used to assess Burnout. Responses to this measure are provided using a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly Agree*), with higher scores indicating higher levels of burnout. A sample item includes “I feel burned out from my work.” The reliability for the measure is acceptable ($\omega_{\text{MTurk}} = .86$; $\omega_{\text{Faculty}} = .82$).

Turnover Intentions

The 4-item turnover intentions scale developed by Kelloway and colleagues (1999) was used to assess individual turnover intentions. Responses to this measure are provided using a 5-point scale, ranging from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly Agree*), where higher scores indicate higher levels of turnover intentions. A sample item includes “I intend to ask people about new job opportunities.” The reliability for the measure is acceptable ($\omega_{MTurk} = .95$; $\omega_{Faculty} = .92$).

Withholding Effort

The 24-item measure for withholding effort developed by Kidwell and Robie (2003) was used to measure individual inclinations to withhold effort. This measure consists of six subscales that assess job neglect, free riding, tardiness, social loafing, and shirking. Higher scores are indicative of higher levels of withholding effort. A sample item includes “I put forth less effort on the job when others are around to do the work.” The composite reliability for the measure is acceptable ($\omega_{MTurk} = .97$; $\omega_{Faculty} = .88$).

Data Analyses

Sample 1: MTurk

Burnout. To test whether the psychological concept of Telework moderates the association between proactive personality, WIF, FIW, and burnout, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted. Descriptive statistics, correlations, and reliabilities for this sample can be found in Table 2. In step 1, variables included participant age, hours worked per week, number of dependents in the household, number of adults in the household, education level, telework, and gender. Slopes, standard errors, and p values are shown in Table 3.1. The step 1 regression was not statistically significant, $R^2 = .04$, $F(7, 240) = 1.35$, $p = .225$.

In step 2, the variables work interference with family, family interference with work, and proactive personality were added to the model. Slopes, standard errors, and p values are shown in Table 3.1. Adding work interference with family, family interference with work, and proactive personality as predictors significantly increased the proportion of variance explained, $\Delta R^2 = .36$, $F(3, 237) = 48.47$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .40$, $F(10, 237) = 16.05$, $p < .001$. Age was positively associated with burnout such that the higher an individuals' age, the higher their burnout score. Education level was negatively associated with burnout such that the lower an individual's education level, the higher their burnout score. Telework was positively associated with burnout such that the more a person perceived they have control over when, where, and how they work, the higher their burnout score. Work interference with family was positively associated with burnout such that the higher an individuals' work interference with family score, the higher their burnout score. Family interference with work was positively associated with burnout such that the higher an individuals' family interference with work score, the higher their burnout score.

Predicting Burnout as Moderated by the Psychological Concept of Telework and Proactive Personality.

In step 3a, an interaction effect between telework and proactive personality was added to the model. Slopes, standard errors, and p values are shown in Table 3.2. The interaction between telework and proactive personality was not significant and adding the interaction term to the model did not significantly increase the proportion of variance explained, $\Delta R^2 = .00$, $F(1, 236) = .009$, $p = .923$. Thus, model 3a is rejected in favor of parsimony as adding the interaction effect did not provide additional value over model 2.

Thus, overall, results from the regression did not support Hypothesis 3a, proactive personality was not associated with burnout. Furthermore, results from the analyses did not

support Hypothesis 5a; telework did not moderate the relationship between proactive personality and burnout.

Predicting Burnout as Moderated by the Psychological Concept of Telework and Work Interference with Family.

In step 3b, an interaction effect between telework and WIF was added to the model. Slopes, standard errors, and p values are shown in Table 3.2. The interaction between telework and WIF was not significant and adding the interaction term to the model did not significantly increase the proportion of variance explained, $\Delta R^2 = .00$, $F(1, 236) = .02$, $p = .901$. Thus, model 3b is rejected in favor of parsimony as adding the interaction effect did not provide additional value over model 2.

Thus, overall, results from the regression supported Hypothesis 2a, work interference with family and family interference with work were both associated with burnout such that the combined construct of work-life balance was negatively associated with burnout. Work-life balance was positively associated with burnout such that the higher work-life imbalance was associated with higher burnout. In contrast, results from the regressions did not support Hypothesis 4a, telework did not moderate the relationship between work-life balance and burnout.

Predicting Burnout as Moderated by the Psychological Concept of Telework and Family Interference with Work.

In step 3c, an interaction effect between telework and family interference with work was added to the model. Slopes, standard errors, and p values are shown in Table 3.2. The interaction between telework and FIW was significant, and adding the interaction term to the model significantly increased the proportion of variance explained, $\Delta R^2 = .03$, $F(1, 236) = 13.93$, $p <$

.001, $R^2 = .43$, $F(11, 236) = 14.53$, $p < .001$. A summary of conditional effects for this model can be found in Table 3.3 and Figure 1. Work interference with family was positively associated with burnout such that the higher an individuals' work interference with family score, the higher their burnout score. Family interference with work was positively associated with burnout such that the higher an individuals' family interference with work score, the higher their burnout score.

Thus, overall, results from the regression supported Hypothesis 2a, work interference with family and family interference with work were both associated with burnout such that the combined construct of work-life balance was negatively associated with burnout. Work-life balance was positively associated with burnout such that the higher work-life imbalance was associated with higher burnout. In addition, results from the regressions partially supported Hypothesis 4a, telework moderated the relationship between work-life balance and burnout. As levels of telework increased, the positive association between FIW and burnout was strengthened.

Turnover Intentions. To test whether the psychological concept of Telework moderates the association between proactive personality, WIF, FIW, and turnover intentions, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted. In step 1, variables included participant age, hours worked per week, number of dependents in the household, number of adults in the household, education level, telework, and gender. Slopes standard errors, and p values are shown in Table 3.4. The step 1 regression was significant, $R^2 = .08$, $F(7, 240) = 3.06$, $p = .004$. In this step, hours worked was associated with turnover intentions such that fewer hours worked was associated with higher turnover intentions.

In step 2, the variables work interference with family, family interference with work, and proactive personality were added to the model. Slopes, standard errors, and p values are shown in

Table 3.4. Adding work interference with family, family interference with work, and proactive personality as predictors significantly increased the proportion of variance explained, $\Delta R^2 = .29$, $F(3, 237) = 36.05$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .37$, $F(10, 237) = 13.38$, $p < .001$. Work interference with family was positively associated with turnover intentions such that the higher an individuals' work interference with family score, the higher their turnover intentions. Family interference with work was positively associated with turnover intentions such that the higher an individuals' family interference with work score, the higher their turnover intentions.

Predicting Turnover Intentions as Moderated by the Psychological Concept of Telework and Proactive Personality.

In step 3a, an interaction effect between telework and proactive personality was added to the model. Slopes, standard errors, and p values are shown in Table 3.5. The interaction between telework and proactive personality was not significant and adding the interaction term to the model did not significantly increase the proportion of variance explained, $\Delta R^2 = .00$, $F(1, 236) = 1.36$, $p = .243$. Thus, model 3a is rejected in favor of parsimony as adding the interaction effect did not provide additional value over model 2.

Thus, overall, results from the regression supported Hypothesis 2b, work interference with family and family interference with work were both associated with turnover intentions such that the combined construct of work-life balance was negatively associated with turnover intentions. Work-life balance was negatively associated with turnover intentions. In contrast, the results from these analyses did not support Hypothesis 3b, proactive personality was not related to turnover intentions. Furthermore, results from the regressions did not support Hypothesis 5b, telework did not moderate the relationship between proactive personality and turnover intentions.

Predicting Turnover Intentions as Moderated by Telework and Work Interference with Family.

In step 3b, an interaction effect between telework and WIF was added to the model. Slopes, standard errors, and p values are shown in Table 3.5. The interaction between telework and proactive personality was not significant and adding the interaction term to the model did not significantly increase the proportion of variance explained, $\Delta R^2 = .00$, $F(1, 236) = .01$, $p = .913$. Thus, model 3b is rejected in favor of parsimony as adding the interaction effect did not provide additional value over model 2.

Thus, overall, results from the regression supported Hypothesis 2b, work interference with family and family interference with work were both associated with turnover intentions such that the combined construct of work-life balance was negatively associated with turnover intentions. Work-life balance was negatively associated with turnover intentions. However, results from the regressions did not support Hypothesis 4b, telework did not moderate the relationship between WIF and turnover intentions.

Predicting Turnover Intentions as Moderated by Telework and Family Interference with Work.

In step 3c, an interaction effect between telework and FIW was added to the model. Slopes, standard errors, and p values are shown in Table 3.5. The interaction between telework and FIW was significant, and adding the interaction term to the model significantly increased the proportion of variance explained, $\Delta R^2 = .02$, $F(1, 236) = 9.54$, $p = .002$, $R^2 = .39$, $F(11, 236) = 13.95$, $p < .001$. A summary of conditional effects for this model can be found in Table 3.6 and Figure 2. Gender was associated with turnover intentions such that men were more likely to report higher turnover intentions. Work interference with family was positively associated with turnover intentions such that the higher an individual's work interference with family score, the higher their turnover intentions score. Family interference with work was positively associated

with turnover intentions such that the higher an individuals' family interference with work score, the higher their turnover intentions score.

Thus, overall, results from the regression supported Hypothesis 2b, work interference with family and family interference with work were both associated with turnover intentions such that the combined construct of work-life balance was negatively associated with turnover intentions. Work-life balance was positively associated with turnover intentions such that the higher work-life imbalance was associated with higher levels of turnover intentions.

Furthermore, results from the regressions partially supported Hypothesis 4b, telework moderated the relationship between FIW and turnover intentions such that as levels of telework increased, the positive association between FIW and turnover intentions was strengthened.

Withholding Effort. To test whether the psychological concept of Telework moderates the association between proactive personality, WIF, FIW, and withholding effort, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted. In step 1, variables included participant age, hours worked per week, number of dependents in the household, number of adults in the household, education level, telework, and gender. Slopes, standard errors, and p values are shown in Table 3.7. The step 1 regression was significant, $R^2 = .14$, $F(7, 239) = 5.61$, $p < .001$. In this step, hours worked was associated with withholding effort such that fewer hours worked was associated with higher withholding effort.

In step 2, the variables work interference with family, family interference with work, and proactive personality were added to the model. Slopes, standard errors, and p values are shown in Table 3.7. Adding work interference with family, family interference with work, and proactive personality as predictors significantly increased the proportion of variance explained, $\Delta R^2 = .45$, $F(3, 236) = 86.79$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .59$, $F(10, 236) = 34.20$, $p < .001$. Weekly hours worked was

associated with withholding effort such that fewer hours worked was associated with higher withholding effort. Gender was associated with withholding effort such that men were more likely to report higher levels of withholding effort. Family interference with work was positively associated with withholding effort such that the higher an individuals' family interference with work score, the higher their levels of withholding effort. Proactive personality was negatively associated with withholding effort such that lower levels of proactive personality was associated with higher levels of withholding effort.

Predicting Withholding Effort as Moderated by Telework and Proactive Personality.

In step 3a, an interaction effect between telework and proactive personality was added to the model. Slopes, standard errors, and p values are shown in Table 3.8. The interaction between telework and proactive personality was not significant and adding the interaction term to the model did not significantly increase the proportion of variance explained, $\Delta R^2 = .00$, $F(1, 235) = .10$, $p = .757$. Thus, model 3a is rejected in favor of parsimony as adding the interaction effect did not provide additional value over model 2.

Thus, overall, results from the regression partially supported Hypothesis 2c, family interference with work was positively associated with withholding effort such that the higher an individuals' family interference with work score, the higher their levels of withholding effort. Higher work-life imbalance was associated with higher levels of withholding effort. Additionally, the results from this analysis supported Hypothesis 3c, proactive personality was negatively associated with withholding effort. In contrast, results from the analyses did not support Hypothesis 5c, telework did not moderate the relationship between proactive personality and withholding effort.

Predicting Withholding Effort as Moderated by Telework and Work Interference with Family.

In step 3b, an interaction effect between telework and WIF was added to the model. Slopes, standard errors, and p values are shown in Table 3.8. The interaction between telework and WIF was not significant and adding the interaction term to the model did not significantly increase the proportion of variance explained, $\Delta R^2 = .00$, $F(1, 235) = .19$, $p = .662$. Thus, model 3b is rejected in favor of parsimony as adding the interaction effect did not provide additional value over model 2.

Thus, overall, results from the regression supported Hypothesis 2c, work interference with family and family interference with work were both associated with withholding effort such that the combined construct of work-life balance was negatively associated with withholding effort. Work-life balance was positively associated with withholding effort such that the higher work-life imbalance was associated with higher levels of withholding effort. In contrast, results from the regressions did not support Hypothesis 4c, telework did not moderate the relationship between WIF and withholding effort.

Predicting Withholding Effort as Moderated by Telework and Family Interference with Work.

In step 3c, an interaction effect between telework and FIW was added to the model. Slopes, standard errors, and p values are shown in Table 3.8. The interaction between telework and FIW was significant, and adding the interaction term to the model significantly increased the proportion of variance explained, $\Delta R^2 = .01$, $F(1, 235) = 5.28$, $p = .022$, $R^2 = .60$, $F(11, 235) = 32.14$, $p < .001$. A summary of conditional effects for this model can be found in Table 3.9 and Figure 3. Weekly hours worked was associated with withholding effort such that fewer hours worked was associated with higher withholding effort. Gender was associated with withholding effort such that men were more likely to report higher levels of withholding effort. Work interference with family was positively associated with withholding effort such that the higher an

individuals' work interference with family score, the higher their levels of withholding effort. Family interference with work was positively associated with withholding effort such that the higher an individuals' family interference with work score, the higher their levels of withholding effort. Proactive personality was negatively associated with withholding effort such that lower levels of proactive personality was associated with higher levels of withholding effort.

Thus, overall, results from the regression supported Hypothesis 2c, work interference with family and family interference with work were both associated with withholding effort such that the combined construct of work-life balance was negatively associated with withholding effort. Work-life balance was positively associated with withholding effort such that the higher work-life imbalance was associated with higher levels of withholding effort. Furthermore, results from the regressions partially supported Hypothesis 4c, telework moderated the relationship between FIW and withholding effort such that as levels of telework increased, the positive association between FIW and withholding effort was strengthened.

Sample 2: Faculty Sample

Burnout

To test whether the psychological concept of Telework moderates the association between proactive personality, WIF, FIW, and burnout, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted. In step 1, variables included participant age, hours worked per week, number of dependents in the household, number of adults in the household, education level, telework, and gender. Descriptive statistics, correlations, and reliabilities for this sample can be found in Table 4. Slopes, standard errors, and p values are shown in Table 5.1. The step 1 regression was statistically significant, $R^2 = .19$, $F(7, 82) = 2.78$, $p = .012$. Age was associated with burnout such that younger individuals reported higher burnout scores. Number of children in the household

was negative associated with burnout such that households with fewer children were associated with higher levels of burnout. Telework was associated with burnout such that lower levels of perceived control over when, where, and how one works was associated with higher levels of burnout.

In step 2, the variables work interference with family, family interference with work, and proactive personality were added to the model. Slopes, standard errors, and p values are shown in Table 5.1. Adding work interference with family, family interference with work, and proactive personality as predictors significantly increased the proportion of variance explained, $\Delta R^2 = .31$, $F(3, 79) = 16.78$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .50$, $F(10, 79) = 8.11$, $p < .001$. Age was associated with burnout such that younger individuals reported higher burnout scores. Number of children in the household was negative associated with burnout such that households with fewer children were associated with higher levels of burnout. Telework was associated with burnout such that lower levels of perceived control over when, where, and how one works was associated with higher levels of burnout. Weekly hours worked was negatively associated with burnout such that those who worked fewer hours reported higher levels of burnout. Work interference with family was positively associated with burnout such that the higher an individuals' work interference with family score, the higher their burnout score.

Predicting Burnout as Moderated by the Psychological Concept of Telework and Proactive Personality.

In step 3a, an interaction effect between telework and proactive personality was added to the model. Slopes, standard errors, and p values are shown in Table 5.2. The interaction between telework and proactive personality was not significant and adding the interaction term to the

model did not significantly increase the proportion of variance explained, $\Delta R^2 = .02$, $F(1, 78) = 2.43$, $p = .123$. Thus, the more parsimonious model in step 2 is accepted.

Overall, results from the regression did not support Hypothesis 3a, proactive personality was not associated with burnout. Furthermore, results from the regressions did not support Hypothesis 5a, telework did not moderate the relationship between proactive personality and burnout.

Predicting Burnout as Moderated by the Psychological Concept of Telework and Work Interference with Family.

In step 3b, an interaction effect between telework and WIF was added to the model. Slopes, standard errors, and p values are shown in Table 5.2. The interaction between telework and WIF was not significant and adding the interaction term to the model did not significantly increase the proportion of variance explained, $\Delta R^2 = .01$, $F(1, 78) = 1.68$, $p = .198$. Thus, the more parsimonious model in step 2 was accepted.

Thus, overall results from the regression partially supported Hypothesis 2a, work interference with family was associated with burnout such that the partial construct of work-life balance was negatively associated with burnout. Work-life balance was positively associated with burnout such that the higher work-life imbalance was associated with higher burnout. However, results from the regressions did not support Hypothesis 4a, telework did not moderate the relationship between work-life balance and burnout.

Predicting Burnout as Moderated by the Psychological Concept of Telework and Family Interference with Work.

In step 3c, an interaction effect between telework and FIW was added to the model. Slopes, standard errors, and p values are shown in Table 5.3. The interaction between telework and proactive personality was not significant and adding the interaction term to the model did not

significantly increase the proportion of variance explained, $\Delta R^2 = .00$, $F(1, 78) = .29$, $p = .587$.

Thus, the more parsimonious model in step 2 is accepted. Thus, model 3c is rejected in favor of parsimony as adding the interaction effect did not provide additional value over model 2.

Thus, overall, results from the regression partially supported Hypothesis 2a, work interference was associated with burnout such that the partial construct of work-life balance was negatively associated with burnout. Work-life balance was positively associated with burnout such that the higher work-life imbalance was associated with higher burnout. In contrast, results from the regressions did not support Hypothesis 4a. Telework did not moderate the relationship between work-life balance and burnout.

Turnover Intentions

To test whether the psychological concept of Telework moderates the association between proactive personality and turnover intentions, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted. In step 1, variables included participant age, hours worked per week, number of dependents in the household, number of adults in the household, education level, telework, and gender. Slopes, standard errors, and p values are shown in Table 5.3. The step 1 regression was not significant, $R^2 = .12$, $F(7, 82) = 1.65$, $p = .131$.

In step 2, the variables work interference with family, family interference with work, and proactive personality were added to the model. Slopes, standard errors, and p values are shown in Table 5.3. Adding work interference with family, family interference with work, and proactive personality as predictors did not significantly increase the proportion of variance explained, $\Delta R^2 = .05$, $F(5, 79) = 1.69$, $p = .18$.

Predicting Turnover Intentions as Moderated by the Psychological Concept of Telework and Proactive Personality.

In step 3a, an interaction effect between telework and proactive personality was added to the model. Slopes, standard errors, and p values are shown in Table 5.4. The interaction between telework and proactive personality was significant and adding the interaction term to the model significantly increased the proportion of variance explained, $\Delta R^2 = .06$, $F(1, 78) = 6.48$, $p = .013$, $\Delta R^2 = .24$, $F(11, 78) = 2.71$, $p = .020$. A summary of conditional effects for this model can be found in Table 5.5 and Figure 4. Age was negatively associated with turnover intentions such that younger individuals reported lower levels of turnover intentions. The interaction between telework and proactive personality moderated the relationship between proactive personality and turnover intentions such that lower levels of telework strengthened the positive relationship between proactive personality and turnover intentions.

Thus, overall, results from the regression did not support Hypothesis 2b, work interference with family and family interference with work were not associated with turnover intentions. Additionally, the results did not support Hypothesis 3; proactive personality was not associated with turnover intentions. In contrast, results from the regressions supported Hypothesis 5b, telework moderated the relationship between proactive personality and turnover intentions.

Predicting Turnover Intentions as Moderated by Telework and Work Interference with Family.

In step 3b, an interaction effect between telework and WIF was regressed on turnover intentions. Slopes, standard errors, and p values are shown in Table 5.4. The interaction between telework and proactive personality was not significant and adding the interaction term to the model did not significantly increase the proportion of variance explained, $\Delta R^2 = .00$, $F(1, 78) = .04$, $p = .836$. Thus, model 3b is rejected in favor of parsimony as adding the interaction effect did not provide additional value over model 2.

Thus, overall, results from the regression did not support Hypothesis 2b. Work-life balance was not associated with turnover intentions. Additionally, results from the regressions did not support Hypothesis 4b; telework did not moderate the relationship between WIF and turnover intentions.

Predicting Turnover Intentions as Moderated by Telework and Family Interference with Work.

In step 3c, an interaction effect between telework and FIW was added to the model. Slopes, standard errors, and p values are shown in Table 5.4. The interaction between telework and proactive personality was not significant and adding the interaction term to the model did not significantly increase the proportion of variance explained, $\Delta R^2 = .00$, $F(1, 78) = .426$, $p = .516$. Thus, model 3c is rejected in favor of parsimony as adding the interaction effect did not provide additional value over model 2.

Thus, overall, results from the regression did not support Hypothesis 2b. Work interference with family and family interference with work were not associated with turnover intentions. Work-life balance was not associated with turnover intentions. Furthermore, results from the regressions did not support Hypothesis 4b. Telework did not moderate the relationship between FIW and turnover intentions.

Withholding Effort

To test whether the psychological concept of telework moderates the association between proactive personality, WIF, FIW, and withholding effort, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted. In step 1, variables included participant age, hours worked per week, number of dependents in the household, number of adults in the household, education level, telework, and gender. Slopes, standard errors, and p values are shown in Table 5.6. The step 1 regression was significant, $R^2 = .16$, $F(7, 82) = 2.22$, $p = .041$. In this step, age was associated with withholding

effort such that younger individuals reported higher levels of withholding effort. Gender was also associated with withholding effort such that men were more likely to report higher levels of withholding effort.

In step 2, the variables work interference with family, family interference with work, and proactive personality were added to the model. Slopes, standard errors, and p values are shown in Table 5.6. Adding work interference with family, family interference with work, and proactive personality as predictors significantly increased the proportion of variance explained, $\Delta R^2 = .12$, $F(3, 79) = 4.46$, $p = .006$, $R^2 = .28$, $F(10, 79) = 3.09$, $p = .002$. In this step, age was no longer associated with withholding effort. However, number of children was associated with withholding effort such that those with fewer children in their household reported lower levels of withholding effort. Gender was associated with withholding effort such that men were more likely to report higher levels of withholding effort. Family interference with work was positively associated with withholding effort such that the higher an individuals' family interference with work score, the higher their levels of withholding effort. Proactive personality was negatively associated with withholding effort such that individuals with lower levels of proactive personality reported higher levels of withholding effort.

Predicting Withholding Effort as Moderated by Telework and Proactive Personality.

In step 3a, an interaction effect between telework and proactive personality was added to the model. Slopes, standard errors, and p values are shown in Table 5.7. The interaction between telework and proactive personality was not significant and adding the interaction term to the model did not significantly increase the proportion of variance explained, $\Delta R^2 = .00$, $F(1, 78) = .18$, $p = .677$. Thus, model 3a is rejected in favor of parsimony as adding the interaction effect did not provide additional value over model 2.

Thus, overall, results from the regression partially supported Hypothesis 2c, family interference with work was positively associated with withholding effort such that the higher an individuals' family interference with work score, the higher their levels of withholding effort. Higher work-life imbalance was associated with higher levels of withholding effort. Additionally, these results supported Hypothesis 3c, proactive personality was negatively associated with withholding effort. In contrast, results from the regressions did not support Hypothesis 5c, telework did not moderate the relationship between proactive personality and withholding effort.

Predicting Withholding Effort as Moderated by Telework and Work Interference with Family.

In step 3b, an interaction effect between telework and WIF was added to the model. Slopes, standard errors, and p values are shown in Table 5.7. The interaction between telework and WIF was not significant and adding the interaction term to the model did not significantly increase the proportion of variance explained, $\Delta R^2 = .00$, $F(1, 78) = .00$, $p = .984$. Thus, model 3b is rejected in favor of parsimony as adding the interaction effect did not provide additional value over model 2.

Thus, overall, results from the regression partially supported Hypothesis 2c, family interference with work was associated with withholding effort such that the partial construct of work-life balance was negatively associated with withholding effort. Work-life balance was positively associated with withholding effort such that the higher work-life imbalance was associated with higher levels of withholding effort. Additionally, these results supported Hypothesis 3c, proactive personality was negatively associated with withholding effort. In contrast, results from the regressions did not support Hypothesis 4c, telework did not moderate the relationship between WIF and withholding effort.

Predicting Withholding Effort as Moderated by Telework and Family Interference with Work.

In step 3c, an interaction effect between telework and FIW was added to the model. Slopes, standard errors, and p values are shown in Table 5.7. The interaction between telework and FIW was not significant and adding the interaction term to the model did not significantly increase the proportion of variance explained, $\Delta R^2 = .02$, $F(1, 78) = 2.01$, $p = .160$.

Thus, overall, results from the regression partially supported Hypothesis 2c, family interference with work was associated with withholding effort such that the partial construct of work-life balance was negatively associated with withholding effort. Work-life balance was positively associated with withholding effort such that the higher work-life imbalance was associated with higher levels of withholding effort. Additionally, these results supported Hypothesis 3c, proactive personality was negatively associated with withholding effort. In contrast, results from the regressions did not support Hypothesis 4c. Telework did not moderate the relationship between FIW and withholding effort.

CHAPTER IV: QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

Above and beyond estimating the proposed model with quantitative research which is traditional in I/O psychology, this study seeks to provide further context to the findings with qualitative data. There is a lack of qualitative data in I/O psychology though there is an increasing interest in such data. A goal of this study is to provide qualitative data with intent to go above and beyond previous quantitative methods historically found in I/O Psychology (Pratt & Bonaccio, 2016). Both qualitative and quantitative data are subjective because human experience is subjective. Additional qualitative data will provide context and perhaps disentangle some contextual variables that cannot be controlled for or accessed in traditional quantitative methods. Additionally, this method can help identify gaps in the quantitative models. The use of mixed methods will provide a better understanding of “what is known and what is not” (Pratt & Bonaccio, 2016). Quantitative data can only provide so much information regarding the variables in question.

The purpose of qualitative data is to better understand the mindsets of the individuals being studied. Quantitative methods provide a backbone for deductive reasoning, while qualitative methods allow for inductive reasoning. Inductive reasoning is particularly appropriate for contexts that are relatively understudied (i.e. telework and a new measure of telework; Bansal et al., 2018). A strength of this methodology is to create a story through the narratives of the participants (Bansal & Corley, 2012). Qualitative analysis can provide further insight to practical applicability of the results (Bansal, & Corley, 2012). Thus, by using a mixed methodology, the goals of this analysis are twofold. To build and anchor theoretical contribution inductively using the meaningful insight from participants, and to provide more context to the influence of telework on work-life balance and burnout. The aim of this study is to collect qualitative data to

help corroborate the quantitative results with individuals' perceptions of their working experience. Thus, the following research questions are proposed:

Aim 3: Evaluate the attitudes of transitioning to telework.

1. Which of the components (i.e. the ability to influence where, when, and how of work) of telework are more prevalent in the influence of the relationship between WLB and burnout?
2. How do the components (i.e. the ability to influence where, when, and how of work) of telework influence the relationship between WLB and burnout with respect to employee experience?
3. What is the experience of transitioning to forced telework?

Qualitative Methods

A content analysis has the ability to take large segments of qualitative data and help incorporate context into analyses. The goal of this analysis is to apply context to how telework moderates the relationship between work-life balance and burnout. The analysis focused on the effort to discover which, if any, aspect of telework (telework influences the where, when, how one works) most influences this relationship. Additionally, qualitative data analysis provides perspective and disentangles some contextual variables that cannot be controlled for or accessed via traditional quantitative methods. By utilizing non-leading, open-ended questions that allow respondents to provide their world view (Pratt & Bonaccio, 2016). According to Marvasti (2004), content analysis requires data collection, data reduction, data display, and drawing conclusions. The recommended steps for content analysis are as follows: (1) Collect data from open ended, non-leading survey questions, appropriate for all participants; (2) Construct a coding frame/categorization scheme; (3) Code the materials; and (4) Create a codebook which includes the rationale for the coding frame, the frequency of the distribution codes, and the reliability of

the coding process. Interrater reliability was considered as well. After the initial coding my rater 1, an independent coding by a second rater was performed. Once completed, the results were compared, and stark disagreements were discussed and considered as part of the analyses. Areas of consensus are highlighted in the analyses below. Coding where consensus could not be reached were discarded.

Participants and Procedures

Sample 1: MTurk

Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) was used for data collection. Individuals who were working full time (35+ hours a week) in the US were considered for this study. Only MTurk workers with over a 95% rating were included in the sample as this population is more likely to provide quality work (Peer et al., 2014). Though the validity of using MTurk workers has been contested, MTurk samples allow for a more representative sample, do not have the confounding variable limitations (i.e. unmeasured variables that might affect results) that organizational samples might incur, and results from MTurk samples are comparable to other online recruitment for studies (Buhrmester et al., 2016; Landers & Behrend, 2015; Roulin, 2015). Participants were compensated based on minimum wage calculations. The survey included validity checks in order to ensure data quality. These checks included simple instructions with an example being, “Select the ‘Strongly Agree’ option.” Participants who did not properly respond to the validity checks in the survey questions were excluded from the analyses. Of the 248 respondents, approximately 228 provided qualitative answers. After cleaning the data of incomprehensible responses, and responses that did not fit into broader themes; of the remaining data approximately 60 responses, indicated broader themes.

Sample 2: Faculty Sample

Data were collected via the faculty pool at a large southeastern university. Considering academic work involves tasks that can be done either in an office (e.g. meetings with students, teaching, office hours) or via telework (e.g. grading papers, responding to emails, preparing lectures), this pool of individuals provides a unique spectrum of telework. Those who work service-oriented jobs, such as teaching professions, have unique job demands and stressors that predispose these individuals to burnout (Shirom, 2003). Maslach and colleagues (1996) found that teachers, more so than other professions, have higher levels of the burnout components of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and lower levels of professional efficacy. Increasing levels of student diversity create more challenging work situations for teachers (McCarthy & Lambert, 2006). Thus, this population is of particular interest for further research regarding burnout.

Included in the survey were validation items, and those who did not respond to all instructed response items were excluded from the analyses. The full survey included 95 items. The survey included validity checks in order to ensure data quality. These checks included simple instructions with an example being, “Select the ‘Strongly Agree’ option.” Participants who did not properly respond to the validity checks in the survey questions were excluded from the analyses. Of the 95 respondents, approximately 77 provided qualitative answers. After cleaning the data of incomprehensible responses, and responses that did not fit into broader themes; of the remaining data approximately 34 responses, indicated broader themes.

Qualitative Data Analysis Aims

In these analyses, data were collected from two separate samples using open ended, non-leading survey questions. Participants had an open-ended amount of time to answer the questions in the survey with no time limit. The survey questions covered the following prompts:

- Does telework allow you to control where, when, and how you complete your work? If so, how?
- Describe how telework affects your work life balance.
- Describe how telework affects your emotional health.
- Describe how telework affects your sense of professional worth.
- What has the transition to telework been like for you?
- Do you think telework would be beneficial outside of the COVID-19 outbreak?

Each response was read and coded. Once items were coded, general themes based on the coding scheme were created. Items whose responses were nonsensical (e.g., “N/A” responses or responses with personal details) or did not fit within the larger schema of general themes were discarded. Additionally, coded responses were analyzed for frequency and distribution to determine a consensus of the results.

Qualitative Results

Sample 1: MTurk

Does telework allow control over where, when, and how work is completed?

From the analysis of the results, it was noted that there are different considerations for telework’s influence on when, where, and how someone works. Generally, individuals felt that telework primary benefit was that it provided them more flexibility. Of the 63 coded responses,

34%, the highest level of response, described telework as providing them flexibility for where they work:

“Yes telework allows me to choose where I want to work either at home or in a cafe or anyplace with a internet connection.”

“I can work wherever I want. I have a home office setup but if I want to go visit my parents I can work from their house too just as easily.”

As long as there is a stable internet connection, respondents generally felt that telework allowed them to work wherever they wanted. The only notable exceptions to this were that two respondents referred to needing Wi-Fi and other technology as a hindrance to being able to work wherever they wanted.

Of the when, where, and how triad, the next most referred to, and perhaps the most contentious of the three, was the flexibility to work when one wants. Of the coded responses, 22% indicated that there was limited flexibility for when they could work.

“I can work from anywhere with a good internet connection, but I still have to complete my work during normal office hours.”

“It does allow me to control where I work, but not really when, because I still have the same schedule I had before, when I was working from the office.”

In contrast, there were several responses that indicated that, though there might not be complete flexibility for when they can work, there is a degree of flexibility:

“Yes, I am able to work within business hours, or whenever it suits me as long as I complete my work.”

“As long as the work is completed in a timely manner, it isn't required that I work specific hours.”

“Yes I am able to work early in the morning and log off earlier in the evening.”

Thus, telework seems to provide some degree of flexibility, however, this can be specific to one’s particular profession or organization.

Regarding flexibility to how one does their work in a telework setting, responses indicated that there was some degree of flexibility. Those who described as having more control over how they work indicated that as long as the tasks are complete, there is freedom on the how:

“As long as my work is done on time and done professionally, I have a lot of latitude on how I do it.”

“I can do some of the more tedious simple tasks from my house once a week from my pc.”

Other responses indicated that individuals enjoyed the flexibility of being able to wear whatever they wanted while working. Overall, telework provides a degree of flexibility for where, and how one works. The when, is a more complicated issue.

How does telework affect work-life balance, emotional health, professional worth?

Regarding work-life balance, of the 67 coded responses, 16%, the highest level of response, made comments regarding their longer working hours in a telework setting. Additionally, 10% of respondents referred to difficult boundary management in a telework setting. Together, these themes indicate that overall boundary management is difficult in a telework setting:

“I tend to spend more time working and have greater difficulty disconnecting.”

“I feel that co workers that are teleworking have high expectations of "on demand" communication. So I am getting contacted at more irregular times.”

“I don't work from home, I live at work. I work all the time. I rarely do anything else. There is no balance.”

Thus, work-life balance is not naturally supported in a telework setting.

In contrast, there were responses that indicated that telework does support work-life balance:

“I can schedule work around my life, not vice versa”

“It's a huge bonus for my work life balance. I don't feel torn between home and work at all now.”

Of the responses that indicated that telework supported work-life balance, the three major themes that arose were telework allows individuals more time with their family (14%); telework allows individuals more time to do their household tasks while working (14%); and the lack of commute due to telework provides people with more time in the day (13%):

“I have more time at home with my family and less time sitting in traffic”

“I am able to get more done since I am at home more. For example I can start the laundry during the work day now. I can also sleep in longer.”

“It allows for me to no longer having to worry about commuting and have probably gotten back at least an hour per day”

Another theme that arose which was referred to less frequently but was particularly interesting was that respondents indicated that they are more easily able to shift their schedules for health reasons (i.e., doctors' appointments, self-appointed medical care, etc.). Additionally, one respondent mentioned that it was a benefit to not have to use their time off in order to manage their health affairs. Overall, though work-life balance may not be inherently supported by telework, there seem to be instances where it can support individuals.

Regarding emotional health, of the 39 coded responses, 46% made comments regarding feeling less stressed overall in a telework setting. Influences such as having greater flexibility, being able to take breaks, having more time to sleep, and avoiding commuting were all factors

that influenced respondents heightened sense of emotional well-being. One interesting theme that was also noted was that telework helped individuals avoid social problems they experienced in the office (7%). In contrast, there were also respondents who reported having deteriorated emotional well-being. Factors such as missing social interaction (15%); feeling generally more stressed (10%); and feeling as though they can never stop working (7%) were all reported as reasons emotional well-being is not supported in a telework-setting.

Regarding professional worth in a telework setting, of the 43 coded responses, 41%, the highest level of response, indicated that professional worth was not at all changed by telework. However, there were also responses that indicated that there were those who felt an increased sense of professional worth (23%). These responses specified that higher productivity, higher feelings of accomplishment, and a heightened sense of trust and morale from their workplace were factors that supported an increased sense of professional worth. In contrast, there were also responses that indicated a diminished sense of professional worth (23%). Of these responses, factors such as feeling less connected to work, generally feeling worth less by their organization, and reduced feelings of professionalism due to wearing casual clothes during telework were all factors that contributed to a diminished sense. of professional worth.

Attitudes toward the transition of telework during the COVID-19 pandemic

A special consideration for this study is to examine the attitudes toward forced transition to telework during the COVID-19 pandemic. Major themes arose that the transition was either generally a positive experience, or initially difficult but became better over time:

“It has been easy for me. I enjoy working from home and have had no issues transitioning to a virtual environment.”

“Challenging, but loving it more as time goes on. Would not want to switch back to in-office work.”

“It was strange at first but I have found my groove and now I am more productive each day.”

Another major theme was that there was a proportion of respondents who had teleworked prior to the COVID-19 pandemic. These respondents generally stated that their transition was simply because they had teleworked in prior roles or settings. There were, however, responses that indicated that the transition was difficult:

“The worst thing ever. I went from being on call 24/7 for emergencies - to 24/7 for anything that can be dreamed up.”

“I have adjusted but I don't like it. We have tried several times to get back into the office but are currently 100% at home again.”

Though a minority of responses, these responses indicate that there is potentially both an organizational and a personal basis for the difficult transition.

General Attitudes Toward Telework

One of the aims of this study is to better understand the consensus of the general utility of telework. Very few responses (5%) indicated that telework should not be continued or generally utilized. The majority of respondents (62%) indicated that telework is beneficial outside of the special circumstances of the COVID-19 pandemic:

“I think yes, employers are starting to see how much more productive some employees are outside of the office.”

“Yes I think telework would be beneficial because it improves the moral of employees.”

Other benefits that respondents referred to included that telework is saved commute time, being able to hire people from varying geographic locations, having flexibility to spend time with family, and environmental benefits due to less travel.

For those who endorsed telework, there was also a consideration for hybrid working versus total diffusion teleworking (21%):

“Yes. I actually would like to keep on working from home several days a week, and maybe go to the office only for a day or two every week. I find I'm more productive and more focused when I work from home.”

“I feel it would still be beneficial but I also feeling coming into a physical building would help in terms of creativity”

Thus, the general consensus was that telework has a utility outside of the special circumstances of the COVID-19 pandemic.

Sample 2: Faculty Sample

Does telework allow control for where, when, and how work is completed?

When examining the results of the survey, some patterns emerged regarding the when, where and how triad of flexibility in the faculty sample. When it comes to there where and the how one works, people feel that telework is flexible. Of the 67 coded responses, 35%, the highest level of response, made mentions of being able to work with a flexible location during through telework and 10% referred that telework provides flexibility with how they work:

“Teaching online, I can record my classes and control my interactions; less interruptions than being at work.”

“I have no interruptions from people just coming into my office and that allows me to work for longer hours, and switch tasks faster.”

Generally, the consensus was that as long as there was access to internet, participants felt that they were able to work wherever they chose (e.g., in the carpool line, in their home, in their office, etc.). Additionally, respondents reported greater levels of control for how they worked (e.g., less interruptions, order of tasks, etc.).

However, when considering the flexibility of when one can work, the responses were fairly split. Of the coded responses, 35% of individuals stated that telework provided them greater flexibility for when they work:

“I choose when I start work, when to finish work, and the order of tasks that I need to complete.”

In contrast, 14% of individuals stated that telework provided less flexibility. Of the when, where, how *inflexibility* triad, the “where” inflexibility answers were the most numerous. Individuals reported that they were unable to have much flexibility for when they worked for reasons such as organizational expectations, deadlines, and meeting times. Furthermore, there were several responses that indicated that individuals felt that the teleworking experience was influencing them to work even longer hours than they would in a traditional setting:

“I have things that have to be done at certain times and I feel like I have to always be available.”

“I am still expected that I am at my computer 9 to 5.”

Thus, the responses supported the idea that telework provides flexibility for where and how one works. However, when one works is dependent on many other factors – and that flexibility to choose when one works may not be a part of true teleworking reality.

How does telework affect work-life balance, emotional health, and professional worth?

Regarding work-life balance, of the 46 coded responses, 28%, the highest level of response, made comments regarding their boundary management. Additionally, 21% of coded responses referred to working longer hours in telework settings. Individuals reported that they find it hard to draw the line between work and life and that they feel they always need to be working:

“Sometimes it's hard to stop working and I often do additional work on the weekends”

“Work more than I should without the delineation between work and home.”

“It is hard to set parameters.”

Thus, work-life balance is not always supported through teleworking efforts.

On the other hand, there were themes that arose that indicated that telework does support some work-life balance. Of the coded responses, 28% provided responses that suggested that telework does support some work-life balance across different themes. The first theme was that telework allowed for more time with family. The second theme was that telework allowed for more breaks that can be used to wellness. The third theme indicated that individuals enjoyed having extra time in their day that they used to use for commuting. All in all, though many people indicated that telework did not support their work-life balance, there are also instances where telework can support aspects of work-life balance.

Regarding emotional health and professional worth, results were mixed. For emotional health the responses were strongly positive, strongly neutral, and strongly negative; and 45 items were coded. For those who believed that telework was positively influencing their emotional health (28%), responses included references to being able to focus on physical well-being, being able to spend time with family, and avoiding interruptions when they are working. Many responses (26%) indicated that had no significant impact on their emotional health. For those who believed telework had a negative effect on their emotional health (46%), major themes that

arose were that individuals felt there was no break from working which further led to feelings of being drained, or guilt; and individuals felt isolated while working from home. Regarding professional worth, 21 items were coded, and results were slightly more positive. Some respondents (33%) reported that telework allows for more autonomy and feelings of accomplishment. The majority (66%) stated that they felt telework did not affect their professional worth.

Attitudes toward the transition of telework during the COVID-19 pandemic

A special consideration for this study is to examine the attitudes toward forced transition to telework during the COVID-19 pandemic. Of the responses the general positive themes included that the transition was not an issue due to telework being a part of the norm for faculty prior to the total transition:

“Easy. I teach in a fully online graduate program, so the transition was really that I would not be expected to be sitting in my office on campus which was actually a relief in many ways.”

“Seamless. I was already accustomed to working from home part-time and have a home office.”

However, another key theme was that the transition was very difficult at first, but adjustment to the new way of work occurred over time:

“The first 6 months were difficult, sometimes it was very hard to concentrate, very hard to sleep. But the last 6 months have been much better and I really enjoy working from home.”

“At first it was super stressful having to learn so many new technologies all at the same time and trying to figure out how to modify things so that they keep working. But now I feel that I’ve learned some valuable skills that I will continue to use.”

One theme that stood out was that a key challenge for individuals transitioning to telework was that they did not have the proper physical space conducive for working.

“It has been hard. My husband is working at home too so carving out a workspace has been difficult.”

“Hard to manage the technology. Help not readily available.”

Managing technology, carving out physical home office areas with multiple home-workers, and having the proper equipment are all challenges referenced by these individuals.

General attitudes toward Telework

One of the questions posed to the respondents was to better understand the general consensus of the utility of telework. Overall, few respondents reported that telework should only be used for special circumstances (i.e., during severe weather, illness, or travel). The majority consensus was that telework is beneficial outside of the special circumstances of the COVID-19 pandemic. Some of the benefits respondents listed included that telework is helpful for commutes, improved mental well-being, and ability to get more work done with fewer distractions.

In a similar vein, another theme that arose was the endorsement for hybrid working (i.e., some days working from home, some days working in the office). Additional considerations for the general utility of telework included considerations for boundary management.

“Yes. I plan to work from home more in the future. Maybe take half days at home, or take 2 days a week completely at home”

“Yes. Not 100% for my job, but I can see the benefits of doing more things this way.

However, I need to learn to set limits for work time.”

Thus, the overall attitudes toward telework, above and beyond the COVID-19 pandemic, are positive.

CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION

General Implications

Quantitative Analyses Discussion

This study sought to measure the quantitative relationship on how the psychological concept of telework moderates the relationship between personality, work-life balance, withholding effort, and burnout. It is imperative to note that these data were collected during the SARS-COV-2 outbreak which caused a global pandemic of COVID-19. During this time, levels of teleworking were unprecedented as society was brought into lockdown to contain the spread of SARS-COV-2. According to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, approximately 33% of establishments increased telework and approximately 57% of establishments transitioned to flexible or staggered work hours during the pandemic (Dalton & Groen, 2022). Thus, these results are all within constant of the subsequent “teledemic.” This particular situational factor provides a specific framing for these results which may not be completely generalizable outside of the setting of the pandemic. Nonetheless, this situation provides context for how individuals value certain aspects of work.

Burnout

As these results were collected during the pandemic, there seemed to be a concentrated effect of relationships related to burnout. Firstly, the most obvious finding of these results would be that, generally, the less work-life balance individuals perceived, the more burnout they reported. Higher levels of FIW and WIF were both related to higher reported levels of burnout. Moreover, telework – the psychological concept of having control of where, when, and how you work – moderated the relationship between FIW and burnout in several of the analyses such that higher levels of telework strengthened the positive relationship between FIW and burnout. Thus,

lower work-life balance was related to higher levels of burnout. An interesting point to note is that pre-pandemic, the office could be considered a buffer for distractions from the home. Work was a buffer for family pre-pandemic and throughout the transition to full telework individuals were constantly being exposed to their family. And in many cases, only their family. Furthermore, during the pandemic, lockdown a home is now potentially an office, the playground, a school, and a daycare all in one. (Miller, 2020) Thus, these factors are likely to interact with each other while creating more distraction from work, and more stressors altogether. There were no additional resources to combat these factors, which in turn raised individuals' demands to not only continue to work in a new setting with new resource-drains while also continue to excel.

In contrast, telework did not moderate the relationship between WIF and burnout. One of the interesting things about WIF, is that it was present before and during the pandemic (Major et al., 2002), and we can reasonably consider it will continue to persist in the after-times. Though there was some optimism in the early pandemic that we could prioritize family through remote working and establish a new, higher level of balance; fundamental changes to work expectations were not made, and the pandemic was just brought into our standard day to day pre-pandemic practices. Telework was not the standard practice prior to the pandemic; WIF simply changed location. Instead of missing your non-work-life because you were in the physical office, workers faced the same predicament from their home offices. Therefore, the findings in these analyses make sense.

Though the literature indicates that proactive personality has a negative relationship with the three sub-facets of burnout (Alarcon et al., 2009); this relationship was not upheld through this study. This could be due to several reasons; however, a strong consideration could likely be

that the situational factor of the pandemic was an override for those with a proactive personality. The pandemic and the subsequent lockdown were factors that could not be proactively considered. In addition, knowledge during the pandemic was ever-changing and therefore it was almost impossible to be proactive in this regard.

Another interesting finding was that, generally, those who worked fewer hours were more likely to report higher levels of burnout. There could be several factors influencing this unanticipated result. One consideration is this could be a chicken/egg problem. People who are already feeling the stages of burnout might be working fewer hours due to strain. Furthermore, this leads to a cyclical issue as someone burning the candle at both ends may not be able to get their full week of work in, thus causing more strain and burnout. On the other hand, during the pandemic, workers were either working fewer hours voluntarily or involuntarily. During the pandemic, bills did not necessarily decrease, but hours did. This lack of support and resources during a tumultuous time could, in turn, cause strain and subsequent burnout.

When considering the relationship between telework and burnout, the two samples provided disparate findings. For the MTurk sample, telework was positively associated with burnout such that the more a person perceived they have control over when, where, and how they work, the higher their burnout score. For the academic faculty sample, telework was associated with burnout such that lower levels of perceived control over when, where, and how one works was associated with higher levels of burnout. Though this may seem like a strange inconsistency, this seems to be rooted in the differential experience of those who work “9 to 5” jobs and those who are in academia. For those in the MTurk sample, more teleworking was not the norm, and telework increased during the pandemic. Thus, these individuals had an increased perception of having control of when, where, and how they worked. On the other hand, for those in the

academic realm, there was more perceived control over where, when, and how one worked prior to the changes brought on by the pandemic. All in all, levels of telework changed from normal to not normal in both samples, which led to more disruption, less resources, and ultimately higher levels of reported burnout.

Furthermore, considering the relationship between age and burnout, the two samples provided disparate findings. Again, this seems to be a function of the jobs themselves. In the MTurk sample, older individuals reported more burnout. In this case, this seems to simply be a factor of time. Those who are older have likely been in the workforce for a longer time. With this it is likely that they are having a harder time adapting to the changes in the pandemic.

Furthermore, it might be harder for the older, more seasoned individuals to adapt to the tele-tech that was thrust upon them with little to no support. All these demands could lead to lack of resources and further burnout. In contrast, in the academic faculty sample, younger individuals reported more burnout. Additionally, in further steps of the regressions, age became less relevant and number of children in the household became relevant. Considering in this sample that age and number of children were significantly correlated (See Table 2), age and number of children could potentially be considered a proxy for a certain life stage: young adults who have young children. Academia has inherently higher stressors in early career. There is more to prove prior as a new faculty member with the continual threat of failing to achieve tenure. Though tenure might be considered a dual-edged sword for some, it has more benefits (e.g., the sense of job security, achievement, status in the field) than drawbacks once it is achieved.

Across both samples, the last finding regarding burnout was that those who were less educated reported more burnout. This could also be due to several factors. Those who are less educated might find themselves in a more precarious position regarding their employment

stability. They might be considered and consider themselves to be more expendable than their higher educated counterparts. This fear of being undervalued is a stressor that is uneasily attenuated. Those who were less educated might also have found the transition to telework more difficult. Due to factors such as knowledge of technology, accessibility to technology, and accessibility to the internet, those with lower education might have had a much more difficult transition to the teledemic.

Turnover Intentions

Considering turnover intentions, one finding that may seem run-of-the-mill was considerably interesting. In general, lower levels of reported work-life balance were associated with higher levels of turnover intentions. Considering the job market *during* the pandemic, it is interesting to note that individuals would still make this decision given that it was very difficult to find a new job in the pandemic. According to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2020), those who wanted to look for a job were more likely to have been prevented by the pandemic's circumstances than those who did not want to look for work. This also gives rise to the true importance of work-life balance. Individuals were willing to sacrifice their incomes while in the situation of the pandemic and all the additional hardships that come with leaving their jobs. This provides evidence that WLB transcended the hardships of the pandemic. Additionally, it is reasonable to assume that family models already had built in buffers to deal with imbalance prior to the pandemic, so this finding could remain constant. Considering the rise of the Great Resignation during and post-pandemic, work-life balance could likely be a key influencer for this cultural phenomenon.

However, for the academic faculty sample, telework moderated the relationship between proactive personality and turnover intentions such that lower levels of telework strengthened the

positive relationship between proactive personality and turnover intentions. This alludes to the concept of having control over when, where and how you work. Those with higher proactive personality but less perceived control over their work (via telework) were willing to look for other work. They were proactive in their situations to regain control. Those who felt that they had control (lower levels of perception of having control over when, where and how you work) did not feel the need to look for another job. Thus, this finding is truly a result of people with proactive personality managing change. If one feels they have control, they do not feel the need to cause further disruption in their lives.

Another factor that was related to turnover intentions was gender; men were more likely to report higher levels of turnover intentions. Though there are likely many sociological explanations for this, it seems important to note that in the situation of a pandemic, there were likely other situational factors that women were more pre-occupied with. Women were likely primary caregivers in their households and were preoccupied with the other challenges brought on by the tele-demic.

Overall, predicting turnover intentions within the academic faculty sample did not yield significant results. Work-life balance and proactive personality, and demographics, had no association with turnover intentions. With the consideration that academics day-to-day went from partial to full telework, it is reasonable to think that academics had the physical (e.g., computers, home offices, stable internet, telecommuting technology) and psychological (i.e., knowledge to convert an in-person class to an online based class, boundary management) tools to cope with the new demands of telework.

Withholding Effort

In tandem with the burnout results, withholding effort was associated with FIW but not WIF. As previously stated, WIF can be considered a constant before and after the pandemic. Therefore, work interfering with personal life will not necessarily give rise to higher levels of withholding effort. A 10PM deliverable review session was just moved from your physical office to your home office. On the other hand, results indicated that FIW was positively associated with withholding effort such that the higher an individuals' family interference with work score, the higher their levels of withholding effort. Furthermore, telework moderated the relationship between FIW and withholding effort such that as levels of telework increased, the positive association between FIW and withholding effort was strengthened. More distractions from home life could result in less effort being put forth at work. This can be corroborated with the finding that number of children was associated with withholding effort such that those with fewer children in their household reported lower levels of withholding effort. Before jumping to the conclusion that telework and work from home policies will give rise to low-effort workers, it is imperative to note the unique distractions of the pandemic. There was no daycare and no school, both of which would likely mitigate this finding in a non-teledemic state. Furthermore, there were very little non-work distractions outside of family during this time, which put family at top of mind.

Proactive personality was associated with withholding effort such that lower levels of proactive personality was associated with higher levels of withholding effort. Therefore, those with higher levels of proactive personality might generally be better suited for telework. They are better able to manage their time and boundaries. Proactive personality could be considered an individual difference that can combat withholding effort.

Men were more likely to report withholding effort than women. There are likely a few sociological factors that might be at play, however, the one that is top of mind in this case is that men are likely less used to having to balance work and life obligations. As women are usually considered the caregivers of the household, they are used to being able to balance their dual roles. Men might have found the new dynamic of having their families at the front and center distracting. Men likely had fewer mental tools to compartmentalize the dueling obligations.

Lastly, the faculty sample had limited significant results regarding withholding effort. This was likely due to the restricted range of withholding effort for the faculty sample.

Qualitative Analyses Discussion

This study sought to collect qualitative data to help provide contextual information on telework. A major goal of these analyses was to provide context to the novel Psychological Concept of Telework measure from Study 1. Another major goal was to further understand telework and its relationship to facets of work-life balance and burnout:

Aim 3a: Which of the components (i.e., the ability to influence where, when, and how of work) of telework are more prevalent in the influence of the relationship between WLB and burnout?

Aim 3b: How do the components (i.e., the ability to influence where, when, and how of work) of telework influence the relationship between WLB and burnout with respect to employee experience?

As these data were collected during the SARS-COV-2 outbreak which caused the global pandemic of COVID-19. Additional contextual information regarding this experience was also considered by examining the experience of transitioning to forced telework (**Aim 3c**). With the framing of this context, further understanding of telework can be understood.

Understanding of the Psychological Concept of Telework

Kossek and colleagues (2006) postulate that psychological experience of job flexibility (i.e., telework) is the perception that one believes they have control over where, when, and how they work. Across both samples, respondents provided information regarding this triad of variables and their relationship to telework. Though there was evidence that telework provided flexibility for where and how one works (i.e., being able to work from anywhere with internet connection; being able to work in one's pajamas, avoiding social burdens of the office, the luxury of fewer interruptions, etc.), there was substantial evidence that telework does not necessarily provide flexibility for when one works. In an archetypical situation, telework could theoretically provide the "when" flexibility. However, in current reality, schedules are dictated by an individual's organization. In order to continue to collaborate with colleagues through meetings, calls, and pings, it is still sensible to maintain the structure of the general workday as if working in person. Thus, in contrast with Kossek and colleagues (2006), true asynchronistic telework is likely something that exists in theory but is impractical in practice. With this in mind, the study of telework should focus more-so on the perceived flexibility, benefits, and effects of "where" and "how" one works. For future study on the "when" piece of this puzzle, future research should focus on the barriers that are blocking the ability to have the flexibility to work at an optimal schedule for the individual – while also focusing on how to balance that with the needs of the organization.

Telework's relationship with WLB and Burnout

Respondents were directly asked *how telework affects their work-life balance* in order to gather both perceived benefits and perceived detriments that they have experienced. A major theme across both samples referred to difficulty with boundary management. Respondents

mentioned that they had difficulty disconnecting, felt pressure from their co-workers to always be available, and that they have difficulty setting parameters. Additionally, another common theme that indicated a symptom of boundary management issues was working longer hours or feeling like they were always working.

The ability to have a different physical space at work, helps set the boundary between work and home. Blurring this boundary by working at home can attribute to the difficulty of boundary management. This idea is further extremified when considering the context of the forced telework situation brought on by the COVID-19 pandemic. Individuals were suddenly forced to start teleworking without any preparation or training for best practices. Additionally, some respondents reported that they did not have the ideal space or equipment for this abrupt transition. The teledemic forced upon many during the COVID-19 pandemic was a less than ideal situation. However, boundary management is hardly a new topic when considering telework (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Golden et al., 2006). This perspective in an extreme situation provides more evidence for boundary management awareness, especially now that hybrid working is becoming the new norm.

In order to gather more context on the relationship between telework and burnout, respondents were asked *how telework affects their emotional health, and professional worth*. Emotional health was used as a proxy to gauge emotional exhaustion and cynicism while professional worth was used as a proxy to gauge professional efficacy. In a similar vein to the findings for work-life balance, a theme that arose when considering emotional health was lack of boundary management. Feeling unable to disconnect from work is draining, and lack of internal boundary management coupled with lack of boundary management tools and expectations from organizations can exacerbate the feelings of emotional drain. However, an opposite finding was

that individuals felt empowered to focus on their physical and mental well-being by working from home. Having dedicated time and space to exercise and spend time with loved ones and feeling emboldened to be able to do so greatly increases one's feeling of well-being.

With these contrasting findings, there is likely two factors at play; the individual difference of being able to manage boundaries, and organizational expectations that individuals should fully manage this boundary. The inability to detach from work is hardly a new phenomenon (Sonnentag et al., 2014). The lack of resources for boundary management with the increased demand of having to manage boundaries can be draining and cause additional strain to workers. Thus, organizations should be cognizant that boundary management is an additional caveat to telework. Being aware of this struggle for workers can allow for organizations to provide more resources to their employees. Leaders can help mitigate this issue twofold – through their own mentorship and by encouraging teams to manage their time in a way that works best for them. If a leader is leading by example by being transparent about how they manage their time and their tasks while also logging off at reasonable hours helps set a tone from the top that direct reports and teams can use as a model (Liaw et al., 2010). Additionally, providing tactical examples for teams on how to better manage time such as tackling certain tasks within a week while designating other items as “tomorrow's problem” can help guide teams on how to prioritize their work hours and allow them to feel peace of mind when they disconnect for the day or the week. This kind of supportive leader can help guide their team and provide guidance and adjustments as needed to manage workload (Au & Ahmed, 2016).

In a positive vein, the consensus was that professional worth was not altered due to telework. Individuals did not feel any less professional in a teleworking setting. Additionally, a theme arose that indicated that telework made individuals feel more trusted by their

organizations which increased their feelings of worth. Therefore, there is a further benefit to be explored. With the addition of the resource of teleworking flexibility, both employers and employees can benefit from the feeling of heightened trust.

General Attitudes Toward Telework Transition

In addition to exploring telework in general, this study also sought to explore the reactions to forced telework due to the COVID-19 pandemic. For those who teleworked prior to the pandemic, the transition was not difficult. This is likely due to the expectations and infrastructure being readily available. Generally, for the abrupt transition, most individuals felt that it was difficult at first, but they adjusted over time. Overall, the general sentiment regarding telework outside of a pandemic setting was that hybrid working was an appealing practice. However, one interesting finding was that physical space was a limitation for those during the transition. Successful transitions to telework likely include a designated space for work with limited interruptions or distractions. Being forced to work from home without any space or basic equipment, is very likely a hindrance from being a productive worker. Coupled with the potential for a second adult is also in need of space and equipment, then this problem is exacerbated. If we also consider the potential for younger children in need of space for their schoolwork – this becomes a potential logistical nightmare. Though this might seem straightforward, what might not be is the cost for these changes. Assuming lower-priced items, according to Amazon.com, a basic office set up with a desk (\$80) and a desk chair (\$55) would cost approximately \$135. However, some individuals also need other essentials to work productively such as a monitor for extended display (\$150) and a mouse (\$12). This set up is now approximately \$300, per individual. Now we must consider the quality of these items. An economically priced desk chair likely does not have the support needed for ergonomic health; an economically priced monitor

might malfunction after a few years; and so on. Thus, the cost continues to rise with increased medical bills and equipment replacement. We are also assuming that the domicile of those at hand is able to support the space for this equipment while also providing a semblance of personal space so conversations during meetings are not overlapping or interrupting each other. All this to say, there is increased strain and financial demand on those who telework. Resources such as discount programs, stipends, and company-provided equipment can help alleviate some, but not all these demands. Though it may seem costly to many large organizations, this would still likely be an insignificant expense relative to the expense to each individual or family facing these demands. There is also likely a return the business would yield in order to retain productive employees.

Study Limitations

There were several limitations to this study. The primary limitation was that the data used for this study were collected in March 2021 – which was approximately a year into the COVID-19 pandemic. These data are unique because telework was more salient to respondents. Though this study was able to capture unique data due to these circumstances, it is likely there are confounding variables that are related to telework that cannot be completely teased out. Another limitation pertains to the MTurk sample. Those who are participants of MTurk are likely computer savvy, and those who were uncomfortable with transitioning to telework are likely not in the sample. Additionally, there is likely an issue of general attrition as those who were forced to transition to telework but did not like it likely left their jobs and were thus not part of the sample.

Variable-wise there were also some limitations to this study. One such limitation was the burnout outcome being considered as a combined score. Ordinarily, burnout is recognized as its

three separate stages, thus it may have been more beneficial to not combine the three into a single measure. A final limitation was combining the novel Psychological Concept of Telework measure as a combined score. Variance regarding the “when, where and how” might have been lost by combining this score, and more nuanced results might have been yielded had they been analyzed separately.

Future Research

Directions for future research center largely around the novel measure of telework brought forth by this work. Now that telework is a more salient topic, it should continue to be studied from not only a temporal perspective as it has been in the past, but also from the individual’s perspective. Being able to gauge perception of flexibility with this measure within organizations can help compare and contrast the efficacy of teleworking policies and practices. This could help provide more salience on issues discussed such as boundary management resources and financial resources for teleworking equipment. Additionally, the findings of this study brought salience to the idea that there is little temporal flexibility with telework. Future research should consider how to include temporal flexibility into the world of work.

Another avenue of research could be to continue to investigate which individual differences contribute to more productive teleworkers. There are likely individual personality traits such as ability to manage boundaries, conscientiousness, and/or openness to new ideas that could benefit teleworkers. With this, the concept of person-at-work-home-fit could also be studied – what factors about a person and working from home energizes or drains that person? In a similar vein, another avenue to investigate is which leadership qualities engender the most productive teleworking teams.

Conclusions

This study had three aims. The first of which was to create and evaluate a novel measure of telework. This study produced such a measure that has theoretical implications for future research. This novel measure provides a new avenue for future research to frame the study of telework from the individual's psychological perspective of perceived flexibility, which is unique compared to prior research in the literature.

Another aim of this study was to test considering telework's influence on the variables of interest: work-life balance, proactive personality, burnout, and withholding effort. Work-life balance was found to be negatively associated with burnout, turnover intentions, and withholding effort. Proactive personality was negatively associated with withholding effort. Telework moderated the relationship between work-life balance and burnout; as well as work-life balance and withholding effort. Telework moderated the relationship between proactive personality and turnover intentions. These findings all shed new light on not only the predictors (work-life balance and proactive personality) and outcomes (burnout and withholding effort), but the additional factor of telework provides even more context to these relationships.

The final aim of this study was to evaluate the attitudes of transitioning to telework and further contextualize the quantitative findings with qualitative data. Of the components of telework (i.e., the ability to influence where, when, and how of work), the perceived flexibility of where and how one works were the most influential on the relationship between work-life balance and burnout. Additionally, employee experiences such as boundary management and physical spaces of telework influence the relationship between work-life balance and burnout.

This study contributed to the literature on telework in several facets. Firstly, the novel measure of the psychological concept of telework has been established. Secondly the relationship

between work-life balance and burnout has been further contextualized with respect to telework. The individual difference of proactive personality was also contextualized for the relationship between work-life balance and burnout. Lastly, there has long been a lack of qualitative data in I-O literature. This study sought to start the closure of that gap. With this data, the investigated relationships were further contextualized.

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APPENDIX A: TABLES AND FIGURES

Table 1.1. *Items in Psychological Experience of Telework Measure*

Item Label	Item	Reverse Scored	Item in Final Measure
WHERE_1	Telework allows people to control <u>where</u> they work	No	Yes
WHEN_2	Telework allows people to control <u>when</u> they work	No	Yes
HOW_3	Telework allows people to control <u>how</u> they work	No	Yes
WHERE_4	Telework has an influence on a person's ability to control the location they work	No	Yes
WHERE_5	Telework has <u>no</u> influence on a person's ability to control the location they work	Yes	No
WHERE_6	Telework allows a person to make decisions affecting where they perform their work tasks	No	Yes
WHERE_7	Telework does not allow a person to make decisions affecting where they perform their work tasks	Yes	No
WHEN_8	Telework has an influence on a person's ability to control the time of day that they work	No	Yes
WHEN_9	Telework has <u>no</u> influence on a person's ability to control the time of day that they work	Yes	No
WHEN_10	Telework allows a person to make decisions affecting at what time they perform their work tasks	No	Yes
WHEN_11	Telework does <u>not</u> allow a person to make decisions affecting at what time they perform their work tasks	Yes	No
HOW_12	Telework has an influence on a person's ability to control how they perform their work tasks	No	Yes
HOW_13	Telework has <u>no</u> influence on a person's ability to control how they perform their work tasks	Yes	No
HOW_14	Telework allows a person to make decisions affecting how they go about performing their work tasks	No	Yes
HOW_15	Telework does <u>not</u> allow a person to make decisions affecting how they go about performing their work tasks	Yes	No

Table 1.2. *Factor Analysis for the Psychological Measure of Telework*

Second Order Factor	Number of Factors	Items	χ^2	p	RMSEA	CFI	TLI
0	3	15	1019.61	<.001	.177	.633	.557
0	4	15	436.83	<.001	.111	.861	.826
0	3	15*	182.37	<.001	.062	.959	.945
0	3	9	56.61	<.001	.063	.92	.96
0	1	9	319.17	<.001	.178	.76	.68
1	3	9	34.36	.078	.036	.94	.91

Note. $N = 344$

*Reverse-scored items loaded onto all factors

Table 1.3. *Final CFA Parameter Estimates*

Factor	Item	St. Estimate	St. Error	Z-value	<i>p</i>
WHEN	WHEN_1	0.749	0.057	0.864	< .001
	WHEN_4	0.683	0.067	0.773	< .001
	WHEN_6	0.821	0.061	1.001	< .001
WHERE	WHERE_2	0.781	0.035	0.969	< .001
	WHERE_8	0.815	0.032	0.911	< .001
	WHERE_10	0.854	0.035	0.920	< .001
HOW	HOW_3	0.799	0.049	1.020	< .001
	HOW_12	0.771	0.045	0.946	< .001
	HOW_14	0.707	0.057	0.739	< .001

Table 1.4. *Second Order Factor Loadings*

Factor	Sub-Factor	St. Estimate	St. Error	Z-value	<i>p</i>
Psychological	Where	.60	.06	9.58	<.001
Experience of	When	.80	.06	17.62	<.001
Telework	How	.98	.07	16.28	<.001

Table 1.5. *Final CFA Residual Variances*

Factor	Item	St. Estimate	St. Error	Z-value	<i>p</i>
WHEN	WHEN_1	0.438	0.032	7.840	< .001
	WHEN_4	0.534	0.039	8.166	< .001
	WHEN_6	0.326	0.039	5.287	< .001
WHERE	WHERE_2	0.390	0.053	7.749	< .001
	WHERE_8	0.336	0.049	5.787	< .001
	WHERE_10	0.271	0.038	5.664	< .001
HOW	HOW_3	0.361	0.039	7.143	< .001
	HOW_12	0.405	0.036	7.973	< .001
	HOW_14	0.501	0.038	7.625	< .001

Table 2.1 *Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Reliabilities for MTURK Sample*

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. FIW	2.34	1.11	.86										
2. WIF	2.97	1.02	.56**	.91									
3. PPS	3.83	.64	.06	.05	.81								
4. MBI	3.28	.98	.22**	.52**	-.06	.86							
5. TI	2.47	1.21	.46**	.37**	.02	.35**	.95						
6. WE	2.28	.94	.66**	.34**	-.09	.18**	.61**	.97					
7. TELE	3.87	.58	-.11*	-.11*	.13*	-.11	-	-.12*	.76				
							.14**						
8. Age	41.0	11.58	-	-.08	-.08	.21**	-	-	-	1			
	3		.26**				.16**	.25**	.20**				
9. Hours	42.1	8.56	-	.12*	-.03	.13*	-.13*	-	.02	.13*	1		
Worked	5		.19**					.31**					
10.	.95	1.08	.20**	.11*	.03	-.01	-.02	.05	.01	-.05	.02	1	
Children													
11. Adults	2.03	.87	.24**	.15*	.09	-.01	.11*	.14**	-.09	-.01	-	.32**	1
											.12*		

Notes. MTurk Sample. *N* = 95;

***p* < .001;

**p* < .05;

McDonald's ω is on diagonal in bold;

TELE = Telework; PPS = Proactive Personality; WIF = Work Interference with Family; FIW = Family Interference with Work; MBI = Burnout; TI = Turnover Intentions; WE = Withholding Effort

Table 2.2. *Frequency of Industries for MTurk Sample*

Level of Education	Frequency	Percentage
Utilities	1	0.39
Computer / IT Sciences	60	23.62
Wholesale	10	3.93
Transportation	4	1.57
Broadcasting	2	0.78
Real Estate	8	3.15
Education	25	9.84
Healthcare	19	7.48
Hospitality and / or Food and Beverage	8	3.15
Legal Services	4	1.57
Religious	1	0.39
Construction	5	1.96
Manufacturing	20	7.87
Finance	30	11.81
Arts, Entertainment, Recreation	12	4.72
Government and Public Administration	18	7.08
Scientific/Research	9	3.54
Other	12	4.72
Missing	6	2.36
Total	254	100

Table 2.3. *Level of Education*

Sample	Level of Education	Frequency	Percentage
IPAR Sample	High School / GED / or Equivalent	0	0
	Some College	0	0
	Bachelors / 4-year Degree	0	0
	Master's Degree	16	16.84
	Higher Professional Degree (e.g. MD, JD, DO)	79	83.15
	Missing	0	0
	Total	95	100
MTurk Sample	High School / GED / or Equivalent	8	3.15
	Some College	39	15.35
	Bachelors / 4-year Degree	141	55.51
	Master's Degree	55	21.65
	Higher Professional Degree (e.g. MD, JD, DO)	6	2.36
	Missing	5	1.96
	Total	254	100

Table 3.1. *Predicting Burnout*

	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Model 1				
$R^2 = .04$				
Age	.001	.006	.13	.873
Weekly Hours	-.01	.008	-1.41	.158
Children	.03	.06	.46	.659
Adults in Household	.07	.07	.99	.305
Education	-.18*	.08	-2.15	.031
Gender	.02	.13	.15	.917
Telework	.12	.10	1.15	.249
Model 2				
$R^2 = .40, \Delta R^2 = .36$				
Age	.01**	.01	2.72	.005
Weekly Hours	-.01	.01	-.84	.384
Children	-.02	.05	-.50	.588
Adults in Household	-.09	.06	-1.46	.184
Education	-.21**	.07	-3.25	.001
Gender	-.11	.10	-1.05	.254
Telework	.21*	.09	2.26	.024
Work Interference with Family	.45**	.07	6.89	<.001
Family Interference with Work	.21**	-.06	3.33	.001
Proactive Personality	.05	.08	.61	.781

Notes. MTurk Sample. * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$

Table 3.2. *Predicting Burnout as Moderated by Telework and Proactive Personality, Work Interference with Family, and Family Interference with Work*

	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Model 3a				
$R^2 = .40, \Delta R^2 = .00$				
Age	.01**	.01	2.71	.005
Weekly Hours	-.01	.01	-.83	.383
Children	-.02	.05	-.50	.590
Adults in Household	-.09	.06	-1.47	.186
Education	-.21**	.07	-3.25	.001
Gender	-.11	.11	-1.05	.259
Telework	.21*	.09	2.25	.025
Work Interference with Family	.45**	.07	6.88	<.001
Family Interference with Work	.21**	.06	3.31	.001
Proactive Personality	.05	.08	.61	.775
TELE*PPS	.01	.05	.19	.923
Model 3b				
$R^2 = .40, \Delta R^2 = .00$				
Age	.01**	.01	2.70	.006
Weekly Hours	-.01	.01	-.84	.389
Children	-.02	.05	-.49	.597
Adults in Household	-.09	.06	-1.46	.186
Education	-.21**	.06	-3.24	.001
Gender	-.11	.11	-1.04	.254
Telework	.21*	.09	2.26	.024
Work Interference with Family	.45**	.06	6.85	<.001
Family Interference with Work	.21**	.06	3.29	.001
Proactive Personality	.04	.08	.61	.780
TELE*WIF	.001	.05	.02	.901
Model 3c				
$R^2 = .43, \Delta R^2 = .03$				
Age	.01*	.01	2.59	.007
Weekly Hours	-.002	.01	-.32	.808
Children	-.02	.05	-.57	.518
Adults in Household	-.05	.06	-.88	.573
Education	-.21**	.07	-3.24	.001
Gender	-.12	.10	-1.12	.201
Telework	.28**	.09	3.07	.002
Work Interference with Family	.43**	.06	6.70	<.001
Family Interference with Work	.17**	.06	2.75	.010
Proactive Personality	.03	.08	.36	.385
TELE*FIW	.17**	.06	3.09	<.001

Notes. MTurk Sample. * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; TELE = Telework; PPS = Proactive Personality; WIF = Work Interference with Family; FIW = Family Interference with Work

Table 3.3. *Conditional Effects of Burnout as Moderated by the Psychological Concept of Telework and Family Interference with Work*

Telework	Effect	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
-.58	-.03	.08	-.30	.766	-.19	.14
0	.16	.06	2.61	.010	.04	.28
.58	.35	.07	4.87	<.001	.21	.49

Notes. MTurk Sample.

Table 3.4. *Predicting Turnover Intentions*

	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Model 1				
$R^2 = .08$				
Age	-.01	.01	-1.73	.075
Weekly Hours	-.02*	.01	-2.66	.008
Children	-.03	.07	-.48	.639
Adults in Household	.16	.08	1.83	.077
Education	.001	.09	-.02	.993
Gender	-.19	.15	-1.23	.244
Telework	-.23	.12	-1.84	.071
Model 2				
$R^2 = .37, \Delta R^2 = .29$				
Age	.003	.01	.51	.652
Weekly Hours	-.01	.01	-1.49	.139
Children	-.11	.06	-1.77	.082
Adults in Household	-.02	.07	-.25	.727
Education	-.07	.08	-.81	.406
Gender	-.28	.13	-2.13	.039
Telework	-.18	.11	-1.59	.113
Work Interference with Family	.23**	.08	2.92	.006
Family Interference with Work	.48**	.08	6.15	<.001
Proactive Personality	-.01	.09	-.14	.645

Notes. MTurk Sample. * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$

Table 3.5. *Predicting Turnover Intentions as Moderated by Telework and Proactive Personality, Work Interference with Family, and Family Interference with Work*

	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Model 3a				
$R^2 = .373, \Delta R^2 = .03$				
Age	.004	.01	.54	.624
Weekly Hours	-.01	.01	-1.42	.162
Children	-.11	.06	-1.79	.077
Adults in Household	-.02	.07	-.28	.689
Education	-.06	.08	-.84	.388
Gender	-.28*	.13	-2.19	.033
Telework	-.20	.11	-1.72	.805
Work Interference with Family	.24**	.08	2.96	.005
Family Interference with Work	.48**	.08	6.10	<.001
Proactive Personality	-.01	.09	-.09	.570
TELE*PPS	.05	.05	.95	.243
Model 3b				
$R^2 = .37, \Delta R^2 = .00$				
Age	.003	.01	.51	.647
Weekly Hours	-.02	.01	-1.49	.139
Children	-.11	.06	-1.76	.082
Adults in Household	-.02	.07	-.25	.725
Education	-.07	.08	-.81	.406
Gender	-.28*	.13	-2.12	.040
Telework	-.18	.11	-1.59	.113
Work Interference with Family	.23**	.08	2.91	.006
Family Interference with Work	.48**	.08	6.08	<.001
Proactive Personality	-.01	.09	-.14	.645
TELE*WIF	-.002	.06	-.03	.913
Model 3c				
$R^2 = .39, \Delta R^2 = .02$				
Age	.002	.01	.33	.758
Weekly Hours	-.01	.01	-.93	.339
Children	-.11	.06	-1.87	.065
Adults in Household	.03	.07	.39	.769
Education	-.06	.08	-.76	.438
Gender	-.28*	.12	-2.23	.029
Telework	-.11	.11	-.91	.361
Work Interference with Family	.21*	.08	2.26	.010
Family Interference with Work	.43**	.08	5.53	<.001
Proactive Personality	-.04	.09	-.41	.982
TELE*FIW	.23**	.07	3.36	.002

Notes. MTurk Sample. * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; TELE = Telework; PPS = Proactive Personality; WIF = Work Interference with Family; FIW = Family Interference with Work

Table 3.6. *Conditional Effects of Predicting Turnover Intentions as Moderated by Telework and Family Interference with Work*

Telework	Effect	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	LLCI	ULCI
-.58	.24	.11	2.18	.030	.12	.46
0	.44	.07	5.58	<.001	.28	.59
.58	.64	.09	6.98	<.001	.46	.82

Notes. MTurk Sample.

Table 3.7. Predicting Withholding Effort

	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Model 1				
$R^2 = .11$				
Age	-.01	.01	-2.67	.008
Weekly Hours	-.03**	.01	-4.58	<.001
Children	.06	.05	1.21	.225
Adults in Household	.08	.06	1.20	.241
Education	.07	.07	.98	.319
Gender	-.17	.11	-1.47	.150
Telework	-.07	.09	-.73	.461
Model 2				
$R^2 = .57, \Delta R^2 = .46$				
Age	3.23E ⁻⁵	.01	.01	.962
Weekly Hours	-.02**	.01	-3.52	<.001
Children	-.01	.03	-.18	.841
Adults in Household	-.07	.04	-1.48	.160
Education	.02	.05	.36	.708
Gender	-.22**	.08	-2.77	.005
Telework	.08	.07	1.11	.267
Work Interference with Family	.13	.05	2.57	.008
Family Interference with Work	.53**	.04	10.71	<.001
Proactive Personality	-.20**	.06	-3.35	<.001

Notes. MTurk Sample. * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$

Table 3.8. Predicting Withholding Effort as Moderated by Telework and Proactive Personality, Work Interference with Family, and Family Interference with Work

	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Model 3a				
$R^2 = .57, \Delta R^2 = .00$				
Age	7.08E ⁻⁶	.01	.01	.970
Weekly Hours	-.02**	.01	-3.52	<.001
Children	-.01	.03	-.17	.846
Adults in Household	-.07	.04	-1.47	.165
Education	.02	.05	.36	.703
Gender	-.22**	.08	-2.74	.006
Telework	.08	.07	1.14	.255
Work Interference with Family	.13	.05	2.55	.009
Family Interference with Work	.53**	.05	10.69	<.001
Proactive Personality	-.21**	.06	-3.35	<.001
TELE*PPS	-.01	.03	-.16	.757
Model 3b				
$R^2 = .59, \Delta R^2 = .00$				
Age	-8.71E ⁻⁵	.01	-.02	.988
Weekly Hours	-.01**	.01	-3.49	<.001
Children	-.01	.03	-.14	.869
Adults in Household	-.07	.04	-1.46	.165
Education	.01	.05	.36	.707
Gender	-.22*	.08	-2.77	.005
Telework	.09	.07	1.13	.260
Work Interference with Family	.12*	.05	2.53	.010
Family Interference with Work	.52**	.05	10.55	<.001
Proactive Personality	-.21**	.06	-3.35	<.001
TELE*WIF	.02	.03	.38	.662
Model 3c				
$R^2 = .60, \Delta R^2 = .01$				
Age	0	.01	-.10	.952
Weekly Hours	-.02**	.01	-3.16	.002
Children	-.01	.03	-.22	.798
Adults in Household	-.05	.04	-1.08	.358
Education	.02	.05	.40	.674
Gender	-.23**	.08	-2.82	.004
Telework	.12	.07	1.59	.112
Work Interference with Family	.12*	.05	2.39	.013
Family Interference with Work	.51**	.05	10.21	<.001
Proactive Personality	-.21**	.06	-3.52	<.001
TELE*FIW	.08*	.04	1.99	.022

Notes. MTurk Sample. * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; TELE = Telework; PPS = Proactive Personality; WIF = Work Interference with Family; FIW = Family Interference with Work

Table 3.9. *Conditional Effects of Predicting Withholding Effort ad Moderated by Telework and Family Interference with Work*

Telework	Effect	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
-.58	.41	.07	5.87	<.001	.27	.55
0	.51	.05	10.14	<.001	.41	.61
.58	.60	.06	10.35	<.001	.48	.71

Notes. MTurk Sample.

Table 4.1. Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Reliabilities for Faculty Sample

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. FIW	2.02	.71	.85										
2. WIF	3.32	.96	.45**	.79									
3. PPS	3.62	.50	.10	.05	.71								
4. MBI	5.32	1.33	.34**	.55**	.34**	.83							
5. TI	2.27	1.18	.09	.19	.09	.50**	.92						
6. WE	1.78	.48	.12	-.12	-.12	.32**	.21*	.89					
7. TELE	3.80	.65	-.01	-.18	-.09	-.13	-.05	.02	.76				
8. Age	49.18	11.36	-	-.18	-.05	-	-	-	-	1			
			.27**			.27**	.20*	.17	.23*				
9. Hours Worked	45.48	8.43	.09	.46**	.07	.10	.04	-	-.05	.06	1		
								.17					
10. Children	.91	1.02	.33**	.04	-.02	-.06	-.03	-	-.07	-	-	1	
								.07		.29**	.05		
11. Adults	1.92	.71	-.04	-.03	-.08	.01	-.04	-	.01	.11	.01	.25*	1
								.03					

Notes. Faculty Sample. $N = 95$; ** $p < .001$; * $p < .05$; McDonald's ω is on diagonal in bold; TELE = Telework; PPS = Proactive Personality; WIF = Work Interference with Family; FIW = Family Interference with Work; MBI = Burnout; TI = Turnover Intentions; WE = Withholding Effort

Table 4.2. *Frequency of Industries for IPAR Sample*

Demographic	Frequency	Percentage
Utilities	0	0
Computer / IT Sciences	0	0
Wholesale	0	0
Transportation	0	0
Broadcasting	0	0
Real Estate	0	0
Education	80	84.21
Healthcare	9	9.47
Hospitality and / or Food and Beverage	0	0
Legal Services	0	0
Religious	0	0
Construction	0	0
Manufacturing	0	0
Finance	0	0
Arts, Entertainment, Recreation	0	0
Government and Public Administration	1	1.05
Scientific/Research	3	3.15
Other	2	2.10
Missing	0	0
Total	95	100

Table 5.1. *Predicting Burnout*

	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Model 1				
$R^2 = .19$				
Age	-.05**	.01	-3.05	<.001
Weekly Hours	.02	.02	1.06	.313
Children	-.33*	.15	-1.71	.025
Adults in Household	.17	.23	.72	.277
Education	.21	.38	.54	.591
Gender	.040	.30	-.34	.891
Telework	-.59**	.22	-2.65	.009
Model 2				
$R^2 = .50, \Delta R^2 = .31$				
Age	-.03**	.01	-2.80	.002
Weekly Hours	-.04*	.02	-2.54	.021
Children	-.34**	.12	-2.80	.003
Adults in Household	.25	.18	1.38	.118
Education	.43	.30	1.43	.161
Gender	-.43	.24	-1.78	.078
Telework	-.28	.18	-1.55	.125
Work Interference with Family	.93**	.15	6.13	<.001
Family Interference with Work	.22	.19	1.20	.193
Proactive Personality	.20	.22	.92	.442

Notes. Faculty Sample. * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$

Table 5.2. *Predicting Burnout as Moderated by Telework and Proactive Personality, Work Interference with Family, and Family Interference with Work*

	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Model 3a				
$R^2 = .52, \Delta R^2 = .02$				
Age	-.03**	.01	-2.84	.003
Weekly Hours	-.04*	.02	-2.60	.017
Children	-.37**	.12	-3.08	.001
Adults in Household	.27	.18	1.52	.098
Education	.37	.30	1.25	.214
Gender	-.50*	.23	-2.13	.041
Telework	-.24	.18	-1.33	.185
Work Interference with Family	.88**	.15	5.79	<.001
Family Interference with Work	.25	.18	1.35	.157
Proactive Personality	.26	.22	1.17	.316
TELE*PPS	-.20	.11	-1.75	.080
Model 3b				
$R^2 = .52, \Delta R^2 = .02$				
Age	-.03**	.01	-2.71	.005
Weekly Hours	-.03*	.01	-2.48	.021
Children	-.35**	.12	-2.95	.003
Adults in Household	.27	.17	1.51	.109
Education	.45	.29	1.51	.142
Gender	-.44	.24	-1.85	.067
Telework	-.21	.19	-1.08	.281
Work Interference with Family	.97**	.15	6.41	<.001
Family Interference with Work	.25	.19	1.38	.158
Proactive Personality	.11	.22	.49	.642
TELE*WIF	-.22	.13	-1.71	.198
Model 3c				
$R^2 = .50, \Delta R^2 = .00$				
Age	-.03*	.01	-2.60	.005
Weekly Hours	-.04*	.01	-2.63	.018
Children	-.33**	.12	-2.79	.003
Adults in Household	.26	.18	1.45	.114
Education	.36	.30	1.18	.218
Gender	-.45	.24	-1.83	.070
Telework	-.26	.19	1.36	.178
Work Interference with Family	.95**	.15	6.19	<.001
Family Interference with Work	.23	.18	1.27	.183
Proactive Personality	.19	.22	.89	.446
TELE*FIW	-.11	.12	-.91	.587

Notes. Faculty Sample. * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; TELE = Telework; PPS = Proactive Personality; WIF = Work Interference with Family; FIW = Family Interference with Work

Table 5.3. Predicting Turnover Intentions

	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Model 1				
$R^2 = .12$				
Age	-.03*	.01	-2.49	.005
Weekly Hours	.01	.02	.33	.769
Children	-.12	.13	-.91	.207
Adults in Household	.09	.21	.41	.515
Education	.30	.33	.89	.374
Gender	-.32	.26	-1.23	.364
Telework	-.36	.20	-1.76	.081
Model 2				
$R^2 = .18, \Delta R^2 = .06$				
Age	-.02*	.01	-2.23	.015
Weekly Hours	-.02	.02	-1.06	.359
Children	-.12	.13	-.87	.271
Adults in Household	.10	.20	.50	.518
Education	.35	.33	1.06	.298
Gender	-.49	.26	-1.84	.136
Telework	-.24	.21	-1.16	.247
Work Interference with Family	.42*	.17	2.48	.037
Family Interference with Work	-.08	.21	-.40	.748
Proactive Personality	.04	.24	.18	.950

Notes. Faculty Sample. * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$

Table 5.4. *Predicting Turnover Intentions as Moderated by Telework and Proactive Personality, Work Interference with Family, and Family Interference with Work*

	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Model 3a				
$R^2 = .24, \Delta R^2 = .06$				
Age	-.03*	.01	-2.33	.015
Weekly Hours	-.02	.02	-1.14	.303
Children	-.17	.13	-1.33	.147
Adults in Household	.13	.19	.71	.424
Education	.26	.32	.81	.422
Gender	-.45	.25	-1.74	.141
Telework	-.17	.20	-.84	.401
Work Interference with Family	.30	.17	1.79	.076
Family Interference with Work	-.04	.20	-.20	.875
Proactive Personality	.13	.24	.56	.653
TELE*PPS	-.33*	.12	-2.69	.013
Model 3b				
$R^2 = .17, \Delta R^2 = .00$				
Age	-.03*	.01	-2.21	.016
Weekly Hours	-.02	.02	-1.05	.360
Children	-.12	.13	-.88	.276
Adults in Household	.10	.21	.51	.525
Education	.35	.33	1.07	.306
Gender	-.49	.26	-1.82	.142
Telework	-.25	.22	-1.16	.247
Work Interference with Family	.36	.18	1.99	.050
Family Interference with Work	-.08	.21	-.38	.737
Proactive Personality	.04	.25	.13	.914
TELE*WIF	-.02	.15	-.15	.836
Model 3c				
$R^2 = .18, \Delta R^2 = .00$				
Age	-.03*	.01	-2.55	.013
Weekly Hours	-.02	.01	-1.00	.427
Children	-.11	.13	-.87	.259
Adults in Household	.09	.20	.47	.543
Education	.38	.34	1.11	.246
Gender	-.48	.26	-1.79	.168
Telework	-.27	.21	-1.28	.202
Work Interference with Family	.34	.18	1.92	.058
Family Interference with Work	-.09	.21	-.42	.713
Proactive Personality	.04	.24	.19	.946
TELE*FIW	.05	.13	.34	.516

Notes. Faculty Sample. * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; TELE = Telework; PPS = Proactive Personality; WIF = Work Interference with Family; FIW = Family Interference with Work

Table 5.5. *Conditional Effects of Predicting Turnover Intentions as Moderated by Telework and Proactive Personality*

Telework	Effect	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	LLCI	ULCI
-.64	.71	.36	1.95	.050	-.01	1.43
0	.09	.24	.35	.720	-.39	.56
.64	-.53	.32	-1.67	.100	-1.18	.11

Notes. Faculty Sample.

Table 5.6. *Predicting Withholding Effort*

	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Model 1				
$R^2 = .16$				
Age	-.01*	.01	-2.11	.037
Weekly Hours	-.01	.01	-1.97	.052
Children	-.06	.05	-1.29	.195
Adults in Household	.01	.08	.11	.893
Education	.02	.13	.18	.857
Gender	-.31*	.10	-2.87	.005
Telework	-.01	.11	-.21	.828
Model 2				
$R^2 = .28, \Delta R^2 = .12$				
Age	-.01	.01	-2.02	.047
Weekly Hours	-.01	.01	-1.33	.216
Children	-.11*	.05	-2.12	.037
Adults in Household	.01	.07	.17	.807
Education	.08	.12	.62	.542
Gender	-.29*	.10	-2.67	.009
Telework	-.05	.08	-.58	.558
Work Interference with Family	-.06	.06	-1.03	.254
Family Interference with Work	.21*	.08	2.58	.011
Proactive Personality	-.27**	.09	-2.85	.005

Notes. Faculty Sample. * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$

Table 5.7. *Predicting Withholding Effort as Moderated by Telework and Proactive Personality, Work Interference with Family, and Family Interference with Work*

	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Model 3a				
$R^2 = .28, \Delta R^2 = .00$				
Age	-.01	.01	-1.93	.050
Weekly Hours	-.01	.01	-1.33	.213
Children	-.12*	.05	-2.14	.035
Adults in Household	.01	.07	.20	.791
Education	.07	.13	.56	.577
Gender	-.28*	.11	-2.64	.010
Telework	-.04	.08	-.52	.603
Work Interference with Family	-.07	.06	-1.11	.237
Family Interference with Work	.21*	.08	2.61	.011
Proactive Personality	-.27**	.09	-2.77	.007
TELE*PPS	-.02	.05	-.49	.677
Model 3b				
$R^2 = .28, \Delta R^2 = .00$				
Age	-.01	.01	-1.91	.051
Weekly Hours	-.01	.01	-1.31	.219
Children	-.11*	.05	-2.11	.038
Adults in Household	.01	.07	.18	.808
Education	.08	.13	.62	.545
Gender	-.28**	.10	-2.65	.011
Telework	-.05	.08	-.55	.583
Work Interference with Family	-.06	.06	-.98	.275
Family Interference with Work	.21*	.08	2.57	.012
Proactive Personality	-.27**	.09	-2.80	.006
TELE*WIF	-.01	.05	-.19	.984
Model 3c				
$R^2 = .29, \Delta R^2 = .01$				
Age	-.01	.01	-1.67	.104
Weekly Hours	-.01	.01	-1.52	.144
Children	-.11*	.05	-2.06	.043
Adults in Household	.02	.07	.30	.750
Education	.03	.13	.26	.789
Gender	-.31**	.10	-3.05	.005
Telework	-.02	.08	-.22	.825
Work Interference with Family	-.05	.06	-.81	.408
Family Interference with Work	.21**	.08	2.72	.008
Proactive Personality	-.27**	.09	-2.92	.005
TELE*FIW	-.08	.05	-1.53	.160

Notes. Faculty Sample. * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; TELE = Telework; PPS = Proactive Personality; WIF = Work Interference with Family; FIW = Family Interference with Work

Figure 1. *Conditional Effects of Burnout as Moderated by the Psychological Concept of Telework and Family Interference with Work (MTurk Sample)*

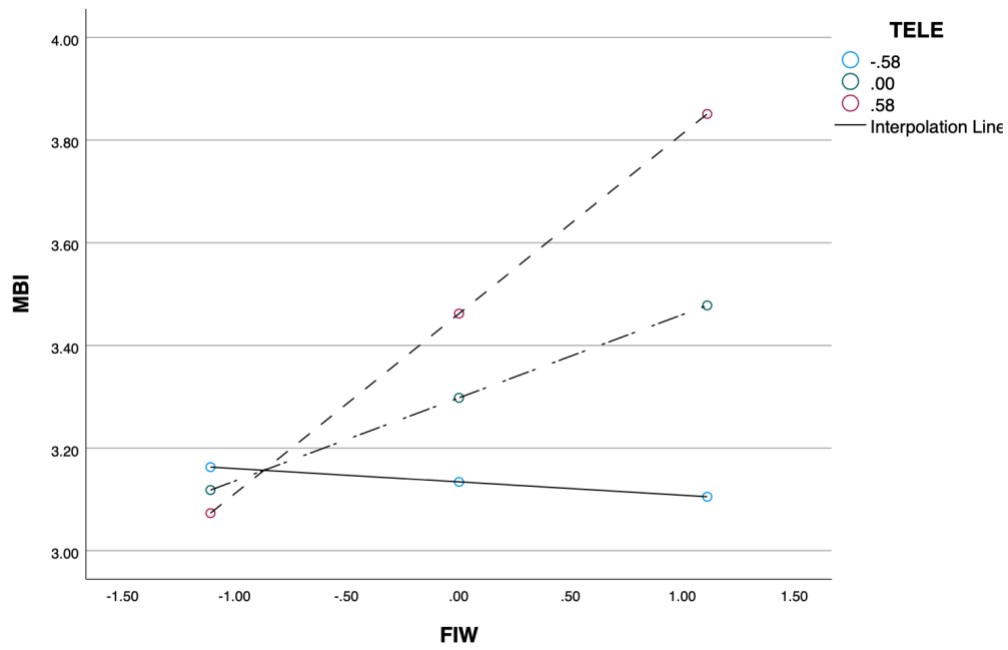


Figure 2. *Conditional Effects of Predicting Turnover Intentions as Moderated by Telework and Family Interference with Work (MTurk Sample)*

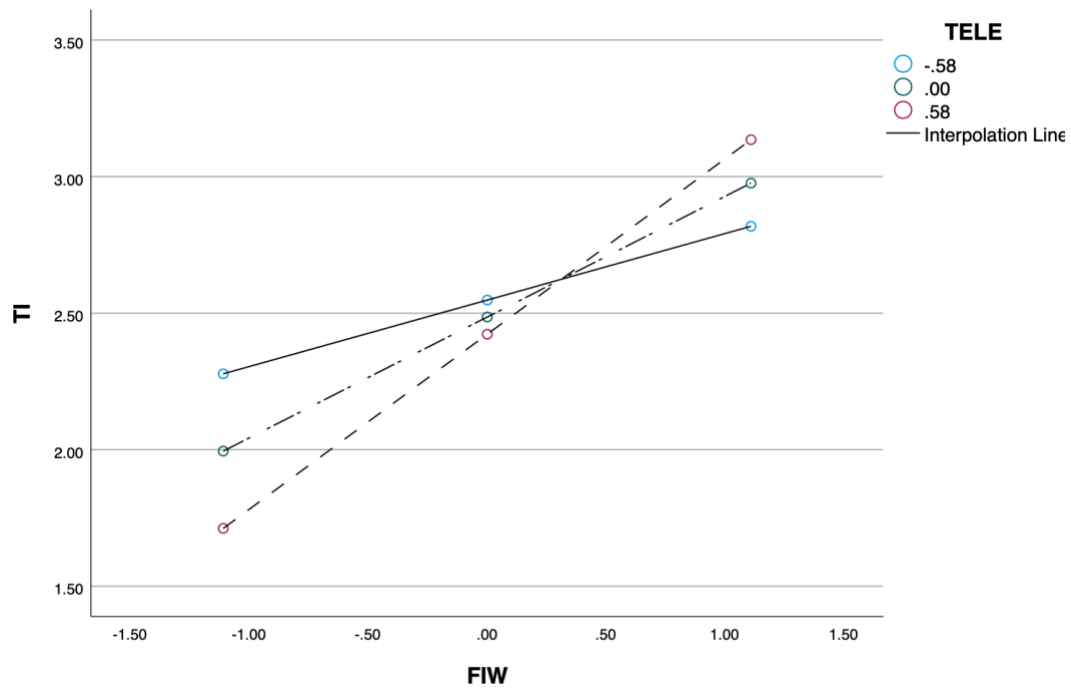


Figure 3. *Conditional Effects of Predicting Withholding Effort and Moderated by Telework and Family Interference with Work (MTURK Sample)*

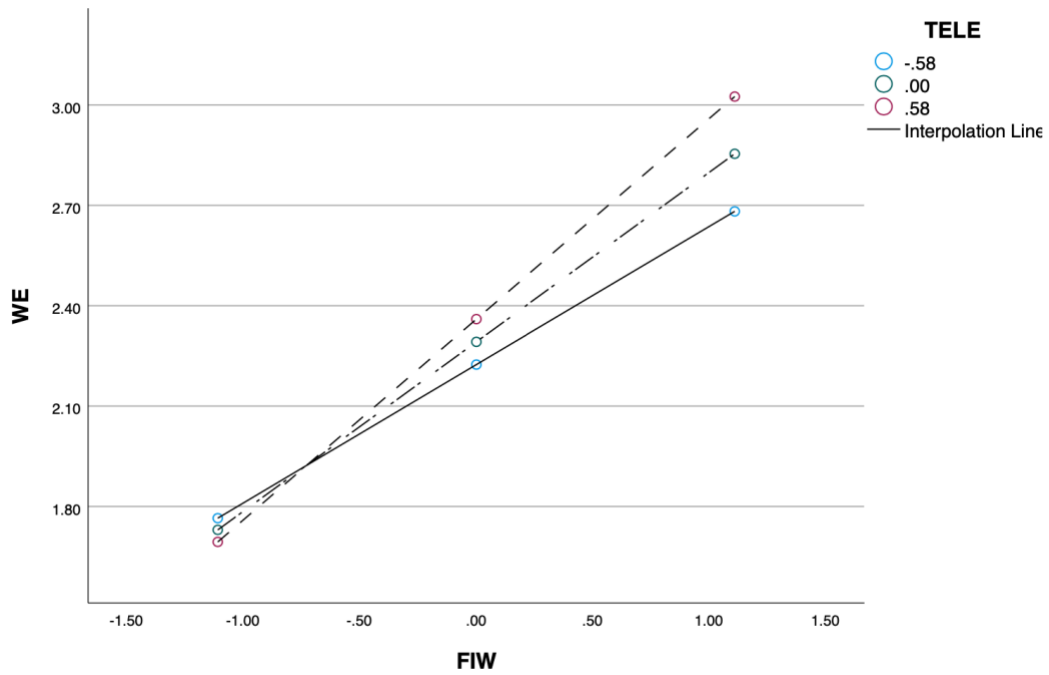
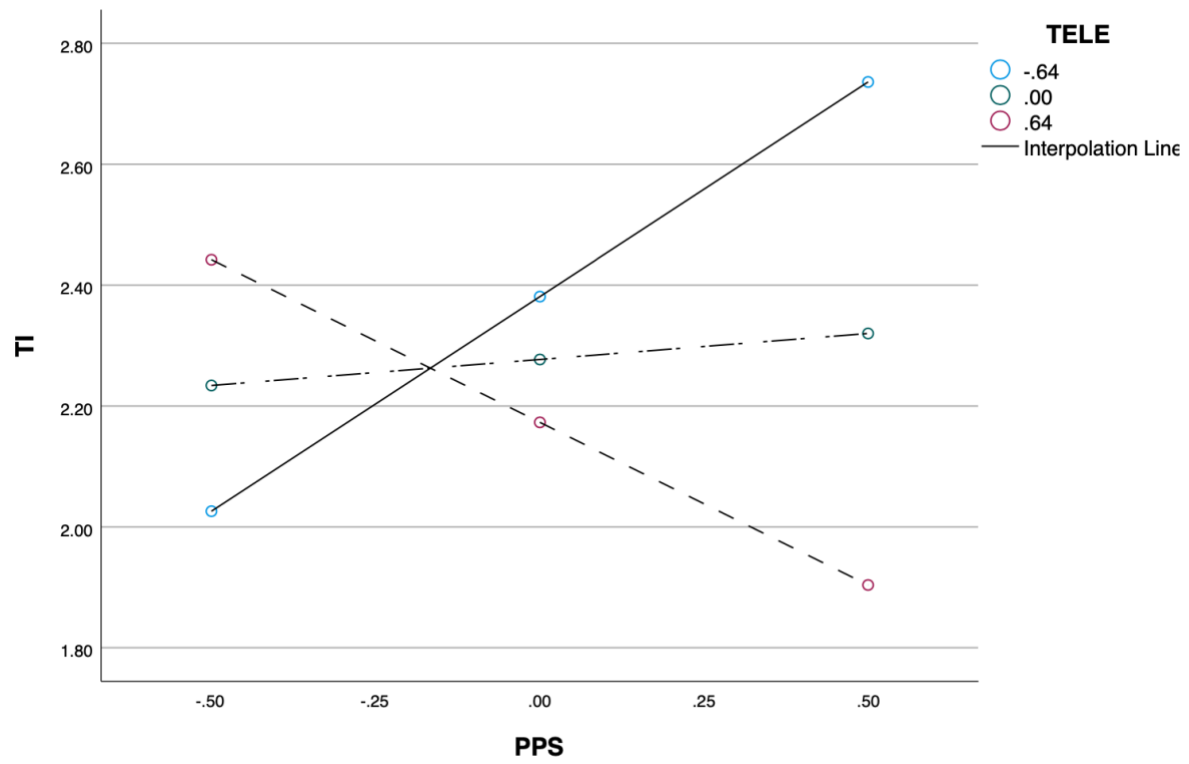


Figure 4. *Conditional Effects of Predicting Turnover Intentions as Moderated by Telework and Proactive Personality (Faculty Sample)*



APPENDIX B: IRB APPROVAL LETTER AND INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT



EAST CAROLINA UNIVERSITY
University & Medical Center Institutional Review Board
4N-64 Brody Medical Sciences Building · Mail Stop 682
600 Moye Boulevard · Greenville, NC 27834
Office 252-744-2914 · Fax 252-744-2284
rede.ecu.edu/umcirm/

Notification of Exempt Certification

From: Social/Behavioral IRB
To: [Lauren Scanlan](#)
CC: [Mark Bowler](#)
Date: 3/24/2020
Re: [UMCIRB 20-000548](#)
The Influence of Telework on Work-Life Balance and Burnout

I am pleased to inform you that your research submission has been certified as exempt on 3/23/2020. This study is eligible for Exempt Certification under category # 2a.

It is your responsibility to ensure that this research is conducted in the manner reported in your application and/or protocol, as well as being consistent with the ethical principles of the Belmont Report and your profession.

This research study does not require any additional interaction with the UMCIRB unless there are proposed changes to this study. Any change, prior to implementing that change, must be submitted to the UMCIRB for review and approval. The UMCIRB will determine if the change impacts the eligibility of the research for exempt status. If more substantive review is required, you will be notified within five business days.

Document	Description
ECU IPAR Email Script(0.02)	Recruitment Documents/Scripts
Scanlan Dissertation Consent Form [IPAR].docx(0.01)	Consent Forms
Scanlan Dissertation Consent Form [MTURK].docx(0.01)	Consent Forms
Scanlan Dissertation Measures [ECU] (IPAR).docx(0.01)	Surveys and Questionnaires
Scanlan Dissertation MTurk Items(0.01)	Surveys and Questionnaires
Scanlan Dissertation Proposal(0.01)	Study Protocol or Grant Application
Scanlan Telework Mturk Listing.docx(0.02)	Recruitment Documents/Scripts

For research studies where a waiver of HIPAA Authorization has been approved, each of the waiver criteria in 45 CFR 164.512(i)(2)(ii) has been met. Additionally, the elements of PHI to be collected as described in items 1 and 2 of the Application for Waiver of Authorization have been determined to be the minimal necessary for the specified research.

The Chairperson (or designee) does not have a potential for conflict of interest on this study.

