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PSYCHOLOGICAL DETACHMENT FROM WORK DURING OFF-JOB TIME: AN INTEGRATIVE STUDY

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PSYCHOLOGICAL DETACHMENT FROM WORK DURING OFF-JOB TIME

RESUMO

Estudos anteriores defendem o distanciamento psicológico como uma importante estratégia de recuperação, permitindo aos colaboradores recuperar de fatores indutivos de *stress* no trabalho. O distanciamento psicológico é definido como a capacidade de um indivíduo se desvincular mentalmente do trabalho enquanto fisicamente ausente do mesmo, com a particularidade de que o aumento da carga de trabalho dificulta o distanciamento psicológico. Neste sentido, o presente estudo examina uma visão que integra os efeitos de uma moderação de suporte do supervisor e uma mediação de *work engagement*. Esta mediação, por sua vez, é influenciada por conjuntos de efeitos indiretos de moderações de regulação emocional e neuroticismo, no distanciamento psicológico de um colaborador. Foi ainda examinado o *burnout* como resultado do distanciamento psicológico do trabalho. As hipóteses foram testadas num estudo transversal, com uma amostra de 546 colaboradores de uma organização de serviço público. A análise de múltiplas regressões mostrou que a carga de trabalho, o suporte do supervisor e *work engagement* são preditores significativos do distanciamento psicológico. Adicionalmente, o distanciamento psicológico é significativo na explicação do *burnout* nos colaboradores e diminui perante níveis elevados de *work engagement*. Por fim, no que diz respeito às implicações práticas, é crucial fornecer suporte adequado do supervisor, entender se se deve reduzir ou aumentar *work engagement*, e promover intervenções que facilitem o distanciamento dos colaboradores do trabalho.

Palavras-chave*: carga de trabalho, distanciamento psicológico, *work engagement*, *burnout*

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PSYCHOLOGICAL DETACHMENT FROM WORK DURING OFF-JOB TIME

ABSTRACT

Previous studies have perceived psychological detachment from work during off-job time as an important recovery strategy allowing employees to recover from job stressors. Psychological detachment is defined as an individual's sense of mentally disengaging from work while physically absent from it. Increasing levels of workload contribute to a lack of psychological detachment from work during off-job time. Therefore, this study examines an integrative view of how a moderation of supervisor support, and a mediation of work engagement – which in turn is influenced by indirect sets of effects of moderations of emotion regulation and neuroticism – help predict psychological detachment. In addition, we examine the outcome of burnout from employees' ability to psychologically detach from work. We tested our hypotheses in a cross-sectional study with a sample of 546 employees from a public service organization. Multiple regression analysis showed that workload, supervisor support, and work engagement were significant predictors of psychological detachment. Additionally, psychological detachment from work is significant to explain employee's burnout and it decreases in the presence of high levels of work engagement. Moreover, concerning practical implications, it is crucial to provide adequate supervisor support, carefully understand if it is imperative to reduce or increase work engagement, and promote interventions that facilitate employees' detachment from work.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

PD – Psychological detachment from work during off-job time

SS – Supervisor support

WE – Work engagement

ER – Emotion regulation

PSYCHOLOGICAL DETACHMENT FROM WORK DURING OFF-JOB TIME

INTRODUCTION

Due to the fast-paced economy we live in, companies feel the need to quickly adapt and adjust in order to compete in the global economy and survive within the market. To do this, they not only need to focus on the products or services they sell, but also on their workforce to help them achieve a competitive advantage (Kaya & Başkaya, 2016). For that reason, companies need to have willing and capable employees who can easily adapt to the demands of changing environments. However this constitutes a paradigm due to the emergence of another trend among modern day organizations: practices that promote healthy workplaces. And why is that? In fact, for many employees, work constitutes a major source of daily stress, since they are incessantly occupied with and focused on work-related issues to meet work and organizational demands and are thus unable to mentally disengage from work (Sonnentag, 2012). Every day, individuals spend resources to perform tasks at work and fulfil job demands (Singh, Burke & Boekhorst, 2016; van Hooff, Geurts, Kompier & Taris, 2007; Sonnentag, 2001). This depletion of resources brings consequences negative to well-being, which consequently affects on-the-job behaviour (e.g., performance), and compromises organizational goals (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015). Thus, there is an increasing need for employees to be able to recover while off work and unwind from job stressors, in order to be able to replenish resources and face daily job demands (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). Additionally, it is known that working conditions play an important role in health, and "when these are good, they can provide social protection, social status, personal development, social relations and self-esteem, protection from physical and psychosocial hazards, and positive health effects" (WHO, 2012: 3). Since employee health is a requirement for economic development, there is a keen imperative to preserve it (WHO, 2012). Therefore, the aim of this study will be to focus on one recovery experience from job stressors: *psychological detachment from work*.

Taking into account the importance of psychological detachment from work to an individual's well-being and organizational context (Medrano & Trógolo, 2018; Wendsche & Lohmann-Haislah, 2017; Shimazu, Matsudaira, de Jonge, Tosaka, Watanabe & Takahashi, 2016; Smit, 2016; Sonnentag, Unger & Nägel, 2013), this study intends to examine antecedents and outcomes of detachment through analysis of the effects of work characteristics (workload and supervisor support), and individual characteristics (work engagement, emotion regulation, and neuroticism) on psychological detachment from work, as well as investigate derived outcomes from a process of detachment.

The research model is divided in two parts: antecedents and outcomes. Regarding the first part of the research model (antecedents), we intend to see multiple relations: what is the relationship between workload and PD; what is the relationship between workload and PD if employees have support from their supervisor(s); what happens to the relationship between workload and PD if an employee is highly engaged with work; what happens to the relationship between workload and PD if an employee is highly engaged with work but at the same time is able to regulate emotions; and what is the impact on the relationship between workload and PD if, despite an employee being able to regulate emotions, is engaged with work and holds a neurotic personality. On the second part of the model (outcomes), we intend to analyse the following: what is the impact on burnout if an employee is able to psychologically detach from work during off-job time; and despite an employee's level of detachment from work, if it is highly engaged with work, what is the impact on burnout.

Consequently, the following research questions arose:
Question 1: What type of effects do work and individual characteristics have on psychological detachment from work during off-job time?
Question 2: What type of effect does psychological detachment from work during off-job time have on burnout?

The present study makes substantive contributions to the detachment literature. First, the revised definition of psychological detachment carried out in the context of this study, not only provides understandings of the concept through an overview of the phenomenon, but it also represents our challenge to extend the literature and seek other approaches that can help explain why employees are not able to detach from work during off-job time. Second, this study provides new theoretical insights that could lead to further theoretical and empirical research on psychological detachment from work. This study discloses complex effects from work characteristics (workload and supervisor support) and individual characteristics (work engagement, emotion regulation and neuroticism), which influence detachment. In addition to this, we also found it significant to include outcomes derived from a process of detachment. At the same time, the information provided by this study is important to help researchers in future studies with present contributions. Additionally, it is expected that the knowledge here provided will help make a bridge between management practices and research evidence. Thus, the present study constitutes an information resource for practitioners to use when making

decisions within an organizational context, and in order to develop and implement workplace interventions that facilitate psychological detachment from work.

This dissertation is divided into five chapters. In addition to the development of the hypotheses, the first chapter provides: a theoretical framework for the concept of psychological detachment; the concepts within the categories of work and individual characteristics that are crucial to explain detachment from work; and the concepts regarding the outcomes derived from a process of detachment. The second chapter presents the methodology adopted for this study, as well as a description of the sample and instruments used. The third chapter comprises the results, tests, and statistical analysis of the collected data. The fourth chapter provides a deeper discussion concerning the results and limitations of the study, and puts forward suggestions for future research. Finally, the fifth chapter closes this study with a final conclusion drawn from the research carried out.

CHAPTER I - LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1. Psychological detachment from work during off-job time

A growing body of researchers have provided extensive literature on psychological detachment from work during off-job time that persistently focuses on job demands (e.g., high workload), and how it negatively impacts psychological and physical health (e.g., psychosomatic complaints, burnout and stress), which in turn influences general well-being (e.g., at bedtime) and on-the-job behaviour (e.g., performance) (Wendsche & Lohmann-Haislah, 2017; Binnewies, Sonnentag & Mojza, 2009; van Hooff et al., 2007; Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2005; Sonnentag, 2003; Etzion, Eden & Lapidot, 1998). However, other research has started to focus on the positive effects of respite and recovery on individual well-being, mental health, work engagement, and proactive behaviour (Shimazu et al., 2016; Sonnentag, Mojza, Binnewies & Scholl, 2008; Sonnentag & Kruel, 2006; Sonnentag & Zijlstra, 2006; Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005; Sonnentag, 2003). The present study aims to analyse the interaction of some of the previous concepts and its effect on psychological detachment from work during off-job time, as well as the outcomes derived from a process of psychological detachment.

Etzion, Eden and Lapidot (1998), decided to study the effects of respite, as a way of "recharging one's batteries" (Etzion et al., 1998: 577), since it allowed individuals to get away from job stressors. In contrast to previous contributions on respite research, they decided to analyse the effect of time off work as a consequence of active military service, rather than time off during an individuals' annual vacation. The aim of this initial study was to understand the benefits of being away from work, for a certain period of time, mainly with regard to managing stress and preventing burnout. However, military service respite is not the same as vacation respite, despite the fact that both allow individuals to be away from work, therefore affording employees a break from job demands. In fact, service respite "often imposes a return to military discipline, diminished freedom, and readjustment to a lower status, as well as arduous physical exertion, long and inconvenient hours, and discommoding living conditions" (Etzion et al., 1998: 578), strains that are far from being induced on an ordinary vacation respite. Nevertheless, the men subjected to this research perceived this type of respite as having positive features, such as the opportunity to escape from daily routine and from work responsibilities. The majority were able to completely detach from work while on service respite, therefore leading researchers to conceptualize this behaviour as a "sense of detachment from work

routine" (Etzion et al., 1998: 579). Later, this concept was renamed and introduced in research as "psychological detachment from work during off-job time" (Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005: 393), managing to maintain its stability among researchers to this day.

However, it is important to bear in mind that psychological detachment from work during off-job time (henceforth psychological detachment), implies more than just being physically absent from the workplace; it is also necessary that employees have no connection with any work tasks outside office hours (Sonnentag et al., 2008; Sonnentag & Kruel, 2006). For example, answering work-related e-mails while at home precludes psychological detachment from work. In addition to this, it is also crucial to mentally disengage from work while off it by ceasing any thoughts related to work, and to stop ruminating on work-related issues (Sonnentag & Kruel, 2006). Overall, psychological detachment from work is not simply physically leaving work and going home or elsewhere during evenings or weekends, since nowadays, with the emergence of new ways of working and in the context of increasing work demands, employees feel obligated to finish work wherever they are (Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005). In addition to this, the rise in number and type of communication devices individuals are subject to nowadays, plays an important role in their not being able to detach from work while physically away from it, since such devices mean that employees are constantly available for work-related matters wherever they are (Wendsche & Lohmann-Haislah, 2017; Derks, Bakker, Peters & van Wingerden, 2016; Derks & Bakker, 2014; Derks, van Mierlo & Schmitz, 2014; Park, Fritz & Jex, 2011; Sonnentag, 2001; Etzion et al., 1998). Therefore, technological advances have blurred the line between work and non-work boundaries which hinders employees' recovery from work (Kinnunen, Rantanen, de Bloom, Mauno, Feldt & Korpela, 2016).

The periods an individual stays away from work in order to rest and regenerate resources are crucial not only to preserve well-being at work (Sonnentag, 2003; Sonnentag, 2001), but also to help decrease burnout and non-health related absenteeism after respite periods (Westman & Etzion, 2001; Etzion et al., 1998). To prevent depletion of resources, employees must take breaks by being temporarily absent from work demands (Sonnentag & Zijlstra, 2006). Resources can be seen as "objects, conditions, personal characteristics, or energies that have specific importance for the individual" (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2005: 187). In addition to longer periods of respite, employees can also take advantage of weekends as an opportunity to recover from job-related stressors. These periods away from work allow them to regain essential

resources, therefore resulting in a greater availability of resources when employees return to work, which in turn will benefit individual health and performance at the beginning of the working week (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2005). However, it is also important to take into account shorter periods off work, such as free evenings during a working week, because employees might not have had the chance to recover during the weekend because they may have had to carry out home-related chores (Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005; Sonnentag & Kruel, 2006). Nevertheless, it is not the amount of respite time that is determinant in the recovery process but the quality of such experience (Singh et al., 2016; Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2005; Etzion et al., 1998). Hereupon, time away from work is not only important to replenish resources, but also to gain and invest in new ones. However, if an employee has been exposed to job demands for a prolonged amount of time, the recovery experiences are sometimes not adequate, either in terms of time or quality and, in that case, there is a need for them to be involved in other experiences and activities (e.g., social activities) (van Hooff et al., 2007; Sonnentag, 2001).

When individuals allow themselves to fully disengage from work-related demands and embrace the relief that respite affords them, the consequent decrease in stress level and burnout will positively impact their return to work. Conversely, if an individual continues to be connected to work while absent from it, the positive effects from respite are buffered. Even so, the effects of respite disappear quickly after a return to work, hence the importance of additional forms of recovery (Sonnentag, 2003). Therefore, the term *recovery experiences* is used to denote the activities pursued by an individual when off work and which permit recovery to occur through the replenishment or acquisition of resources, thus preserving well-being over time (Singh et al., 2016; Sonnentag, Binnewies & Mojza, 2008; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007).

Recovery refers to the process whereby the physical and psychological strain caused by job demands are lessened or eliminated (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015). Recovery yields different experiences as part of a recovery process: psychological detachment from work, relaxation, mastery experiences, and control during leisure time (Sonnentag and Fritz; 2007). As previously stated, *psychological detachment* refers to the extent to which an individual physically and mentally disengages from work during leisure time, in order to be able to rest from job stressors that could be harmful to their physical and/or mental health. In addition, this experience of psychological detachment is seen as a strong indicator of recovery experience (Wendsche & Lohmann-Haislah, 2017; Shimazu et al., 2016; Sonnentag et al., 2013).

Relaxation refers to a process characterized by a state of low activation and positive affect (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). Physical and mental relaxation can be a result of either deliberate relaxation techniques (e.g., meditation), or unpremeditated uplifting experiences resulting from an individual's usual day (e.g., listening to music) (Kinnunen, Feldt, Siltaloppi & Sonnentag, 2011; Sonnentag et al., 2008). *Mastery* refers to experiences which allow individuals to challenge themselves to learn something new (e.g., learn a new language), thus requiring the investment of extra demands (Sonnentag et al., 2008; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). However, mastery is positively related to recovery, since it provides individuals with new resources that can be used to enhance skills or competencies to apply at work (Kinnunen et al., 2011; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). Finally, *control during leisure time*, which as the name implies refers to the control individuals have over which activities they are going to perform outside of the work context, as well as control over when and how these will occur (Kinnunen et al., 2011). Since this gives individuals a sense of control over life domains, it positively relates with life satisfaction (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007).

Our aim in this study was to focus on psychological detachment from work during off-job time as a recovery experience, since that is the theoretical framework that has been largely studied in the literature with respect to employees' job demands and outcomes, as well as individual characteristics (Wendsche & Lohmann-Haislah, 2017; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015). And since psychological detachment affords a better comprehension of the stressors and demands faced on a daily basis by employees at work, it will provide a useful guidance framework for a better understanding of why employees fail to detach from work during off-job time.

Having chosen to address psychological detachment, we are going to conduct a literature review of the important constructs and aspects of work characteristics, followed by individual characteristics, and conclude with a sub-section relative to outcomes of psychological detachment.

1.2. Work Characteristics

1.2.1. Workload and psychological detachment

Nowadays, employees are faced with high-demanding jobs and competitive work sets which imply both cognitive and emotional effort requiring constant strength to comply and

meet the expectations and goals of continuous organizational changes (Konze, Rivkin & Schmidt, 2017; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015). It is not sufficient that employees have plentiful knowledge and skills, since it is desirous that an employee be in a positive physical and mental state in order to have increasing levels of energy and engagement (Bakker, 2011). Besides, just because employees are energetic and engaged in the work they perform it does not follow that they work long hours every day or that they experience an enormous necessity to work (Sonnentag et al., 2008).

Although workload is often defined solely as the volume of work an employee has to deal with, the concept of workload is based on a greater complexity. Thus, workload should also be seen as the amount and level of difficulty of the work employees need to perform, which can be either reflected in the number of working hours, level of production, or cognitive demands required by the work (Bowling, Alarcon, Bragg & Hartman, 2015; Spector & Jex, 1998). Workload is a construct that includes both quantitative and qualitative dimensions (Bowling et al., 2015). However, in this study we will focus on quantitative workload rather than qualitative workload, since the first has made greater headway in the detachment literature (DeArmond, Matthews & Bunk, 2014). Quantitative workload is measured in terms of time pressure and volume: the amount of work an employee is required to perform in a certain period of time in a given task; while qualitative workload reflects the complexity of the work an employee is required to perform for a given quantitative workload (Glaser, Tatum, Nebeker, Sorenson & Aiello, 1999; Spector & Jex, 1998).

Previous studies have shown that higher levels of workload are associated with lower detachment from work during off-job time (DeArmond et al., 2014; Sonnentag, Kuttler & Fritz, 2010; Sonnentag et al., 2008; Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005). An employee with a heavy workload and responsibility for accomplishing tasks within a restricted amount of time, could perceive workload as a time pressure. In addition, workload makes employees feel overwhelmed by the tasks they need to accomplish and the short time they have to complete them, which sometimes leads them to taking work home in order to meet the demands of work. In addition to this, unfinished tasks can lead employees to think about ways to complete them before returning to work, therefore making it more difficult to psychologically detach from work (Sonnentag & Kruel, 2006). These increasing concerns impact employees' personal lives, since work 'invades' home, and the negative affect developed at work due to the amounts of workload extend to a non-work domain, since the affective states employees feel at work tend to persevere

when at home (Sonnentag et al., 2010; Ilies, Schwind, Wagner, Johnson & DeRue, 2007). This negative affect that is dragged into the personal sphere of the employee leads to rumination about work, thus making detachment from work harder, and recovery opportunities fewer (Sonnentag et al., 2013; Sonnentag et al., 2010; Taris, Geurts, Schaufeli, Blonk & Lagerveld, 2008).

H1: *Workload is negatively related to PD.*

1.2.2. The moderation role of supervisor support in the relationship between workload and psychological detachment

Bearing in mind the competitive world we live in, supervisors must take good care of their employees, more specifically, with regard to making sure that their employees are provided with the support they need to help them successfully achieve individual and collective organizational objectives (Yulk, 2012). Therefore, supervisors must be able to provide support, in other words "(…) encouraging cooperation and mutual trust and mediating conflicts among subordinates" (Yulk, 2012: 71). Supervisor support can be defined through employees' perceptions regarding the support and concern provided by their supervisors (Babin & Boles, 1996; Burke, Borucki & Hurley, 1992). However, within supervisor support there is a distinction to be made between being supportive and being controlling (Oldham & Cummings, 1996). Supportive supervision aims to focus on employees' feelings, encouraging them to speak about their concerns and contribute with feedback. It also involves acting as a career mentor through acknowledging the importance of training with regard to developing employees' skills and competencies (Bibi, Ahmad & Majid, 2018; Oldham & Cummings, 1996). Controlling supervision, on the other hand, is when employees are afforded less autonomy through monitoring their behaviour, where decisions are made without their involvement, and where the way they should behave, feel, and think is imposed on them (Oldham & Cummings, 1996). When supervisors act as organizational agents, meaning that they help others carry out their jobs in an efficient way and provide feedback, there will be a subsequent increase in productivity (Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). Furthermore, the role supervisors play in helping employees deal with stressful situations, through caring about their emotions and feelings, positively impacts employees' well-being (Oldham & Cummings, 1996; Deci & Ryan, 1987). Additionally, supervisor support positively impacts satisfaction, organizational commitment,

and decreases turnover intention (Bibi et al., 2018; Paustian-Underdahl, King, Rogelberg, Kulich & Gentry, 2017).

It has also been found that "although the majority of employees will respond positively to a supportive supervisor, workaholics may fail to recognize, or make use of, supervisor support" (Russo & Waters, 2006: 423). And although workaholic employees are not our focus in the present study, they reveal certain features that can help us correlate with key subjects of this study: workload and psychological detachment. Workaholics, being individuals who are motivated to work hard and excessively long hours, and are greatly concerned with and involved in their work, therefore lack the ability to detach from work in non-work environments (Andreassen, Ursin & Eriksen, 2007; Taris, Schaufeli & Verhoeven, 2005). By inference, and in contrast with workaholics, other employees who may be not obsessed with work but who nevertheless have a heavy workload, might perceive supervisor support as a positive work experience. Thus, the presence of supervisor support will help employees be better able to detach from work, despite increased levels of workload.

H2: SS moderates the impact of workload on PD, such that the negative relationship between workload and PD will be weaker when SS is higher.

1.3. Individual Characteristics

1.3.1. The mediation effect of work engagement in the relationship between workload and psychological detachment

Work engagement is a broad concept with diverse theoretical approaches and some common sense intuitions, especially from organizational leaders who believe that employee engagement is a desirable state that will help increase productivity (Macey & Schneider, 2008). Despite the concept of work engagement being characterized as a positive and persistent state, as opposed to something momentary (Schaufeli, Bakker & Salanova, 2006), an employee's work engagement can undergo fluctuations during the day (Sonnentag, 2003).

This concept, first defined as "personal engagement" (Kahn, 1990: 694) refers to engaged employees as the ones who "employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performance" (Kahn, 1990: 694). Similarly, work engagement can be analysed as "a role-based motivational concept" (Liao, Yang & Wang, 2013: 63), since it

provides insights into how an employee invests and allocates physical, psychological and emotional engagement, which is consequently expressed when the employee performs work-related tasks or roles (Liao et al., 2013). Kahn (1990) also defined personal engagement as the opposite of personal disengagement. Some researchers, however, do not entirely agree with the concept of disengagement, suggesting that it should be addressed as "non-engagement" or even burnout (Macey & Schneider, 2008). According to Macey and Schneider (2008), work engagement can be seen as a psychological state and measured in terms of job satisfaction: "individual's involvement and satisfaction with as well as enthusiasm for work" (Harter, Schmidt & Hayes, 2002: 269); organizational commitment: "positive attachment to the larger organizational entity and measured as a willingness to exert energy in support of the organization, to feel pride as an organizational member, and to have a personal identification with the organization" (Macey & Schneider, 2008: 9); psychological empowerment: "shape one's work role and context" (Macey & Schneider, 2008: 10); and job involvement "a state of involvement implies a positive and relatively complete state of engagement of core aspects of the self in the job" (Brown, 1996: 235). It can be also found conceptualizations of work engagement in terms of attitudes and behaviours, since engaged employees "have positive perceptions of the work environment, which leads them to a high internal motivational state (…). Employees who are highly motivated are more likely to engage in positive organizational behaviors such as exerting effort" (Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt & Barrick, 2004: 603). It is not unusual within organizations for some employees to be more engaged than others, therefore characterizing work engagement as applying "extra effort" (Macey & Schneider, 2008: 14) to fulfil job demands, or as an extra-role behaviour, thus distinguishing it as "going beyond the usual or typical" (Macey & Schneider, 2008: 19).

For the purpose of this study, the chosen framework conceptualizes work engagement as a "multidimensional construct defined as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication and absorption" (González-Romá, Schaufeli, Bakker & Lloret, 2006: 166). This choice relates to the recurrent use of this theoretical framework within the study of psychological detachment from work (Shimazu et al, 2016; ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012; Sonnentag, Mojza & Binnewies, 2010; Kühnel, Sonnentag & Westman, 2009; Sonnentag et al., 2008; Sonnentag, 2003). Levels of engagement can be measured using the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES), which comprises the three subscales of this definition of work engagement – vigour, dedication, and absorption (Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti & Xanthopoulou, 2007). *Vigour* is characterized by high levels of energy and mental resilience at work, thus constituting a source of persistence and achievement in

difficult moments. Similarly, *dedication* refers to the degree to which an employee is involved with work, experiencing states of enthusiasm and inspiration. *Absorption* concerns the degree to which employees are able to concentrate on their work, leading to a sensation of time passing quickly, but which will make detachment from work more difficult as a consequence (Sonnentag et al., 2008; Schaufeli et al., 2006).

However, being energetic, dedicated, and absorbed at work does not imply that an employee works long hours or has an intrinsic need to work, since work engagement and workaholism are different conceptions (Sonnentag et al., 2008). Engaged employees are immersed in their work, dedicating their efforts and resources to achieving work-related goals (Bakker, 2011). The fact that engaged employees devote a lot of time to work will lead to tiredness, however this feeling is perceived as a positive thing since individuals see it as a sign of accomplishment. Similarly, unlike workaholics, engaged employees work hard because they perceive work as fun and not from an inner drive to work long hours (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Schaufeli, Taris & van Rhenen, 2008).

One of the recovery processes, *psychological detachment from work*, not only proved to produce several positive outcomes in employees' well-being and health (e.g., Sonnentag et al., 2010), and their performance (e.g., Binnewies et al., 2009), but it also positively affected work engagement (Hülsheger, Feinholdt & Nübold, 2015). Similarly, if an employee who is engaged at work needs fewer resources to perform work-related tasks than another employee who has lower levels of work engagement, it means they will have more resources available during the work day and, therefore, fewer symptoms of strain and relatively high maintenance of recovery levels (Sonnentag et al., 2012). Nevertheless, the more an individual identifies and is involved in their job, the greater the effort dedicated to daily tasks. If an individual is high in work engagement, meaning that work has become central to their life, job identification will increase and they will be more dedicated to their work. When work assumes a core role in a person's life, leading to a continuous immersion in work-related tasks, it will become difficult for employees to detach from work at the end of a working day (Smit, 2016; Sonnentag, 2012; Sonnentag & Kruel, 2006). This has led researchers to attribute a causal relationship between work engagement and interferences with family life (Bakker et al, 2011; Halbesleben, Harvey & Bolino, 2009).

H3: *Work engagement mediates the impact of workload on PD.*

1.3.2. The moderation role of emotion regulation in the relationship between work engagement and psychological detachment

For many years, organizations were ruled by the idea that analytical competencies were enough per se to drive through a direction to high profits. Throughout that time, companies ignored employees' emotions as a way to explain the workplace phenomenon, since it was believed they would jeopardize the work environment and have a negative impact on judgement (Gopinath, 2011; Grandey, 2000). By neglecting the individual characteristics and skills of their employees, organizations passed over essential forecasters of individual and organizational outcomes (Schiopu, 2014; Arvey & Murphy, 1998). Since then, the study of emotions within an organizational context has raised interest among scholars (Gopinath, 2011), and research has played an important role in debunking the delusion that a rationale work environment is imperative and that an employee's value is mainly assessed by job performance, consequently leading to a better understanding of organizational behaviour and results. Employees being able to manage their emotions is vital if they want to comply with job expectations in such a way as to guarantee their source of livelihood (e.g., wage), hence its conceptualization as emotional labour (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983).

Emotional labour refers to "the appropriate emotional reactions of individuals (…) to feeling rules or norms that specify the range, intensity, duration, and object of emotions that should be experienced" (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993: 89). In an organizational context, employees feel many emotions, but the emotions expressed may be different from the ones felt, thus leading employees to engage in regulatory processes aiming at enhancing, faking or suppressing emotions (Grandey, 2000). Some organizations have already predefined display rules which serve as standards for the way their employees should express their emotions within the workplace and react to certain work-related events (Diefendorff, Croyle & Gosserand, 2005). These may be shaped by the organizational culture, as well as through formal policies and practices (e.g., selection process) (Diefendorff, Erickson, Grandey & Dahling, 2011). All of us express emotions at work, therefore the need to resort to emotional labour strategies. However, in some occupations, emotional labour is part of an employees' job description. Researchers identified two emotional labour strategies: surface acting and deep acting (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983). *Surface acting*, also referred to as "faking in bad faith" (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987: 32), occurs when employees express emotional displays that do not correspond to their true feelings. This is done as a way of complying with the demands of the

job by resorting to verbal and nonverbal communication (e.g., facial expression and voice tone) (Humphrey, Ashforth & Diefendorff, 2015; Grandey, 2000; Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). For example, in contrast to nurses, who must display positive emotions towards patients in order to act empathetically and in a supportive manner (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993), policemen should display negative emotions in order to evoke fear in others and impose authority. On the other hand, *deep acting*, also referred to as "faking in good faith" (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987: 32), is used when employees want to seem authentic and actually try to feel the emotions they want to display, so they engage in thoughts and activities that will help induce, suppress or shape the desired emotions (Humphrey et al., 2015; Grandey, 2003). For example, flight attendants must engage and display positive emotions towards customers, such as act calmly and in a friendly manner, even if they feel anger towards a bothersome passenger on a flight (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Surface acting can lead to reduced well-being, resource depletion, burnout, and emotional dissonance, due to the fact that an employee is trying to hide or fake true emotions, therefore putting a lot of effort and resources into accomplishing that (Humphrey et al., 2015; Grandey, Foo, Groth & Goodwin, 2012; Judge, Woolf & Hurst, 2009). Deep acting, being a strategy whereby employees try to actually feel the desired emotions positively associates with job satisfaction, and increases feelings of authenticity, personal accomplishment and autonomy, which may even lead to a growth in intrinsic motivation (Humphrey et al., 2015; Yagil, 2012; Judge et al., 2009).

Despite the existence of several models in the literature, "the processes of surface acting (managing observable expressions) and deep acting (managing feelings) match the working definition of emotional labor as a process of emotion regulation" (Grandey, 2000: 97), suggesting, therefore, that these strategies should be brought into emotion regulation theory. This means that, when employees are able to regulate the cognitions that define emotions, they are able to control the appropriate emotional displays necessary for work, thus crossing the bridge from emotional labour to emotion regulation. Thus, and taking into account the definition of emotion regulation as "the processes by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions" (Gross, 1998: 275), it supports a suitable framework for emotional labour. Broadly, emotion regulation can be viewed as two distinct types of emotion regulation strategies: *antecedent-focused strategies*, which "refer to things we do before the emotion response tendencies have become fully activated and have changed our behavior and peripheral physiological responding"; and *response-focused strategies*, which "refer to things we do once an emotion is already underway, after the response tendencies have already been generated"

(Gross & John, 2003: 348). These two types of emotion regulation strategies correspond to the two emotional labour strategies of surface and deep acting (Grandey, 2000). Antecedent-focused strategies (deep acting), occur early in the emotion-generative process, meaning an employee looks to modify the situation, in order to regulate and adjust their emotional responses (Yagil, 2012; Grandey, 2000). Likewise, when engaging in deep acting strategies, employees look to modify true feelings to correspond to the required displays (Schreurs, Guenter, Hülsheger & van Emmerik, 2014). Contrarily, response-focused strategies (surface acting), occur later in the emotion-generative process, leading employees to only try to influence emotional responses by modifying emotional expressions without changing what they feel, since the emotion has already been generated (Schreurs et al., 2014; Yagil, 2012). Similarly to surface acting, employees manipulate the way they display emotions as a reaction to a specific situation (Grandey, 2000). Moreover, the processes through which emotion regulation occur can be either automatic or controlled, and even conscious or unconscious (Aldao, Nolen-Hoeksema & Schweizer, 2010; Mauss, Bunge & Gross, 2007). Lastly, extensive literature has contributed with outcomes derived from the distress of not being able to effectively regulate one's emotions, such as in cases of depression, anxiety, eating and substance-related disorders (e.g., Aldao et al., 2010), burnout, turnover, and job dissatisfaction (e.g., Grandey, 2000).

The choice of Gross' theoretical framework (1998), results from its up-to-date significance and its recurrent use in research (Webb, Miles & Sheeran, 2012). However, for this study we opted for Diefendorff, Croyle and Gosserand (2005) scale to measure emotional labour strategy items, instead of the Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ) from Gross and John (2003). ERQ focuses on assessing individual differences through two emotion regulation strategies: cognitive reappraisal (which includes situation selection, situation modification, attentional deployment, and cognitive change), and expressive suppression (which includes response modulation); which at a broadest level correspond to antecedent-focused strategy and response-focused strategy, respectively (Gross & John, 2003). This means that ERQ focus on very specific regulation strategies, while there was no interest in it; the aim was to assess the two big regulatory strategies of surface and deep acting.

Despite the lack of evidence concerning the relationship between work engagement and emotion regulation in the literature, it has been found that work engagement and deep acting are positively related, since this regulatory strategy involves an employee's intention to change their emotions in order to be authentic, therefore increasing employees' work engagement (Johnson, Machowski, Holdsworth, Kern & Zapf, 2017; Schreurs et al., 2014). As seen in a

previous sub-section, one of the theoretical frameworks of work engagement is to perceive it as the opposite of burnout. In this sense, it is pertinent to say that, taking into consideration the nature of surface acting – a regulatory strategy that intends to display fake emotions, it is expected that it positively relates to burnout (Yagil, 2012), which in turn will negatively affect work engagement. Deep acting, on the other hand, increases work engagement since it buffers the negative and hostile impact of surface acting whilst contributing to growth, allowing the experience of positive emotions, increasing sense of self-efficacy, and enhancing motivation (Yagil, 2012).

Similarly, little attention has been devoted to the relationship between emotion regulation and psychological detachment from work. Emotional dissonance, however, characterized as a negative state arising from the discrepancy between emotions felt and emotions expressed (Grandey, 2000; Abraham, 1998), will hinder an employee's detachment from work, since "emotional dissonance will be associated with a subsequent feeling that one has not functioned optimally in a social encounter with a person seeking help or advice" (Sonnentag et al., 2010: 356). Essentially, the fact that an employee has to fake or induce emotions leads to a sense of unfulfilled work, due to the incapability of delivering an authentic service. This, in turn, impacts detachment from work, since the employee continues to think and ruminate about the social encounter that was not optimally controlled (Sonnentag et al., 2010). According to Hochschild (1983), being involved in regulatory strategies that force employees to manage emotions requires effort, therefore implying prejudicial consequences for employees, since it is a source of job stress. The fact that employees being obligated to put on a fake smile while dealing with difficult customers can induce burnout and job stress (Grandey, 2000), emphasizing the importance of psychological detachment from work during off-job time. If an employee is not able to detach from work after being exposed to situations of faking or suppressing emotions within stressful and difficult customer-related interactions, the energy and resources spent will not be replenished.

H4: *The extent to which WE accounts for the association between workload and PD it is expected to be conditional upon levels of ER, such that the negative relationship between WE and PD will be weaker when ER is higher.*

1.3.3. The moderation role of neuroticism in the relationship between emotion regulation and work engagement

The concept of neuroticism originates from the personality psychology field. This later came to be studied by several scholars with different approaches, which consequently brought multiple theoretical perspectives (John & Srivastava, 1999; McAdams, 1995; John, Hampson & Goldberg, 1991). Personality traits have triggered a lot of studies, and have thus received a lot of attention and contributed much to the literature. However, within personality psychology, the number of personality traits, scales and assessment has intensified, which has led to a phenomenon where there were scales in the literature that, at first sight, should measure the same behavioural concepts, since the scales were labelled equally, but that in fact were measuring different concepts. At the same time, there were scales that allegedly were different but which measured the same behavioural concepts (John & Srivastava, 1999; John et al., 1991). The solution to this dichotomy was reached by establishing a taxonomy that "would permit researchers to study specified domains of personality characteristics, rather than examining separately the thousands of particular attributes that make human beings individual and unique" (John & Srivastava, 1999: 102). By narrowing categories through the grouping of traits into subsets, each category related to the same aspect of personality (Hampson, John & Goldberg, 1986), therefore avoiding diversity of concepts by assuming cross-situational consistency (Kendrick & Funder, 1988).

Allport and Odbert (1936) conducted a study in order to find terms that would make it possible to "identify dynamic mental structures and sub-structures (habits, needs, sentiments, attitudes, or traits) and to name them" (Allport & Odbert, 1936: v). However, the upshot of their work was an extensive list of nearly 18,000 terms characterizing personal behaviour and personality, from which 4,500 were characterized as stable traits. Cattell (1943) used these stable terms and managed to whittle them down to end up with only 35 variables. Later, his work was used in different studies by several scholars who reanalysed correlations, subsequently leading Goldberg (1991) to reach five clusters of traits representing personality, denominated as the "Big Five". Despite the massive reduction of traits along time, this model intends to reflect the essential aspects of personality, since "the use of the same trait-name applied to any two different individuals signifies merely that the dispositions of both fall within a range of comparable judgements" (Allport & Odbert, 1936: 20), meaning that despite the

condensed dimensions typifying personality, they aggregate a great number of different characteristics (Judge, Heller & Mount, 2002; John & Srivastava, 1999).

As a result of decades of study and investigation, scholars reached a consensus and the personality psychology field received a general taxonomy of personality traits; more specifically, a five-factor model of personality designated the "Big Five" (Judge et al., 2002; John & Srivastava, 1999; Feist, 1998; Goldberg, 1990). The model, as the name indicates, comprises five personality dimensions: (1) *extraversion* - a dimension divided into two sub-factors - sociability and confidence (Feist, 1998), and is associated with positive emotions (Judge et al., 2002); (2) *agreeableness* - where individuals are tolerant, flexible, generous and courteous, and predisposed to coping with conflict in a cooperative way (Witt, Burke, Barrick & Mount, 2002), kind, considerate, likeable and helpful (Graziano & Eisenberg, 1997); (3) *conscientiousness* - individuals who are organized, disciplined and methodical (Witt et al., 2002), therefore constituting productive employees and contributing to the health of organizations (Hogan & Ones, 1997); (4) *emotional stability vs neuroticism* - dimensions opposite from one another, where neuroticism pertains to individuals who tend to experience negative events (Judge et al., 2002); (5) *openness to experience* - a dimension characterized by an artistic vein and a scientific orientation (McCrae & Costa, 1997), low religiosity, and where individuals give a lot of thought to new ideas (Judge et al., 2002).

As mentioned earlier, individuals with different personality traits tend to react differently to the same situation. Employees who present higher levels of neuroticism tend to be moody, tense and insecure. This hinders their adjustment to the social environment and leads them to report lower levels of supervisor and co-worker support (Liao et al., 2013). Also, neurotic employees tend to identify their workplace as threatening, consequently leading to a decrease in performance (Langelaan, Bakker, van Doornen & Schaufeli, 2006). In contrast to individuals who present high levels of neuroticism, individuals high on emotional stability tend to achieve more beneficial outcomes, since they assume central roles in social groups within the workplace, therefore constituting a positive interpersonal context that enables them to exchange resources and feedback with other people, as well as to engage in their work (Liao et al., 2013). In addition, they tend to cope better with any problems they may encounter on the way to reach their desired goals (Scheier, Carver & Bridges, 1994). Having a goal, therefore, positively affects performance in the sense that those individuals with greater motivational stability will be more motivated to achieve goals and be more engaged in work-related tasks

(Tamir, 2005; Shah, Higgins & Friedman, 1998). Contrastingly, neurotic individuals are more disposed towards experiencing workload and exhaustion in a different way from individuals high on emotional stability, as well as towards experiencing emotions that will constitute a distraction from work-related tasks, thus decreasing their engagement (Bolger, 1990). Taking into account previous research that negatively relates neuroticism and work engagement, we can say that a neurotic employee will produce poorer outcomes and be less engaged in the tasks they perform.

Neuroticism is a personality trait in which an individual has a propensity to experience negative affect, which consequently can lead to emotional disorders (e.g., depression) and emotion dysregulation (Siyaguna, Myhre, Saxton & Rokke, 2017). This means that individuals who score highly for neuroticism have more difficulty with self-regulation and in being optimistic and, therefore, are more likely to experience negative emotions and stressors, such as feeling depressed and anxious, experiencing embarrassment, feeling insecure, angry and worry (Barrick & Mount, 1991). At the same time, neurotic individuals tend to find difficulty in being aware of feelings and desires, unless those feelings stem from reactions to fear and anger that individuals perceive as a threat (Horney, 1945). Individuals high in neuroticism have more difficulty maintaining emotional stability and, therefore, are more susceptible to developing mental disorders. Indeed, researchers have pointed out that individual differences concerning disease and well-being are linked to personality (Bolger & Schilling, 1991; Friedman, 1990). Thus, in order to understand how people interact with others, it is important to take into account the ability of individuals with different individual characteristics to regulate their emotions (Grandey, 2000). The effectiveness of social interactions can be influenced by several factors, one of them being personality traits (Kiffin-Petersen, Jordan & Soutar, 2011; Judge et al., 2009; Lopes, Salovey, Côté & Beers, 2005). Individuals who have different personality dimensions differ in the way they use emotion regulation strategies, which in turn will produce different affects (Wang, Shi & Li, 2009). Individuals high in neuroticism are more focused on negative emotions and respond to stressors with negative affect and, therefore, have difficulty changing their feelings (Kiffin-Petersen et al., 2011), which might be the reason why neuroticism is a significant predictor of surface acting (Diefendorff et al., 2005; Gross & John, 2003), but is negatively correlated with deep acting (Humphrey et al., 2015). In fact, individuals high on neuroticism tend to experience emotions actively and respond to them, especially if they are negative (Yoon, Maltby & Joormann, 2013). However, there are more efficient strategies for regulating negative emotions; meaning that, even if a person presents high levels

of neuroticism and, therefore, a tendency to experience negative affect, if emotions are well regulated, it does not necessarily imply that the experience will produce a negative mood (Yoon et al., 2013).

Lastly, Wendsche and Lohmann-Haislah (2017) analysed the impact of job resources and job demands on psychological detachment from work, pointing out that the first is linked to social support, feedback and autonomy, whereas job demands concern work pressure, emotional demands and role ambiguity. Despite the fact that job demands do not necessarily imply negative effects, they can turn into job stressors if they require a lot of effort from employees who have not adequately recovered (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Hereupon, some research present neuroticism as a vital characteristic to determine an individual's potential for recovery (Wendsche & Lohmann-Haislah, 2017).

H5: *The indirect effect of workload on PD through WE likely depends on an individual's ER. Additionally, considering the influence of neuroticism on ER, varying levels of neuroticism might alter this moderation of ER on the final link in the serial mediation model from WE to PD.*

1.4. Outcomes

1.4.1. Psychological detachment and burnout

The concept of burnout was primarily presented by Herbert Freudenberger (1974), within the scope of the free-clinical movement emergent from the late 1960s and 1970s. He noticed, not only with regard to the work he performed, but also by analysing the job of his employees, that physical and emotional interaction with clients and co-workers was reducing employees' motivation and sense of commitment and leading them to burnout (Poghosyan, 2018; Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001). A few years later, Maslach defined burnout as "a psychological syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who work with other people in some capacity" (Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1996: 192), which became the most popular description used in the literature to refer to this phenomenon. The increased popularity of the burnout concept led many scholars to start discussing it and to carry out research in order to make helpful contributions to the literature. However, burnout literature focused mainly on this syndrome within the human service professions (e.g., nurses, teachers and social workers), since they

involve closer contact with people in need, suffering from any physical, psychological or social difficulty (Maslach et al., 2001; Jackson & Maslach, 1982). The aim of targeting these professionals was to find ways to help them avoid emotional strain, since the very performance of their jobs meant they are exposed on a daily basis to emotional and interpersonal stressors. However, it is important to mention that contemplating burnout only with regard to the human services and health care is, per se, a disadvantage of the burnout construct, since it does not take into consideration other occupations (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). In the 1990s, however, burnout was broadened to contemplate other occupations besides the human service professions (e.g., clerical, computer technology, military, and managers) (Maslach et al., 2001).

In the 1980s, the concept started to put down empirical roots with the development of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), by Maslach and Jackson (1981). In our study we opted for the Copenhagen Burnout Inventory (CBI) rather than the MBI, since the latter has significant limitations. These are: it is highly focused on assessing levels of burnout among employees who only perform human service work; the concept of burnout is defined as comprising three dimensions that occur simultaneously but the MBI measures those dimensions separately, which in terms of analyses results in having the same employee with three different levels of burnout; MBI questionnaires only appear in scientific journal, since they are administrated by a commercial company and as such are not available to the general public (Kristensen, Borritz, Villadsen & Christensen, 2005; Schutte et al., 2000). In addition to this, in contrary to the MBI, the CBI assesses burnout through three different dimensions, such as personal burnout, work-related burnout, and client-related burnout, therefore it is able to aggregate a higher spectrum of domains and apply them to other occupational groups (Kristensen et al., 2005).

Burnout has been conceptualized as a three-dimensional psychological syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization (cynicism), and reduced personal accomplishment (reduced efficacy) (Purvanova & Muros, 2010; Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá & Bakker, 2002; Maslach et al., 2001; Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Maslach et al., 1996). While individuals continue to spend resources on a daily basis and are not able to replenish them, they will feel *emotionally exhausted* as their emotional and physical resources become overloaded and depleted thus rendering them incapable of complying with demands (Maslach et al., 2001; Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Maslach & Jackson, 1981). In fact, individuals who experience burnout often describe it as a feeling of exhaustion, hence the reason this dimension is the most analysed

as it is the most reported one. Nevertheless, and despite emotional exhaustion being an indispensable criterion for burnout, it is not enough to assess levels of burnout as it does not consider the relationship employees have with their work (Maslach et al., 2001). *Depersonalization* occurs when an employee adopts a strategy of disengaging from work objects and work content, mainly through the development of negative, indifferent and cynical attitudes and feelings towards customers or work colleagues (Purvanova & Muros, 2010; Bakker, Demerouti & Verbeke, 2004; Maslach et al., 2001; Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Some argue that this is a form of defensive coping (Lee & Ashforth, 1996) resulting from the emotional exhaustion experienced by employees (Maslach et al., 2001; Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach et al., 1996). *Reduced personal accomplishment* relates to a tendency among employees to perceive and evaluate themselves negatively as far as customers or colleagues' work-related interactions are concerned, inducing feelings of inefficacy and dissatisfaction with their work (Maslach et al., 1996; Maslach & Jackson, 1981). It would appear that the sense of reduced personal accomplishment arises from emotional exhaustion (due to lack of resources) and distance created between the employee and other people (due to the social conflict it creates) (Maslach et al., 2001) but in fact, "it becomes increasingly clear from studies with the original MBI that personal accomplishment develops largely independent from the other two burnout dimensions" (Purvanova & Muros, 2010; Schutte, Toppinen, Kalimo & Schaufeli, 2000: 55).

At an organizational level, this phenomenon of work-induced strain leads to employee turnover, increases levels of absenteeism, affects employees' morale, and decreases job performance (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998; Parker & Kulik, 1995; Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Jackson & Maslach, 1982; Maslach & Jackson, 1981). The link between burnout and poor well-being is used as an argument to develop well-being programs in the workplace, since it is seen as a form of job stress, causing repercussions on physical health (e.g., coronary heart disease), health-related behaviours (e.g., drugs and alcohol abuse), and mental health (e.g., depression) (Alarcon, Eschleman & Bowling, 2009; Maslach, 2001; Brenninkmeyer, van Yperen & Buunk, 2001; Maslach et al., 1996; Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

With burnout characterized by emotional exhaustion, employees' motivation decreases and they lack the energy to perform work-related tasks. Also, reduced personal accomplishment induces negative emotions and feelings in employees, who continue on in a vicious circle and, not resorting to any form of support, consequently perform in an inefficient way. At the same

time, burnout decreases employees' self-confidence and with this their ability to have control over work-related problems, therefore negatively affecting productivity (Bakker et al., 2004; Wright & Cropanzano, 1998; Singh, Goolsby & Rhoads, 1994). On the other hand, depersonalization, the other dimension of burnout, makes us think about the psychological distance employees create to secure themselves from the requirements of their jobs, by resorting to cynicism and disengagement. The fact that employees psychologically distance themselves from work is not necessarily negative because it allows them to create a distance from demands and avoid a negative impact on their family life. The problem is when employees disengage while at work, resulting in the undesirable outcomes mentioned previously (e.g., performance), since resources are not being fully applied. Therefore, and in order to not compromise both one's family and one's job, and to preserve well-being, employees must distance themselves from work during off-job time (Sonnentag, 2005; Jackson & Maslach, 1982).

Recurrent evidence suggest that psychological detachment, as a recovery strategy, enables employees to replenish resources after being exposed to job demands, which therefore accounts for numerous advantages for employees' physical and psychological health (Wendsche & Lohmann-Haislah, 2017; Shimazu et al., 2016; Sonnentag & Kruel, 2006; Sonnentag, 2003). As previously mentioned, Etzion, Eden and Lapidot (1998) coined the term that attributed a positive relationship between respite and burnout: "sense of detachment from work routine". Their research provided useful insights regarding negative outcomes of employees' inability to take a break from work demands. After, several research continuously focused on burnout has a negative consequence of individuals weaker psychological detachment (e.g., Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015). This means that, continued rumination and preoccupation with work while off-job time depletes employees' resources and leads to burnout (Sonnentag, Mojza & Binnewies, 2010). Therefore, employees must guarantee that they are able to psychologically detach from work in order to avoid burnout.

H6: *PD positively relates with burnout.*

1.4.2. The mediation effect of work engagement in the relationship between psychological detachment and burnout

Work engagement, as previously mentioned, it is a complex concept which involves several theoretical approaches. The literature took a path that analysed burnout and work engagement as opposites, therefore conjecturing a negative relation between the two constructs.

(Schaufeli et al., 2002; Maslach et al., 2001; Maslach and Leiter, 1997). It was defended that "burnout researchers have proposed that the conceptual opposites of emotional exhaustion and cynicism (the core dimensions of burnout) are vigor and dedication (the core dimensions of engagement), respectively" (González-Romá et al., 2006: 165). Moreover, burnout was conceptualized as an erosion of work engagement, since "energy turns into exhaustion, involvement turns into cynicism, and efficacy turns into ineffectiveness" (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001: 416). However, other research points out the difference between reduced efficacy (dimension of burnout) and absorption (dimension of work engagement), stating that, in contrast with previously mentioned dimensions, these two are not direct opposites, since they are "conceptually distinct" (Schaufeli et al., 2002: 74). Nevertheless, engaged employees feel more energetic and tend to be more effective at work and are, therefore, better able to comply with job demands. Additionally, they perceive work as challenging, in contrast to those experiencing burnout who view work as being stressful and demanding (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter & Taris, 2008).

It was also previously presented the review for psychological detachment as a result of work engagement. However, now the aim is to introduce the inverse relationship: work engagement as a result of psychological detachment. Psychological detachment is responsible for increasing work engagement, which is understandable since detachment from work ameliorates work-related strains and contributes to replenishing resources. This affords employees more energy and resources to engage in activities and thoughts that will be beneficial on their return to work (Shimazu et al., 2016; Sonnentag et al., 2010). *Recovery* can be defined as "the process during which an individual's functioning returns to its prestressor level and in which strain is reduced" (Kinnunen et al., 2011: 806), and since it constitutes an after-work strategy, it helps employees to replenish resources and increase energy levels. In this way, they can avoid putting in extra effort at work to perform their usual tasks, and avoiding a reduction in levels of work engagement (Sonnentag et al., 2010). The lack of recovery can negatively impact employees (e.g., emotional exhaustion) and organizations (e.g., absenteeism and turnover intention) (Singh et al., 2016; Giebels & Janssen, 2005). Consequently, and since job resources are vital with regard to helping employees achieve goals, it positively relates to recovery from work and, therefore, helps employees to psychological detach from work. This, in turn, increases work engagement and well-being (Singh et al., 2016; Sonnentag et al., 2010). For that reason, recovery assumes an important role as it produces positive effects on (1) *vigour*, in the sense that, recovered employees are more eager to complete work-related tasks with less

effort, and can commit to dealing with any stressful situations they may encounter; (2) *dedication*, in that recovered employees will have more resources to apply in work, thus making them more dedicated to job demands; and (3) *absorption*, since recovered employees will be better able to fully concentrate and be immersed in their work (Sonnentag, 2003). Variations in an employee's levels of work engagement can be explained by being recovered in the morning, with restored personal resources (e.g., energy) and job resources needed for work (Kühnel, Sonnentag & Bledow, 2012). Accordingly, high levels of recovery are associated with high levels of work engagement, since an employee who is fully recovered has available resources that ensure a greater likelihood of that employee being energetic, enthusiastic and persistent while at work (Sonnentag, Mojza, Demerouti & Bakker, 2012). Moreover, and since work engagement is negatively related to job stressors, it is essential that an employee engage in recovery activities to be able to replenish resources. It has been found, however, that active leisure activities are not always sufficient for recovery (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). If an employee feels overwhelmed by the demands of the work, it is vital to psychologically detach from work during leisure time in order to buffer the negative effects of stressors. Yet, for some employees, engaging in recovery activities does not afford rest from the high effort cost of work, especially if such activities do not require the same high effort investment as work activities (van Hooff et al., 2007). Shimazu et al. (2016) found a curvilinear relation between psychological detachment and work engagement, meaning that low and high levels of psychological detachment will lead to low levels of work engagement, whereas moderate levels of psychological detachment will result in high levels of work engagement. However, recovered employees will feel more energised, considering that, as a recovery strategy, psychological detachment allows employees to recharge energy and replenish resources for the next working day (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007), but they might not be necessarily more engaged, since engagement requires not only energy but also an involvement with work and the dedication to apply that energy at work (Bakker, Albrecht & Leiter, 2011). Therefore, psychologically detaching from work may be helpful with regard to recharging energetic resources but it does not imply a causal relationship wherein employees' engagement would be increased the following working day (Medrano & Trógolo, 2018).

H7: *Work engagement mediates the impact of PD on burnout.*

1.5. Research Model

Figure 1 - Research Model
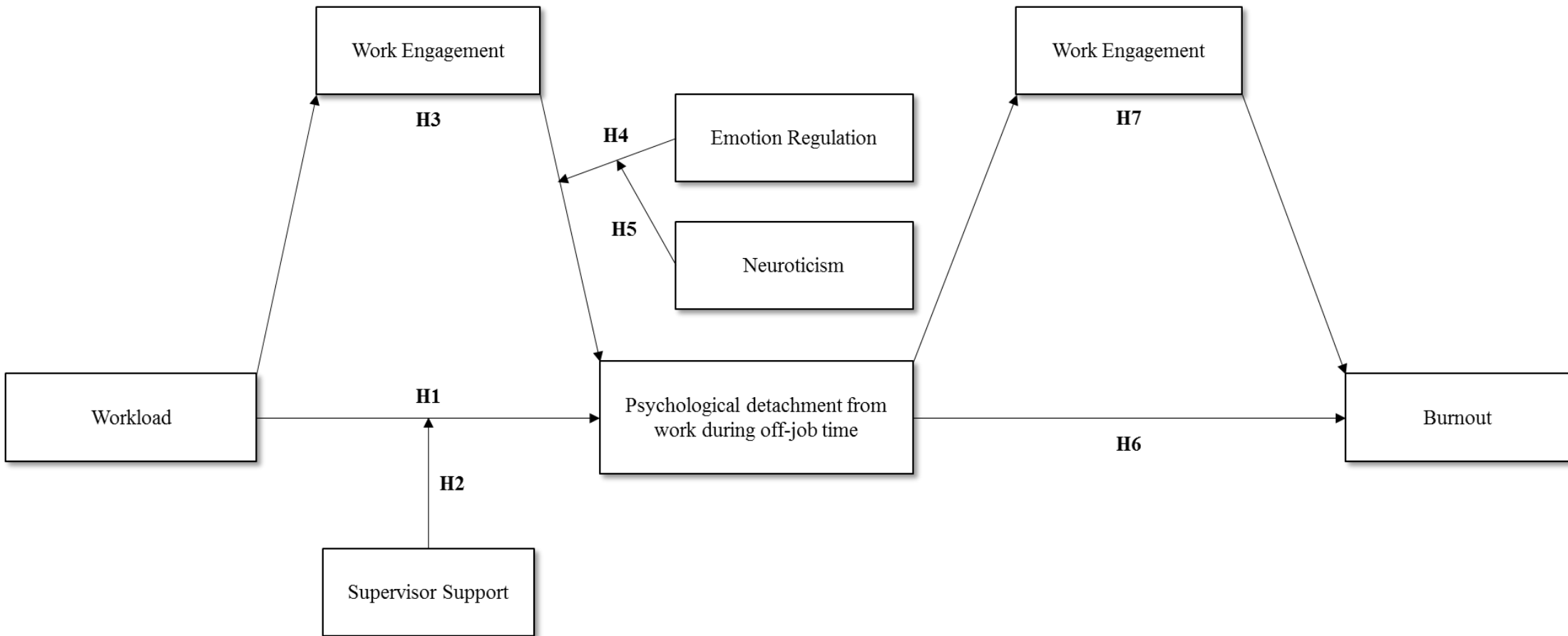
CHAPTER II - METHODOLOGY

2.1. Procedure

2.1.1. Pilot Survey

Before the questionnaire was administered, a pilot survey was conducted. Moser and Kalton (2017) refer to a pilot survey as a way to prepare the main survey. The authors defend that one of the principal purposes is to provide an understanding of the adequacy of the questionnaire: whether it is easy to handle the questionnaire; whether the questions are clear and easy to understand; and whether they are well-articulated and adequate.

The pilot survey was answered by 12 individuals, who suggested some adjustments which helped towards making revisions and led to a more understandable and less confusing final version of the questionnaire, without changing the original instruments.

2.1.2. Application of the Questionnaire

This study corresponds to non-experimental research, where the collection of data was made in one period of time using an online questionnaire on Qualtrics, open for response over a period of three weeks (from the 11th to the 27th of April).

In the next sub-section the measures for this study are presented, as well as the references indicating the source of their translation. The ones that do not have a reference for translation imply that all items of the scale were translated from English into Portuguese, and then they were back-translated into English (Brislin, 1980).

In order to secure a sample that would suit the purpose of this research, that is to say employees whose workplace takes into account their physical and mental well-being, we decided to make our choice from the companies listed in the Healthy Workplaces Awards of 2016. We then contacted several of those companies to tell them the purpose of the study, therefore being able to create a partnership with a public service organization.

From the beginning of the study, we put no restrictions on who should answer the questionnaire concerning, age, gender, location, occupation, among others. However, there were employees who do not have an email or access to the internet (around 20%), and so were not able to answer the questionnaire. To ensure we had no access to employees' personal information, the company was charged with sending them the email which contained a brief explanation of the study and its purpose, together with a link to the questionnaire. The email

was based on our guidelines and designed by the Communication team in conjunction with the Legal department of the organization. Moreover, in light of the company's feedback regarding its employees poor compliance in previous studies, we decided to raffle a prize - three vouchers, each offering a stay in one of Portugal's best hotels, for the participants who completed the questionnaire within the stipulated time.

To guarantee absolute anonymity of the responses, the questionnaire was designed in such a way that it would not be possible to identify the respondents. However, because there was a prize which would have to be handed over, we created a way that would enable us to recognize the winners: at the end of the questionnaire there was a section with a code that was automatically generated by Qualtrics. This code could only be accessed by the respondents that answered all the questions, as it was in a different section, with the answers to all the previous questions being mandatory. In this way, we ensured not only that respondents would answer truthfully since they could not be identified, but also that those individuals who completed the questionnaire had the chance of a reward.

The raffle was carried out using RANDOM.ORG with the supervision of a member of the Communication team and the Legal department of the company. All prizes were attributed to the respective winners.

2.2. Sample

In the total sample of 546 employees who provided useable data sets, 23.8% of the respondents were men and 76.2% were women (see Table 1). Concerning age, the mode of participants in the study ranged between 41 and 50 years-old. Similarly, regarding seniority, the majority of respondents (74%) is in the company for more than 16 years. Of the sample, 1.3% of respondents had completed primary education, 27.3% had completed secondary education, 68.7% had completed superior education, and the remaining 2.7% had some other level of education. The majority of the participants are married (53.3%) and living with a partner (74.2%). From the total sample, 49.5% of participants have 2 or more children (M = 1.4). Concerning working hours, the average working time per day is 7.45 hours (Mo = 7), with average overtime per week of 4.33 hours (SD = 8.218). The final sample comprises 7.1% of participants who have a leadership position, with 21.4% of the respondents having responsibility for a team. Half of the participants reported to having access to job-related contents outside work (50.2%) and accessed it, on average, 1.74 hours a week.

Table 1 - Sociodemographic characteristics of respondents

		N	$\overline{X}$	Mo	σ	%
Gender	Male	130		Female		23.8%
	Female	416				76.2%
Age	18 to 30	2				0.4%
	31 to 40	77				14.1%
	41 to 50	246		41 to 50		45.1%
	51 to 60	198				36.3%
	60 or older	23				4.2%
Educational Level	Basic Education	7				1.3%
	Secondary School	149				27.3%
	Superior Education	375		Superior Education		68.7%
	Other	15				2.7%
Marrital Status	Single	87				15.9%
	Cohabite	75				13.7%
	Married	291		Married		53.3%
	Divorced	83				15.2%
	Widow	10				1.8%
Live with Partner	Yes	405		Yes		74.2%
	No	141				25.8%
Number of Children	0	118				21.6%
	1	158				28.9%
	2	219				40.1%
	3	41	1.40	2	0.994	7.5%
	4	8				1.5%
	5	1				0.2%
	7	1				0.2%
Seniority	Less than 1 year	3				0.5%
	1 to 5 years	24				4.4%
	6 to 10 years	12		More than 16 years		2.2%
	11 to 15 years	103				18.9%
	More than 16 years	404				74.0%
Leadership Position	Yes	39		No		7.1%
	No	507				92.9%
Responsibility Over a Team	Yes	117		No		21.4%
	No	429				78.6%
Access to Work Contents Remotely	Yes	274		Yes		50.2%
	No	272				49.8%
Hours Worked per Day	5	4				0.7%
	6	58				10.6%
	7	281				51.5%
	8	134				24.5%
	9	42	7.45	7	1.081	7.7%
	10	19				3.5%
	11	4				0.7%
	12	3				0.5%
	15	1				0.2%

PSYCHOLOGICAL DETACHMENT FROM WORK DURING OFF-JOB TIME

		N	$\bar{X}$	Mo	σ	%
Extra Hours Worked per Week	0	256				46.9%
	1	29				5.3%
	2	48				8.8%
	3	29				5.3%
	4	31				5.7%
	5	41				7.5%
	6	15				2.7%
	7	10				1.8%
	8	10				1.8%
	10	26				4.8%
	12	7				1.3%
	14	2				0.4%
	15	6	4.33	0	8.218	1.1%
	16	3				0.5%
	17	1				0.2%
	18	1				0.2%
	20	4				0.7%
	21	1				0.2%
	24	1				0.2%
	30	2				0.4%
	35	18				3.3%
	40	1				0.2%
	42	1				0.2%
	45	1				0.2%
	48	1				0.2%
	50	1				0.2%
Hours Worked Remotely per Week	0	332				60.8%
	1	61				11.2%
	2	52				9.5%
	3	20				3.7%
	4	9				1.6%
	5	22				4.0%
	6	7				1.3%
	7	8				1.5%
	8	8				1.5%
	10	13	1.74	0	4.038	2.4%
	12	2				0.4%
	14	1				0.2%
	15	1				0.2%
	16	2				0.4%
	20	4				0.7%
	24	1				0.2%
	25	1				0.2%
	30	1				0.2%
	45	1				0.2%

2.3. Measures

Psychological Detachment. To measure psychological detachment from work during off-job time we used 4 items of the Recovery Experience Questionnaire (REQ: Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). Psychological detachment is one of the four distinct recovery experiences, where sample items are "During time after work, I forget about work" and "During time after work, I don't think about work at all". The items were measured with a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "I do not agree" to 5 = "I fully agree". The Cronbach's α value was .90.

For this study, the scale used in the questionnaire was an adaptation of the Recovery Experiences Questionnaire for the Portuguese population (Lobo & Pinheiro, 2011).

Workload. Was gauged via five items of the Quantitative Workload Inventory (QWI; Spector & Jex, 1998). Respondents were asked to identify the frequency to which items occur using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = "Less than once per month"; 5 = "Several times per day"). Sample items are "How often does your job require you to work very fast?" and "How often does your job leave you with little time to get things done?". The Cronbach's α value for this scale was .86.

Supervisor Support. In order to assess the level of support given by employee's supervisor(s), we used the Supportive Supervision scale of Oldham & Cummings (1996). This was adapted by the authors, resulting in a scale of 8 items measured with a 7-point Likert scale (1 = "Strongly Disagree"; 7 = "Strongly Agree"). Sample items are "My supervisor helps me solve work-related problems" and "My supervisor keeps informed about how employees think and feel about things". The Cronbach's α value for this scale was .93.

Work Engagement. The level of engagement was measured through a shortened version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES: Schaufeli, Martínez, Marques-Pinto, Salanova & Bakker, 2002), which assesses the level of engagement with 9 items (UWES-9: Schaufeli, Bakker & Salanova, 2006), in contrast with the 17 items of the original scale. These items comprise three dimensions: vigour (3 items; e.g., "At my work, I feel bursting with energy"); dedication (3 items; e.g., "I am enthusiastic about my job"); and absorption (3 items; e.g., "I am immersed in my work"). Responses to the items were made on a 5-point Likert scale (0 = "Never"; 6 = "Always"). The Cronbach's α value for this scale was .91.

The scale used in the questionnaire of this study belongs to the translation of the UWES scale of a doctoral dissertation (da Costa, 2015).

Emotion Regulation. The scale used to measure emotion regulation was the one developed by Diefendorff et al. (2005). This scale comprises two emotional labour strategies: surface acting (7 items; e.g., "I just pretend to have the emotions I need to display for my job"); and deep acting (4 items; e.g., "I make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display toward others"). Responses to the items were made on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = "Strongly Disagree"; 5 = "Strongly Agree"). The Cronbach's α value for this scale was .92.

Neuroticism. In order to assess neuroticism, we used the Big Five Inventory (BFI) developed by Oliver P. John (1991), a self-reported measuring instrument. Specifically we assessed this personality trait using the original 8 items: e.g., "I see myself as someone who is depressed, blue". Each one of the items was ranged on and a 5-point Likert scale (1 = "Disagree Strongly"; 5 = "Agree Strongly"). The Cronbach's α value for this scale was .81.

Burnout. The level of burnout was assessed with the Copenhagen Burnout Inventory (CBI; Kristensen, Borritz, Villadsen & Christensen, 2005). This has a total of 7 items but the authors divided them through two different response categories: 4 items were measured with a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "Always" to 5 = "Never/almost never" (e.g., "Do you feel worn out at the end of the working day?"); and the remaining 3 also with a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "To a very high degree" to 5 = "To a very low degree" (e.g., "Is your work emotionally exhausting?"). The Cronbach's α value for this scale was 0.85.

The scale used in the questionnaire of this study was an adaptation and validation of the Copenhagen Burnout Inventory (CBI) for the Portuguese population (Fonte, 2011).

CHAPTER III – RESULTS

3.1. Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics and correlations for the variables of this research model. In order to analyse the correlation, it was used the Pearson's correlation coefficient, since it measures the degree of the relationship between linear related variables.

As we can observe, the strongest correlation happens between *supervisor support* and *work engagement* (r = 0.45; p < 0.01). There are other correlations that imply moderate associations, such as: *neuroticism* and *burnout* (r = -0.40; p < 0.01); and *work engagement* and *burnout* (r = 0.44; p < 0.01).

Table 2 - Means, standard deviations and correlations among variables

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Psychological Detachment	3.10	0.96	*(0.90)*						
2. Workload	3.17	1.01	-0.21**	*(0.86)*					
3. Supervisor Support	4.51	1.41	-0.03	0.13**	*(0.93)*				
4. Work Engagement	4.44	0.80	-0.23**	0.32**	0.45**	*(0.91)*			
5. Emotion Regulation	2.15	0.76	0.05	-0.08	-0.16**	-0.21**	*(0.92)*		
6. Neuroticism	2.66	0.64	-0.09*	-0.04	-0.11**	-0.28**	0.22**	*(0.76)*	
7. Burnout	3.44	0.71	0.13**	-0.27**	0.29**	0.44**	-0.20**	-0.40**	*(0.85)*

Note: The value of Cronbach's Alpha is in bold, italic and between brackets.
** p < 0.01 (2-tailed)
 * p < 0.05 (2-tailed)

3.2. Test of Hypotheses

For the present study, in order to test the relationships previously hypothesized, we resorted to PROCESS macro of IBM SPSS (Hayes, 2016). To perform the analysis, the research model was separated into four parts.

On the first part of the research model there is a linear regression between the independent variable (X_1 = workload) and dependent variable (Y_1 = psychological detachment), and a moderation (M_1 = supervisor support) between this linear regression. For the purpose of this analysis we used Model 1 of PROCESS macro.

Next, there is a mediation (M_2 = work engagement) between the linear regression of the independent variable (X_1 = workload) and dependent variable (Y_1 = psychological detachment). We also did a moderation (V = emotion regulation) between the mediator (M_2)

and the dependent variable (Y_1); and a second moderation (Q = neuroticism) between the previous moderator (V) and the mediator (M_2). Therefore, on the second part of the research model, it was analysed the mediation of work engagement between independent (X_1) and dependent variable (Y_1) with resource to Model 4 of PROCESS macro. The third part of the research model respects to a second stage moderated moderated mediation model, and for that it was used Model 18 of PROCESS macro. Despite this third part includes the mediation of work engagement, we decided to separate the analysis to better understand the impact of workload on psychological detachment through work engagement, once with only Model 18 this was not possible. Similarly, it was not possible to analyse the moderations of emotion regulation and neuroticism with Model 18 due to constraints on PROCESS regarding its inability to run moderation analysis on serial mediation. Therefore, it was separated the analysis of the moderation of emotion regulation (M_3) into the relationship between work engagement (X_2) and psychological detachment (Y_1); and the moderation of neuroticism (M_4) into the relationship between emotion regulation (X_3) and work engagement (Y_2). For those analysis we resorted to Model 1 of PROCESS macro.

Finally, on the fourth part of the research model there is a linear regression between the independent variable (X_4 = psychological detachment) and dependent variable (Y_3 = burnout), and a mediation (M_5 = work engagement) between this linear regression. For the purpose of this analysis we used Model 4 of PROCESS macro.

Figure 2 - Conceptual and statistical representation of the moderation model of SS into the relationship between workload and PD

Conceptual Model

Statistical Model
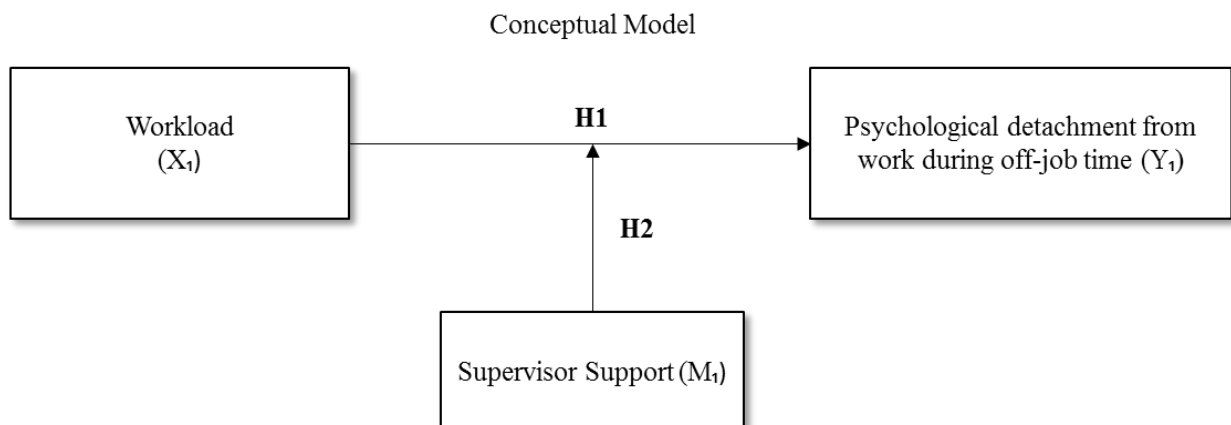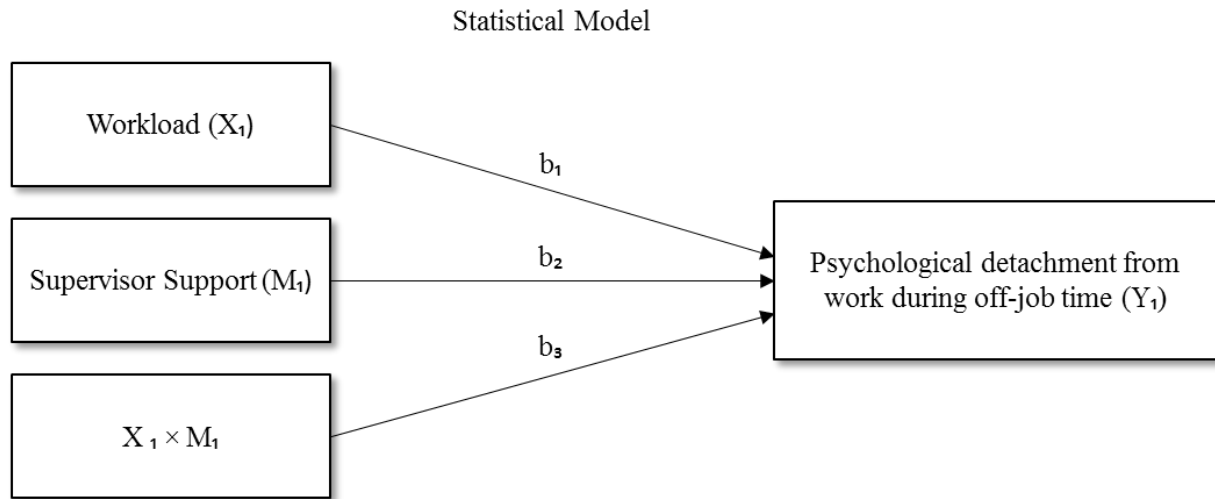
Table 3 - Results of moderation model of SS into the relationship between workload and PD

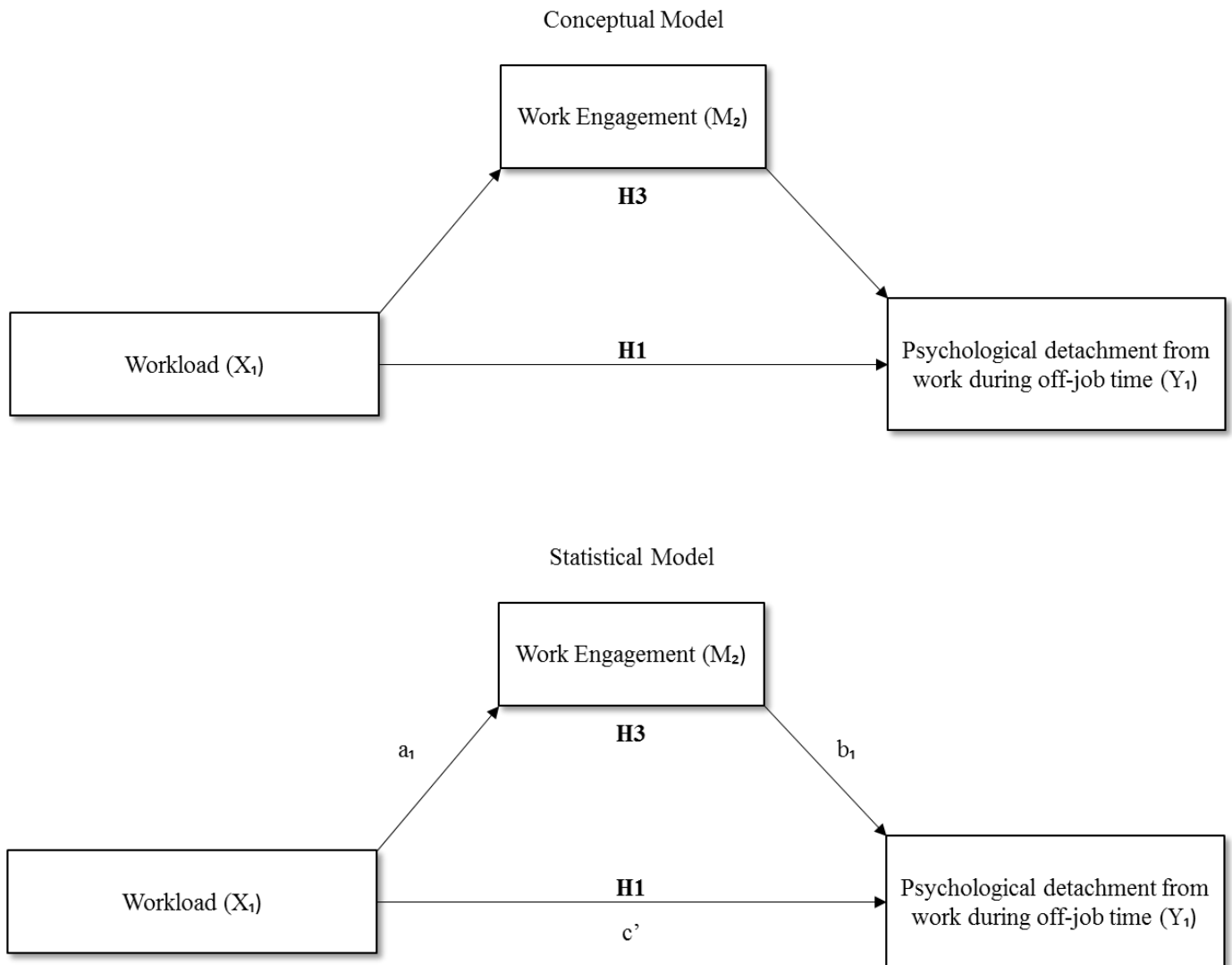| Moderation		b	SE	t	p	CI (Lower)	CI (Upper)
$X_1 \rightarrow Y_1$	(b_1)	-0.5243	0.1348	-3.8897	0.0001	-0.7891	-0.2595
$M_1 \rightarrow Y_1$	(b_2)	-0.2324	0.0896	-2.5945	0.0097	-0.4084	-0.0565
$X_1 \times M_1 \rightarrow Y_1$	(b_3)	0.0735	0.0286	2.5680	0.0105	0.0173	0.1297
Conditional effect for							
low supervisor support		-0.2967	0.0568	-5.2184	0.0000	-0.4083	-0.1850
Conditional effect for							
medium supervisor support		-0.1930	0.0405	-4.7709	0.0000	-0.2725	-0.1136
Conditional effect for							
high supervisor support		-0.0894	0.0574	-1.5571	0.1200	-0.2023	0.0234

In this study we included supervisor support as a possible moderator, proposing that despite workload levels, supervisor support helps an employee to psychologically detach from work during off-job time.

As we can observe in Table 3, results indicate a significant negative direct relation between workload and psychological detachment (b_1) (b = -0.5243, $t_{(546)}$ = -3.8897, $p < 0.05$, 95% CI -0.7891 to -0.2595). Therefore, H1 is supported.

Supervisor support was studied as a simple moderator of the relationship between workload and psychological detachment. The overall model is significant: $R^2 = 0.0581$, $F_{(3,542)}$ = 10.2612, $p < 0.05$. Results presented us with significant effects of supervisor support on psychological detachment (b_2) (b = -0.2324, $t_{(546)}$ = -2.5945, $p < 0.05$, 95% CI -0.4084 to -0.0565). The interaction between workload and supervisor support lead to an increase in the significance of the model, therefore being accountable for the variance in psychological detachment: $\Delta R^2 = 0.0132$, $F_{(1,542)}$ = 6.5947, $p < 0.05$. Consistent with H2, there was a

significant interaction between independent and dependent variables (b_3) (b = 0.0735, $t_{(546)}$ = 2.5680, $p < 0.05$, 95% CI 0.0173 to 0.1297), which indicates that supervisor support is a significant moderator with an enhancing effect between workload and psychological detachment. More concretely, results indicate an increase in the association between workload and psychological detachment from low [b = -0.2967, $t_{(546)}$ = -5.2184, $p < 0.05$, 95% CI -0.4083 to -0.1850] to moderate [b = -0.1930, $t_{(546)}$ = -4.7709, $p < 0.05$, 95% CI -0.2725 to -0.1136] to high [b = -0.0894, $t_{(546)}$ = -1.5571, $p > 0.05$, 95% CI -0.2023 to 0.0234] levels of supervisor support. However, as we can observe, the relationship between workload and psychological detachment is only moderated by supervisor support in low and moderate levels, and not in high levels. Hereupon, H2 is not supported.

Figure 3 - Interactive effect of workload and SS on PD
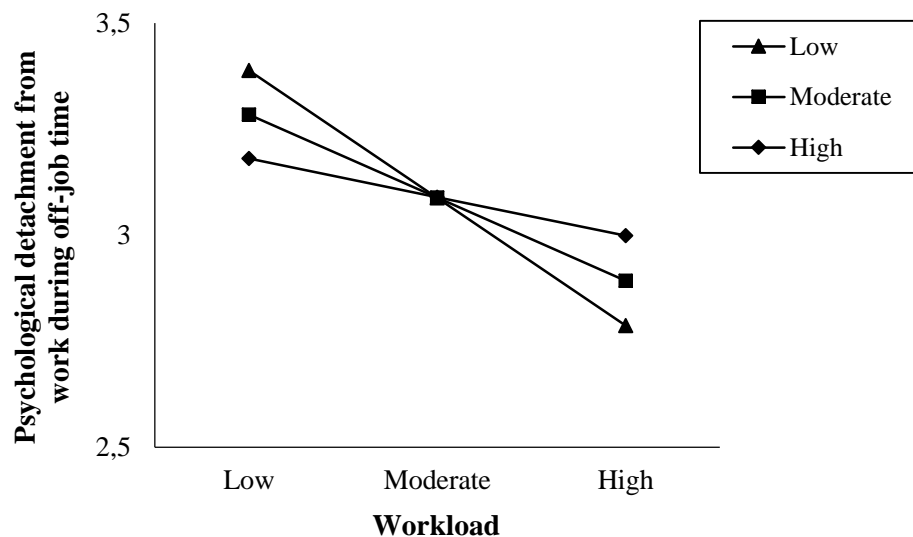
Figure 4 - Estimates of the interaction effect of SS in the relationship between workload and PD
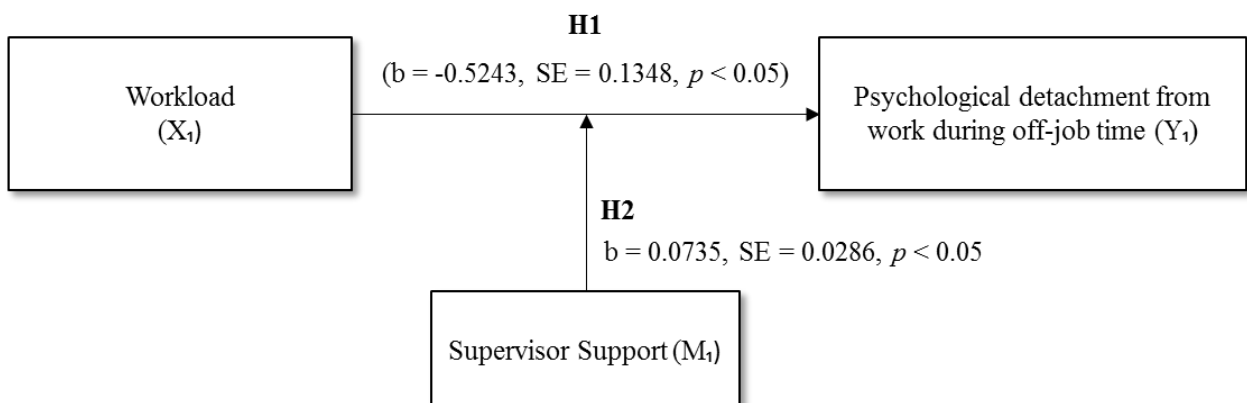
Figure 5 - Conceptual and statistical representation of the mediation model of WE into the relationship between workload and PD

Conceptual Model

Statistical Model

Table 4 - Results of the mediation model of WE into the relationship between workload and PD

Mediation	b	SE	t	p	CI (Lower)	CI (Upper)
$X_1 \rightarrow M_2$ (a_1)	0.2561	0.0380	6.7335	0.0000	0.1814	0.3308
$M_2 \rightarrow Y_1$ (b_1)	-0.2096	0.0578	-3.6265	0.0003	-0.3232	-0.0961
$X_1 \rightarrow Y_1$ (c)	-0.2001	0.0406	-4.9238	0.0000	-0.2799	-0.1202
$X_1 \rightarrow Y_1$ (c')	-0.1464	0.0401	-3.6507	0.0003	-0.2251	-0.0676
$X_1 \rightarrow M_2 \rightarrow Y_1$ (a_1*b_1)	-0.0537	0.0178			-0.0934	-0.0237

In this study we included work engagement as a possible mediator, proposing that workload diminishes psychological detachment from work during off-job time in the presence of work engagement.

Work engagement was studied as mediator between workload and psychological detachment from work. The overall model is significant: $R^2 = 0.0728$; $F_{(2,543)} = 18.5462$; $p < 0.05$. As we already know, the total effect of workload on psychological detachment was significant and negative (c) (b = -0.2001, $t_{(546)} = -4.9238$, $p > 0.05$, 95% CI -0.2799 to -0.1202). Also, results presented us with significant positive effects of workload on work engagement (a$_1$) (b = 0.2561, $t_{(546)} = 6.7335$, $p < 0.05$, 95% CI 0.1814 to 0.3308), and significant negative effects of work engagement on psychological detachment (b$_1$) (b = -0.2096, $t_{(546)} = -3.6265$, $p < 0.05$, 95% CI -0.3232 to -0.0961). Similarly to the significance of the direct effect of workload on psychological detachment ignoring work engagement (c') (b = -0.1464, $t_{(546)} = -3.6507$, $p < 0.05$, 95% CI -0.2251 to -0.0676), the indirect effect of workload on psychological detachment in the presence of work engagement was also significant, demonstrated by the bootstrap 95% CI of the indirect effect (a$_1$*b$_1$) (b = -0.0537, SE = 0.0178, 95% CI -0.0934 to -0.0237). Moreover, a Sobel test was conducted (Z = -3.1659, $p = 0.0015$), meaning that the mediator of work engagement significantly explained that psychological detachment was determined by employees' level of workload. Herewith, we can conclude that work engagement is a significant mediator, therefore, H3 is supported.

Figure 6 - Estimates of workload on PD in the presence of WE
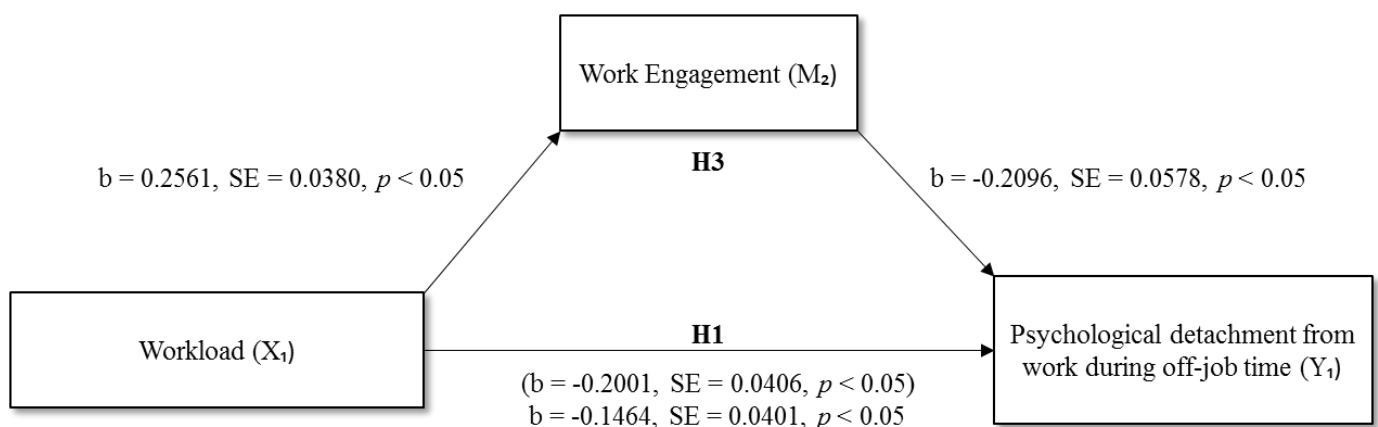
Indirect effect: b = -0.0537, BootSE = 0.0178, BootCI [-0.0934; -0.0237]

Figure 7 - Conceptual and statistical representation of the moderated moderated mediation

Conceptual Model

Statistical Model
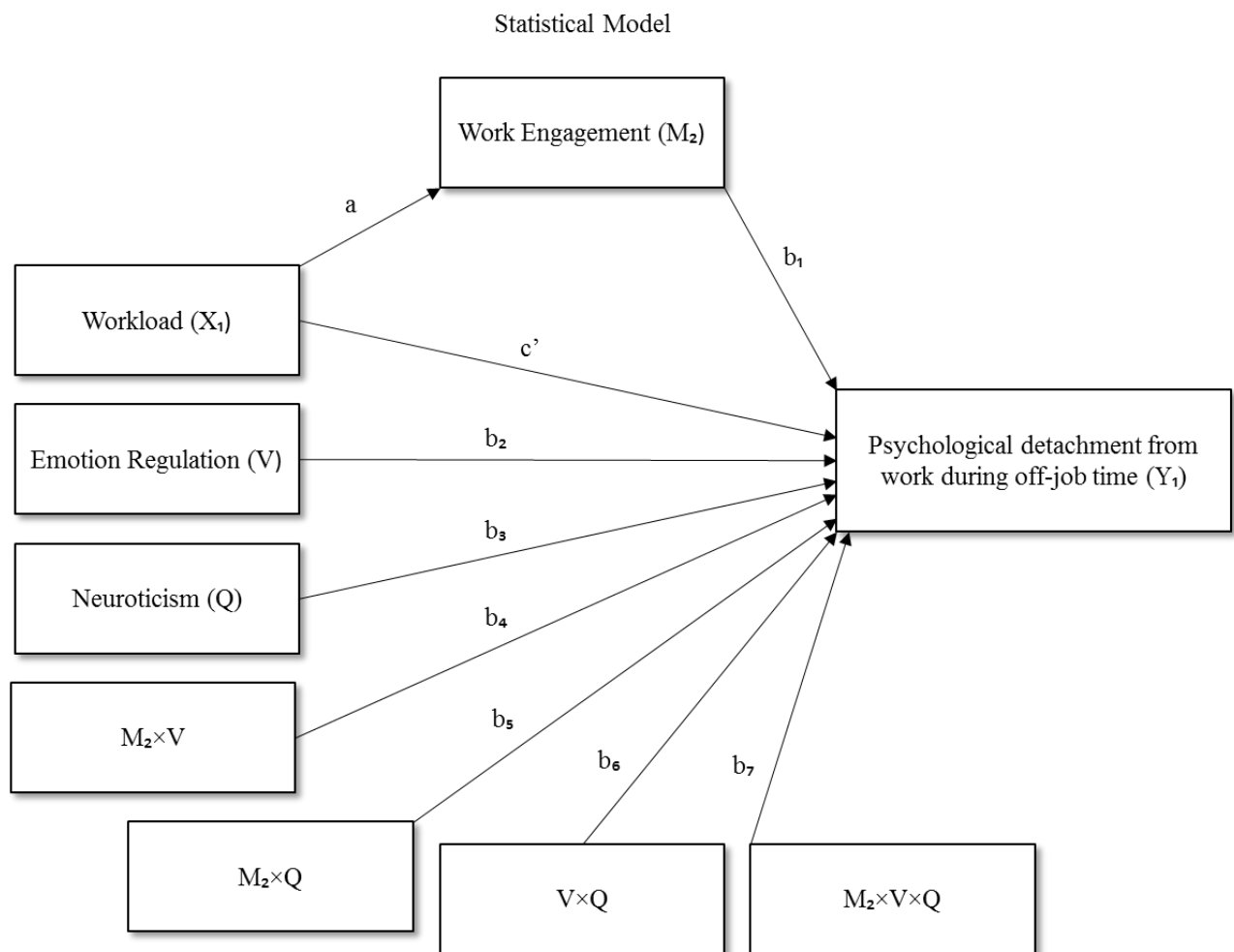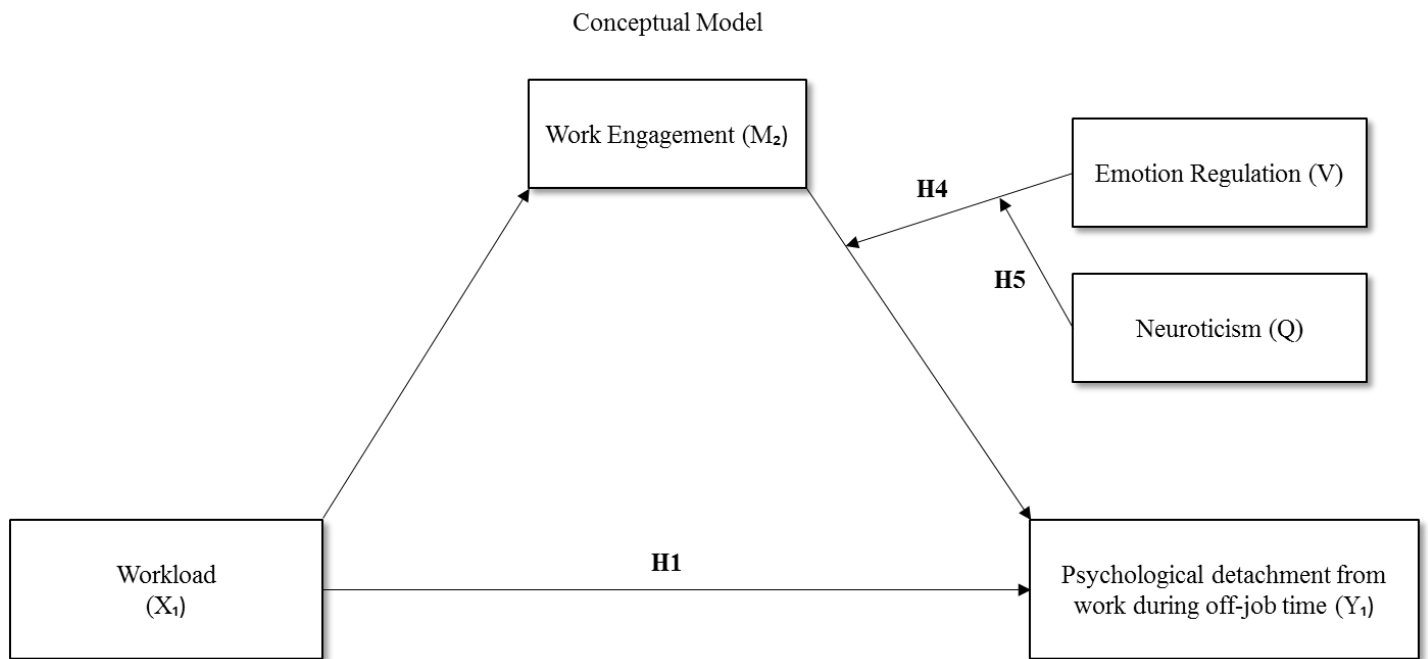
Table 5 - Results of second stage moderated moderated mediation model

Second Stage Moderated Moderated Mediation		M₂							Y₁					
		b	SE	t	p	CI (Lower)	CI (Upper)		b	SE	t	p	CI (Lower)	CI (Upper)
Constant		3.6272	0.1071	33.8647	0.0000	3.4168	3.8376		9.1378	2.6551	3.4416	0.0006	3.9222	14.3534
X_1	(a)	0.2561	0.0322	7.9626	0.0000	0.1929	0.3193	(c')	-0.1349	0.0408	-3.3088	0.0010	-0.2150	-0.0548
M_2		-	-	-	-	-	-	(b₁)	-1.2545	0.5800	-2.1630	0.0310	-2.3938	-0.1152
$V \rightarrow Y_1$		-	-	-	-	-	-	(b₂)	-2.1232	1.1138	-1.9063	0.0571	-4.3110	0.0647
$Q \rightarrow Y_1$		-	-	-	-	-	-	(b₃)	-1.7079	0.9657	-1.7685	0.0775	-3.6049	0.1892
$V \times Q \rightarrow Y_1$ (int_1)		-	-	-	-	-	-	(b₆)	0.7860	0.3820	2.0575	0.0401	0.0356	1.5364
$M_2 \times V \rightarrow Y_1$ (int_2)		-	-	-	-	-	-	(b₄)	0.5470	0.2441	2.2404	0.0255	0.0674	1.0265
$M_2 \times Q \rightarrow Y_1$ (int_3)		-	-	-	-	-	-	(b₅)	0.3826	0.2162	1.7695	0.0774	-0.0421	0.8073
$M_2 \times V \times Q \rightarrow Y_1$ (int_4)		-	-	-	-	-	-	(b₇)	-0.2036	0.0861	-2.3642	0.0184	-0.3728	-0.0344

	Index	SE (Boot)	Boot CI (Lower)	Boot CI (Upper)
Moderated moderated mediation	-0.0521	0.0279	-0.1116	-0.0012
Conditional moderated mediation by ER (V) among				
Low (Q = 2.0180)	0.0348	0.0269	-0.0137	0.0920
Medium (Q = 2.6566)	0.0015	0.0180	-0.0335	0.0385
High (Q = 3.2952)	-0.0318	0.0237	-0.0810	0.0128
Conditional moderated mediation by neuroticism (Q) among				
Low (V = 1.3901)	0.0255	0.0357	-0.0393	0.1033
Medium (V = 2.1482)	-0.0140	0.0240	-0.0628	0.0328
High (V = 2.9062)	-0.0536	0.0278	-0.1136	-0.0034

Figure 8 - Conceptual model and results of the moderation model of ER into the relationship between WE and PD

Conceptual Model
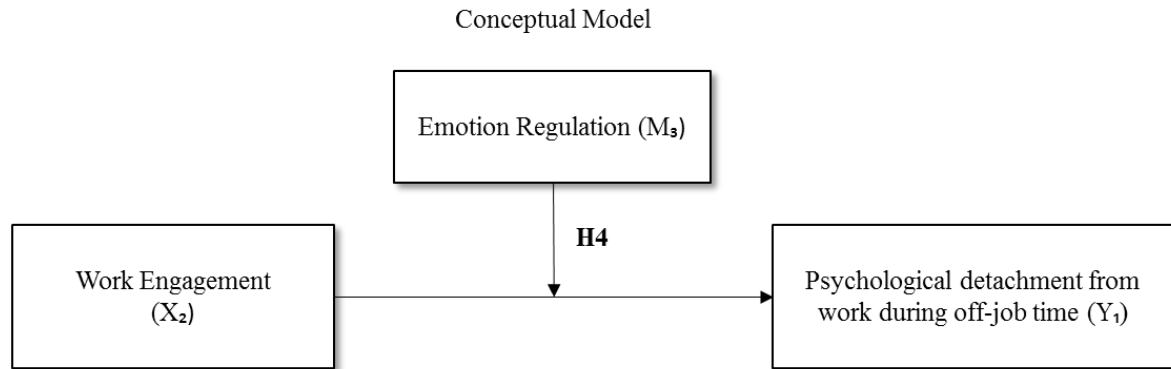
Moderation	b	SE	t	p	CI (Lower)	CI (Upper)
$X_2 \to Y_1$ (b_1)	-0.2671	0.0610	-4.3771	0.0000	-0.3870	-0.1472
$M_3 \to Y_1$ (b_2)	-0.0053	0.0558	-0.0952	0.9242	-0.1149	0.1043
$X_2 \times M_3 \to Y_1$ (b_3)	-0.0167	0.0708	0.2360	0.8135	-0.1559	0.1224
Conditional effect for						
low emotion regulation	-0.2544	0.0907	-2.8052	0.0052	-0.4326	0.0763
Conditional effect for						
medium emotion regulation	-0.2671	0.0610	-4.3771	0.0000	-0.3870	-0.1472
Conditional effect for						
high emotion regulation	-0.2798	0.0706	-3.9610	0.0001	-0.4186	-0.1410

Figure 9 - Conceptual model and results of the moderation model of neuroticism into the relationship between ER and WE

Conceptual Model
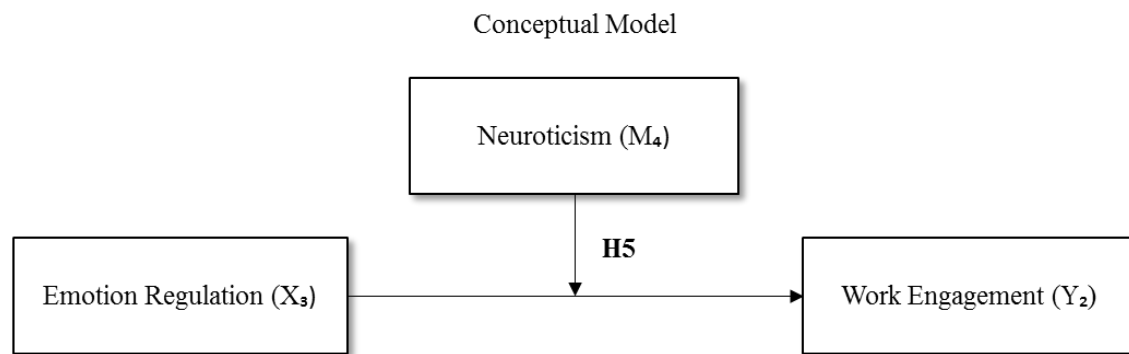
Moderation	b	SE	t	p	CI (Lower)	CI (Upper)
$X_3 \to Y_2$ (b_1)	-0.1634	0.0464	-3.5231	0.0005	-0.2545	-0.0723
$M_4 \to Y_2$ (b_2)	-0.3091	0.0539	-5.7344	0.0000	-0.4150	-0.2032
$X_3 \times M_4 \to Y_2$ (b_3)	-0.1476	0.0747	-1.9750	0.0488	-0.2943	-0.0008
Conditional effect for						
low neuroticism	-0.0692	0.0659	-1.0505	0.2939	-0.1986	0.0602
Conditional effect for						
medium neuroticism	-0.1634	0.0464	-3.5231	0.0005	-0.2545	-0.0723
Conditional effect for						
high neuroticism	-0.2577	0.0672	-3.8332	0.0001	-0.3897	-0.1256

Model 18 of macro PROCESS was used to test the conditional indirect effect of workload on psychological detachment through work engagement, depending on employees' emotion regulation and level of neuroticism.

As observed previously, H1 indicates a significant negative relationship between workload and psychological detachment (c') (b = -0.1349, $t_{(546)}$ = -3.3088, $p < 0.05$, 95% CI -0.2150 to -0.0548), meaning high levels of workload interfere with employee's detachment from work. Taking into account Table 5, by following the indirect path, results show a positive significant effect of workload on work engagement (a) (b = 0.2561, $t_{(546)}$ = 7.9626, $p < 0.05$, 95% CI 0.1929 to 0.3193). Additionally, results show a significant effect of work engagement on psychological detachment (b_1), however negative (b = -1.2545, $t_{(546)}$ = -2.1630, $p < 0.05$, 95% CI -2.3938 to -0.1152). As mentioned before, results from this model do not allow us to draw conclusions regarding the mediation of work engagement on the relationship between workload and psychological detachment. However, we decided to repeat the analysis here to see if we reached the same conclusions from Model 4 (when separating the mediation effect to analyse it). Despite small variances in the values of relationship coefficients (something expectable since in Model 18 there are more interactions accountable for varying mediation effects), main conclusions remain.

The two-way interactions between emotion regulation and psychological detachment (b_2) (b = -2.1232, $t_{(546)}$ = -1.9063, $p > 0.05$, 95% CI -4.3110 to 0.0647), and between neuroticism and psychological detachment (b_3) (b = -1.7079, $t_{(546)}$ = -1.7685, $p > 0.05$, 95% CI -3.6049 to 0.1892), were nonsignificant. Contrarily, the two-way interaction between work engagement and emotion regulation (int_2 and b_4) was significant (b = 0.5470, $t_{(546)}$ = 2.2404, $p < 0.05$, 95% CI 0.0674 to 1.0265). However, to draw any conclusion on H4 we need to take into account the moderation analysis (Figure 8), in which results indicate a nonsignificant interaction between work engagement and emotion regulation on psychological detachment (b_3) (b = -0.0167, $t_{(546)}$ = 0.2360, $p > 0.05$, 95% CI -0.1559 to 0.1224). This means emotion regulation is not a mediator of the relationship between work engagement and psychological detachment, thus H4 is not supported.

Results show that the two-way interaction between emotion regulation and neuroticism (int_1 and b_6) was positive and significant (b = 0.7860, $t_{(546)}$ = 2.0575, $p < 0.05$, 95% CI 0.0356 to 1.5364), whereas the two-way interaction between work engagement and neuroticism (int_3 and b_5) was nonsignificant (b = 0.3826, $t_{(546)}$ = 1.7695, $p > 0.05$, 95% CI -0.0421 to 0.8073). Additionally, the three-way interaction between work engagement, emotion regulation and

neuroticism (int_4 and b_7) was negative but significant (b = -0.2036, $t_{(546)}$ = -2.3642, $p < 0.05$, 95% CI -0.3728 to -0.0344). Again, in order to draw any conclusion on H5 we need to take into account the moderation analysis (Figure 9). The overall model is significant: R^2 = 0.1130, $F_{(3,542)}$ = 16.7539, $p < 0.05$. Results indicate a significant interaction between neuroticism and work engagement (b_2) (b = -0.3091, $t_{(546)}$ = -5.7344, $p < 0.05$, 95% CI -0.4150 to -0.2032). Moreover, results show a significant interaction between emotion regulation and neuroticism on work engagement (b_3) (b = -0.1476, $t_{(546)}$ = -1.9750, $p < 0.05$, 95% CI -0.2943 to -0.0008), which indicates that neuroticism is a significant moderator between emotion regulation and work engagement. More concretely, results indicate an increase in the association between emotion regulation and work engagement from low [b = -0.0692, $t_{(546)}$ = -1.0505, $p > 0.05$, 95% CI -0.1986 to 0.0602] to moderate [b = -0.1634, $t_{(546)}$ = -3.5231, $p < 0.05$, 95% CI -0.2545 to -0.0723] to high [b = -0.2577, $t_{(546)}$ = -3.8332, $p < 0.05$, 95% CI -0.3897 to -0.1256] levels of neuroticism. However, as we can observe, the relationship between emotion regulation and work engagement is only moderated by neuroticism in moderate and high levels, and not in low levels, meaning H5 is not supported.

The index of moderated moderated mediation is ab_7 = 0.2561(-0.2036) = -0.0521, with a 95% bootstrap CI that is entirely below zero (-0.1116 to -0.0012) (see Table 5). This reveals a significant moderated moderated mediation. Consequently we can say that the moderation of the indirect effect of psychological detachment by the moderator of emotion regulation depends on the moderator of neuroticism.

The indirect effect of X_1 is the following:
$$ab_1 + ab_4V + ab_5Q + ab_7VQ =$$
$$= (0.2561)(-1.2545) + (0.2561)(0.5470)V + (0.2561)(0.3826)Q + (0.2561)(-0.2036)VQ =$$
$$= -0.3213 + 0.1401V + 0.098Q - 0.0521VQ$$

Therefore, substituting Q and V for the low and high values of the moderators, allows us to reach the conditional indirect effects (Figure 10). As we can see, only two of these conditional indirect effects are significant: low emotion regulation, low neuroticism; and high emotion regulation and high neuroticism. However, we can observe a greater difference on psychological detachment from work for employees who have high emotion regulation and who score higher on neuroticism than the ones who score lower on neuroticism.

Figure 10 – Visual representation and conditional indirect effects of the significant three-way interaction between WE, ER, and neuroticism
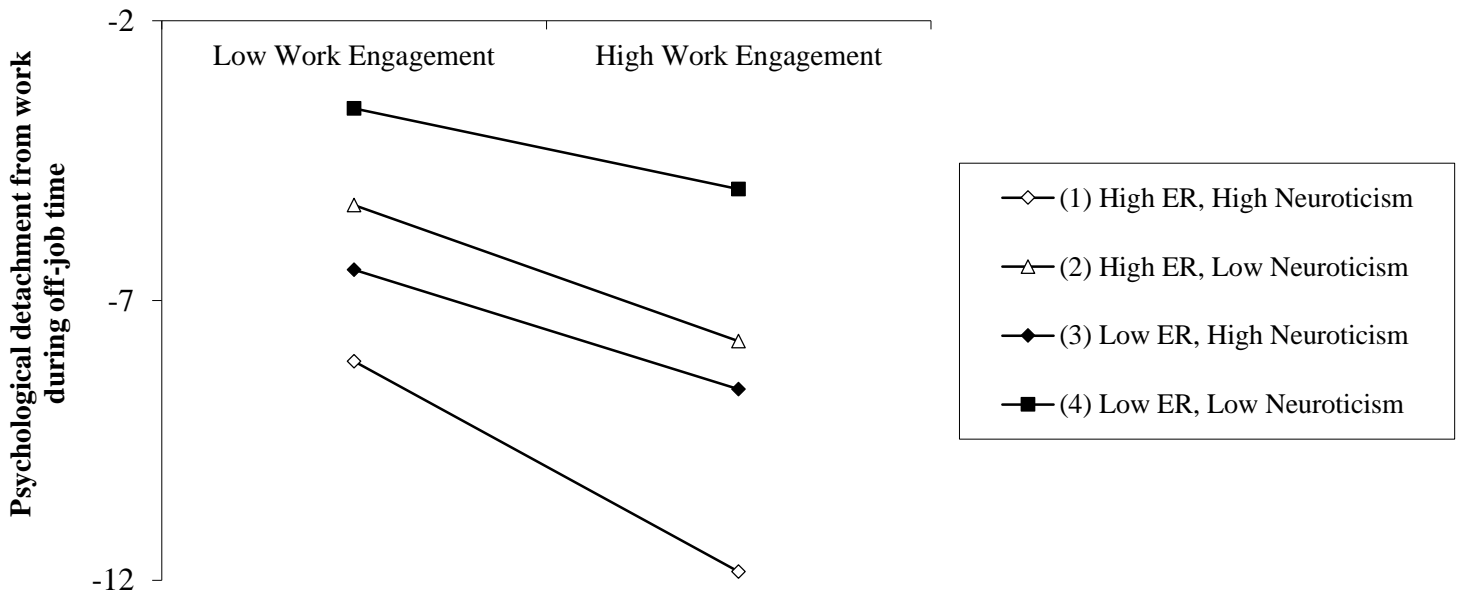
Conditional Indirect effect	Effect	SE (Boot)	Boot CI (Lower)	Boot CI (Lower)
Low Emotion Regulation, Low Neuroticism	-0.0751	0.0310	-0.1451	-0.0214
Low Emotion Regulation, High Neuroticism	-0.0426	0.0367	-0.1175	0.0292
High Emotion Regulation, Low Neuroticism	-0.0223	0.0282	-0.0775	0.0332
High Emotion Regulation, High Neuroticism	-0.0907	0.0267	-0.1505	-0.0448

Figure 11 - Conceptual and statistical representation of the mediation model of work engagement into the relationship between PD and burnout

Conceptual Model

Statistical Model
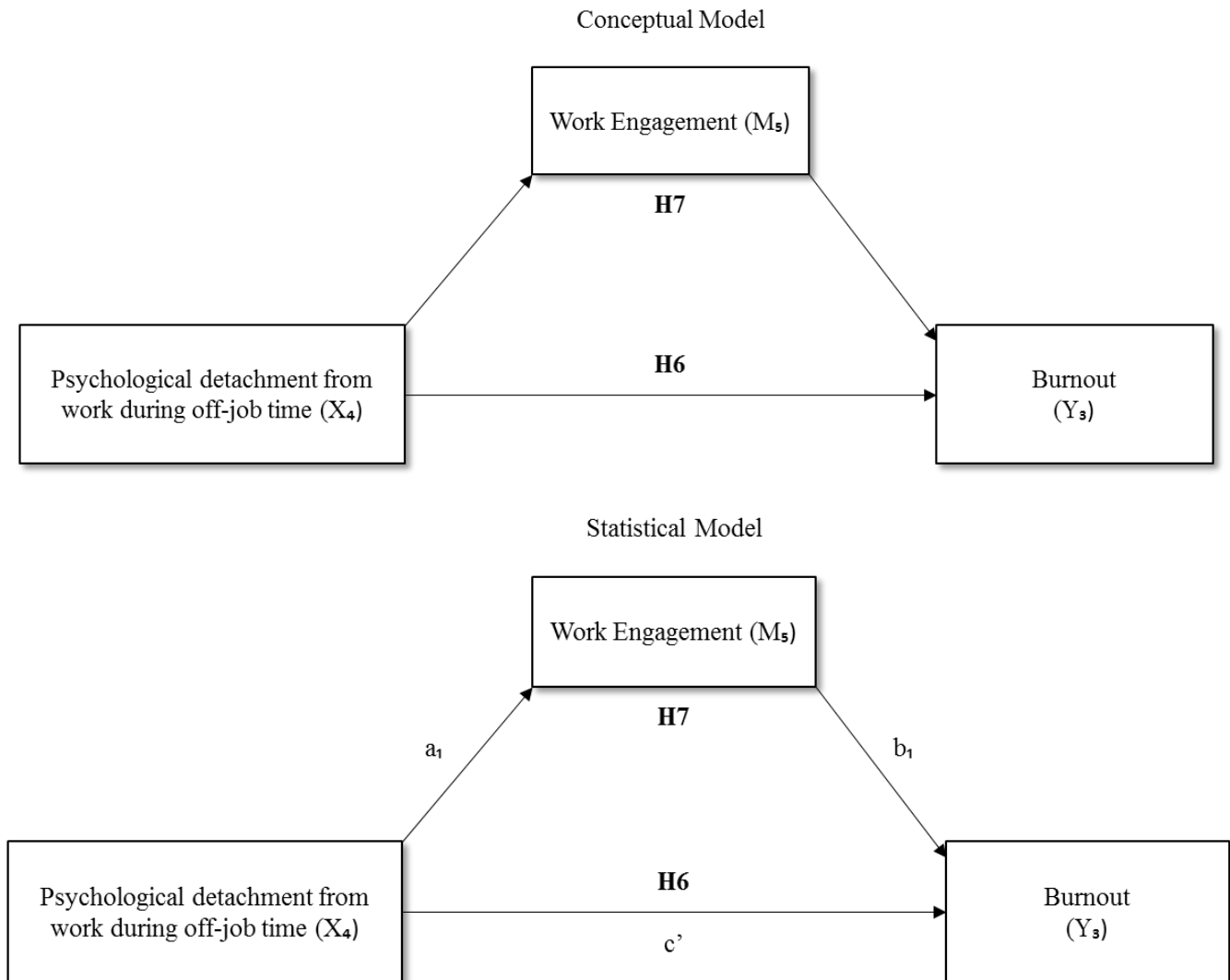
Table 6 - Results of the mediation model of WE into the relationship between PD and burnout

Mediation	b	SE	t	p	CI (Lower)	CI (Upper)
$X_4 \rightarrow M_5$ (a_1)	-0.1901	0.0419	-4.5352	0.0000	-2.2725	-0.1078
$M_5 \rightarrow Y_3$ (b_1)	0.4399	0.0388	11.3512	0.0000	0.3638	0.5161
$X_4 \rightarrow Y_3$ (c)	0.0947	0.0378	2.5053	0.0125	0.0205	0.1690
$X_4 \rightarrow Y_3$ (c')	0.1784	0.0318	5.6085	0.0000	0.1159	0.2409
$X_4 \rightarrow M_5 \rightarrow Y_3$ (a_1*b_1)	-0.0836	0.0194			-0.1247	-0.0487

In this study we included work engagement as a possible mediator, proposing that psychological detachment from work during off-job time increases burnout in the presence of work engagement.

As we can observe in Table 6, results indicate a positive and significant total effect of psychological detachment on burnout (c) (b = 0.0947, $t_{(546)}$ = 2.5053, $p < 0.05$, 95% CI 0.0205 to 0.1690). Therefore, H6 is supported.

Work engagement was studied as mediator between psychological detachment from work and burnout. The overall model is significant: R^2 = 0.0161; $F_{(1,544)}$ = 6.2764; $p < 0.05$. Results presented us with significant negative effects of psychological detachment on work engagement (a$_1$) (b = -0.1901, $t_{(546)}$ = -4.5352, $p < 0.05$, 95% CI -2.2725 to -0.1078), and significant positive effects of work engagement on burnout (b$_1$) (b = 0.4399, $t_{(546)}$ = 11.3512, $p < 0.05$, 95% CI 0.3638 to 0.5161). Similarly to the significance of the direct effect of psychological detachment on burnout ignoring work engagement (c') (b = 0.1784, $t_{(546)}$ = 5.6085, $p < 0.05$, 95% CI 0.1159 to 0.2409), the indirect effect of psychological detachment on burnout in the presence of work engagement was also significant, although negative, demonstrated by the bootstrap 95% CI of the indirect effect (a$_1$*b$_1$) (b = -0.0836, SE = 0.0194, 95% CI -0.1247 to -0.0487). Moreover, a Sobel test was conducted (Z = -4.1975, p = 0.0000), meaning that the mediator of work engagement significantly explained that burnout was determined by employees' psychological detachment. Herewith, we can conclude that work engagement is a significant mediator, therefore, H7 is supported.

Figure 12 - Estimates of PD on burnout in the presence of WE
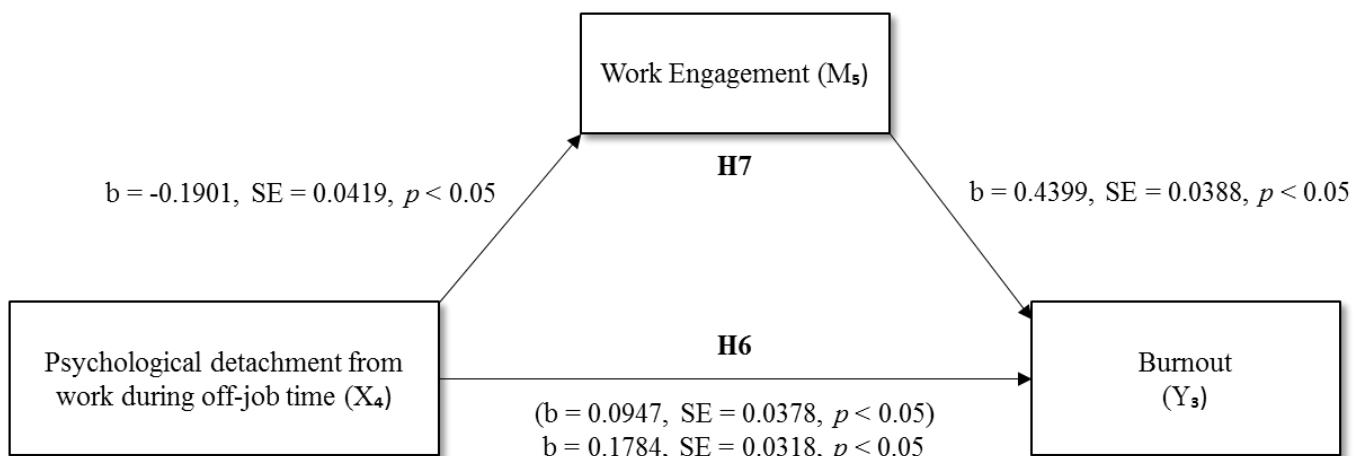
Indirect effect: b = -0.0836, BootSE = 0.0194, BootCI [-0.1247; -0.0487]

CHAPTER IV - DISCUSSION

4.1. Theoretical Implications

The purpose of this study was to understand how and when workload impacts psychological detachment. Consequently, it is relevant to analyse this relationship in light of other predictors that help understand why employees fail to detach from work during off-job time. Therefore, this study addresses the relationship between one type of job stressor – workload – with psychological detachment, taking into account work and individual characteristics. This constitutes an integrative study since it integrates concepts already studied in the literature, with the particularity of providing different interactions between them. In addition, the present study provides insights into outcomes of psychological detachment, more specifically in terms of burnout. However, and in order to contribute to the literature, the concept of work engagement was introduced to ascertain the effect psychological detachment from work has on employees' burnout.

As expected from reviewing the literature, results show that workload negatively relates to psychological detachment (DeArmond et al., 2014; Sonnentag et al., 2010; Sonnentag et al., 2008; Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005). Additionally, it was found that supervisor support help explain the relationship between workload and psychological detachment, with psychological detachment becoming positive in the presence of this type of support. However, and despite employees' levels of workload, only low and medium levels of supervisor support are significant to explain employees' ability to psychologically detach from work.

In this study, as mentioned before, we included work engagement as a possible mediator of the relationship between workload and psychological detachment from work. In accordance with the literature, it was expected that workload would decrease psychological detachment from work when increasing employee's level of work engagement (Smit, 2016; Sonnentag, 2012; Sonnentag & Kruel, 2006). However, the results show otherwise since, in comparison with the direct effect, the indirect effect, despite remaining negative, nevertheless increased. Thus, work engagement does not intensify the negative relationship between levels of workload and employees' detachment from work.

Further, we considered emotion regulation as one possible moderator between work engagement and psychological detachment, which turned out to be nonsignificant. However, the interaction effect between work engagement and emotion regulation on psychological detachment was significant and positive, meaning, despite employees' level of work

engagement, if they are able to effectively regulate emotions, they are able to detach from work. Next, we proposed neuroticism as a second possible moderator, which in contrast to previous moderation, turned out to be significant. Moreover, the interaction effect between work engagement and neuroticism on psychological detachment was significant and positive. Thus, regardless of employees' level of work engagement and even in employees with a neurotic personality, detachment from work can occur. Additionally, the interaction effect between emotion regulation and neuroticism on psychological detachment was also significant and positive, meaning that, if an employee is able to regulate emotions, despite having a neurotic personality, employees are able to psychologically detach from work. However, it is curious that none of the moderators alone – emotion regulation and neuroticism – presented a significant effect in the relationship with psychological detachment. Nevertheless, the effect of the interaction of work engagement, emotion regulation and neuroticism on psychological detachment, although negative, is significant, meaning that if an employee with a neurotic personality is highly engaged with the job, they will have difficulty in detaching from work despite being able to effectively regulate emotions. This helps to explain why employees may fail to psychologically detach from work during off-job time.

With regard to analysing burnout as an outcome of psychological detachment, the literature revealed that when an individual is not able to detach from work, burnout levels increase (e.g., Etzion, et al., 1998). Conversely, our results have shown a positive relationship between psychological detachment and burnout, meaning that when an employee is able to get away from work demands and replenish resources, the likelihood of experiencing burnout decreases (Sonnentag and Fritz; 2007). Present investigation goes further by analysing the interaction between detachment and burnout through the introduction of one of the individual characteristics – work engagement – which mediates the previous relationship. In addition, there was a significant and negative relationship between psychological detachment and work engagement, which was not expectable taking into consideration carried out literature review. Several research defend that psychological detachment increases work engagement, since allows employees to replenish resources, therefore having more energy available when returning to work (Shimazu et al., 2016; Singh et al., 2016; Kühnel et al., 2012; Sonnentag et al., 2012; Sonnentag et al., 2010). Moreover, there is a positive relation between work engagement and burnout, which can be easily understood, since literature has been defining these two constructs as opposites to one another (Schaufeli et al., 2002; Maslach et al., 2001; Maslach and Leiter, 1997). Nevertheless, our findings suggest a negative relationship between

psychological detachment and burnout in the presence of work engagement. Thus, if employees are highly engaged with their jobs, despite being able to psychologically detach from work during off-job time, the avoidance of job stressors is not secured, thus increasing burnout.

4.2. Practical Implications

Given the significant number of constructs that derive from the literature of Psychology, as well as of Human Resources, the present study nevertheless stands out in the area of Human Resources due to the significant implications of the results for managers with regard to designing and applying internal practices concerning workforce management.

Our findings suggest that, with respect to practical implications, it is crucial that supervisors are encouraged to provide support to employees who face high levels of workload. This is beneficial not only for employees' detachment from work, but also for companies, since employees view organizations in a more favourable way when they feel supported. The consequent boost in levels of interest in work activities and in a sense of commitment to caring about the organization's welfare, help achieve organizational objectives (Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006; Oldham & Cummings, 1996).

In addition, our findings show the importance of our study for organizations, since there is an incentive to increase engagement with employees, in order to buffer some of the negative effects of workload on psychological detachment from work during off-job time. It is known that employees differ in the dedication and level of intensity they commit to performing their work (Babcock-Roberson & Strickland, 2010). At the same time, work engagement is a predictor of performance, employees' behaviour, and attitudes (Guchait, Zhao, Madera, Hua & Okumus, 2018), and also low turnover intention (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). With the importance of work engagement being recognized, employees should focus on recovery during respite to guarantee levels of engagement (Kühnel et al., 2009), while organizations can stimulate work engagement through supervisor support (Sonnentag et al., 2008). At the same time, it is a paradox implementing practices targeted to foster work engagement, since it is known from the results of this study that work engagement will increase burnout, despite employees' detachment from work. Companies must define what it is priority (increase or decrease work engagement), through the assessment of the needs of their employees, in order to better understand which strategy to adopt.

Finally, it is also important to increase psychological detachment from work during off-job time which can be done by encourage employees to differentiate between work and personal

life, by being as unavailable for work as possible during leisure time (Medrano & Trógolo, 2018; Shimazu et al., 2016; Sonnentag et al., 2013). However, owing to the emergence and proliferation of communication technologies, an employee's personal life has become more permeable as work-related content can be easily accessed while off work, which consequently decreases psychological detachment from work (Derks, van Mierlo & Schmitz, 2014; Park et al., 2011). In this sense it is crucial to design and adopt organizational norms concerning the conditions regarding employees' availability outside office hours (Derks & Bakker, 2014; Sonnentag et al., 2008).

4.3. Limitations and Future Research

Some limitations of the study are presented so that they can be taken into consideration for future studies. The results were obtained through resource to self-reported measures in a specific company (public service). The sample resultant from the questionnaire concerns only employees of one Portuguese company, therefore confining results in terms of cultural aspects, not only of the country but also of the company. Although, not all employees had access to the questionnaire since the company distributed it via e-mail and some employees do not have work-related email, due to the nature of their job, or even access to internet at home.

In future research, this analysis could be conducted with a greater number of Portuguese companies, so the results could better represent the national reality. Similarly, the analysis could be applied to any other country, and perhaps a study could be conducted to see the variations between different countries. This study addressed employees' workload and work engagement. However, and taking into consideration some of the literature reviewed for these constructs, it would be interesting for future studies to include the concept of workaholism. Also, in addition to neuroticism, future studies could focus on the remaining personality traits of the "Big Five", in order to see whether any others aside from neuroticism could help explain the relationship with psychological detachment since this evidence is lacking in literature.

CHAPTER V - CONCLUSIONS

Given the importance of employees' psychological detachment from work during off-job time with regard to replenishing resources and being able to face work demands (e.g., Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007), organizations should take care to address this issue. This study having shown the importance of the interaction of work and individual characteristics in predicting psychological detachment, as well as the outcomes of detachment constitutes, therefore, a source of knowledge that managers should take into consideration when developing and implementing practices targeting their workforce.

Despite the concept of psychological detachment deriving from the Psychology field, its importance is recognized within the Human Resources area, since it allows employees to reduce job stressors, increase individual well-being, and enhance proactivity at work (Shimazu et al., 2016; Sonnentag et al., 2008; Sonnentag & Kruel, 2006; Sonnentag & Zijlstra, 2006; Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005; Sonnentag, 2003). Conversely, and although this construct goes hand in hand with Psychology, its importance to the Human Resources field with regard to analysing negative outcomes that arise from lack of employees' psychological detachment from work should be acknowledged. The negative outcomes referred to include absenteeism, turnover intentions, and reduced performance (Wendsche & Lohmann-Haislah, 2017; Westman & Etzion, 2001), which are very important in an organizational context, since they represent significant costs to organizations if not managed well and lead to negative strains and consequences for employees.

From this study, we have been able to draw interesting conclusions, which provide new and unforeseen findings to the literature. In response to our first research question and with regard to work characteristics, we can say that workload negatively influences psychological detachment, whereas supervisor support produces a positive influence on psychological detachment taking into account levels of workload. In relation to individual characteristics, all together they are sufficient and significant to explain psychological detachment. With respect to our second research question, results show a negative relationship between psychological detachment and burnout when employees are highly engaged with their jobs.

Lastly, and taking into consideration the relevance of the concepts addressed in this study and the way they connect with each other, we hope the analysis here presented will be taken into consideration to shape and improve future Human Resources Management practices.

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APPENDIX – Questionnaire

Objetivo:

O presente questionário faz parte de investigação na área de Recursos Humanos e Consultadoria Organizacional, que tem como objetivo recolher informações sobre comportamentos individuais e de trabalho.

Confidencialidade:

As informações disponibilizadas pelas respostas às questões de todo o questionário são confidenciais e, como tal, serão tratadas de forma sigilosa. Os dados sociodemográficos serão utilizados apenas para fins estatísticos.

Instruções e conselhos de preenchimento:

Leia atentamente todas as questões antes de responder. Responda por favor à totalidade das questões enunciadas. Não existem respostas certas ou erradas. A primeira ideia que tiver, é a melhor resposta a cada uma das afirmações.

Para qualquer questão que possa surgir, por favor contacte:

mariana_leonardo_ramos@iscte-iul.pt

Obrigada pela sua colaboração!

PSYCHOLOGICAL DETACHMENT FROM WORK DURING OFF-JOB TIME

1. Indique o grau de concordância com as escalas que se seguem, tendo em atenção a seguinte afirmação:

Vejo-me como alguém que…	1 - Discordo totalmente	2 - Discordo Moderadamente	3 - Não concordo nem Discordo	4 - Concordo Moderadamente	5 - Concordo Totalmente
… é deprimido(a), triste.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
… é relaxado(a), lida bem com o stress.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
… pode ficar tenso.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
… se preocupa muito.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
… é emocionalmente estável, não se aborrece facilmente.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
… pode ter um humor instável.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
… permanece calmo(a) em situações tensas.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
… fica nervoso(a) facilmente.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

PSYCHOLOGICAL DETACHMENT FROM WORK DURING OFF-JOB TIME

2. Pense, por favor, no trabalho que realiza diariamente para responder às seguintes questões:

	1 - Discordo Totalmente	2 - Discordo	3 - Nem concordo nem discordo	4 - Concordo	5 - Concordo totalmente
Coloco uma "máscara" para lidar com os clientes/colegas de modo adequado.	○	○	○	○	○
Finjo que estou de bom humor quando interajo com os clientes/colegas.	○	○	○	○	○
Coloco uma "máscara" quando interajo com os clientes/colegas.	○	○	○	○	○
Finjo que sinto as emoções que necessito de mostrar no meu trabalho.	○	○	○	○	○
Coloco uma "máscara" para mostrar as emoções que necessito no meu emprego.	○	○	○	○	○
Mostro aos clientes/colegas sentimentos diferentes daqueles que sinto.	○	○	○	○	○
Finjo as emoções que mostro quando lido com os clientes/colegas.	○	○	○	○	○
Tento sentir as emoções que tenho que mostrar aos clientes/colegas.	○	○	○	○	○
Faço um esforço para sentir as emoções que tenho que mostrar aos outros.	○	○	○	○	○
Esforço-me por sentir as emoções que tenho que mostrar aos clientes/colegas.	○	○	○	○	○
Esforço-me por desenvolver os sentimentos que tenho que mostrar aos clientes/colegas.	○	○	○	○	○

3. Indique em que medida as seguintes afirmações se aplicam à(s) sua(s) chefia(s):

	1 – Discordo Totalmente	2 - Discordo	3 - Discordo Moderadamente	4 - Não concordo nem discordo	5 - Concordo Moderadamente	6 - Concordo	7 - Concordo Totalmente
A minha chefia ajuda-me a resolver problemas relacionados com o trabalho.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
A minha chefia encoraja-me a desenvolver novas competências.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
A minha chefia mantém-se informada sobre o que sentem e pensam os colaboradores.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
A minha chefia encoraja os colaboradores a participar nas decisões importantes.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
A minha chefia elogia os bons desempenhos.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
A minha chefia incentiva os colaboradores a falar sempre que discordem de alguma decisão.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
A minha chefia recusa-se a explicar as suas ações/decisões.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
A minha chefia recompensa-me pelo bom desempenho.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

4. Indique a frequência que, na sua opinião, se adequa a cada questão:

	1 - Menos de uma vez por mês ou nunca	2 - Uma ou duas vezes por mês	3 - Uma ou duas vezes por semana	4 - Uma ou duas vezes por dia	5 - Várias vezes ao dia
Com que frequência é que o seu trabalho exige que trabalhe rápido?	○	○	○	○	○
Com que frequência é que o seu trabalho exige que trabalhe muito?	○	○	○	○	○
Com que frequência é que o seu trabalho o deixa com pouco tempo para fazer as coisas?	○	○	○	○	○
Com que frequência é que existe um ótimo acordo/negócio a ser feito?	○	○	○	○	○
Com que frequência é que tem mais trabalho do que pode fazer bem?	○	○	○	○	○

PSYCHOLOGICAL DETACHMENT FROM WORK DURING OFF-JOB TIME

5. Indique, por favor, com que frequência as seguintes situações correspondem ao seu trabalho:

	0 - Nunca	1 - Quase nunca	2 - Raramente	3 - Algumas vezes	4 - Frequentemente	5 - Sempre
No meu trabalho sinto-me repleto(a) de energia.	○	○	○	○	○	○
No meu trabalho sinto-me forte e vigoroso(a).	○	○	○	○	○	○
Estou entusiasmado(a) com o meu trabalho.	○	○	○	○	○	○
O meu trabalho inspira-me.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Quando acordo pela manhã sinto vontade de ir trabalhar.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Sinto-me feliz quando estou a trabalhar intensamente.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Tenho orgulho no trabalho que realizo.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Estou imerso(a) no meu trabalho.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Esqueço-me de tudo o resto quando estou a trabalhar.	○	○	○	○	○	○

PSYCHOLOGICAL DETACHMENT FROM WORK DURING OFF-JOB TIME

6. Indique, por favor, o seu grau de concordância com as seguintes afirmações:

	1 - Sempre	2 - Frequentemente	3 - Às vezes	4 - Raramente	5 - Nunca/ Quase
Sente-se esgotado(a) no final de um dia de trabalho?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Sente-se exausto(a) de manhã ao pensar em mais um dia de trabalho?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Sente que cada hora de trabalho é cansativa para si?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Tem energia suficiente para a família e os amigos durante o tempo de lazer?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

	1 - Muito	2 - Bastante	3 - Assim,	4 - Pouco	5 - Muito
O seu trabalho é emocionalmente desgastante?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
O seu trabalho deixa-o(a) frustrado(a)?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Sente-se esgotado(a) por causa do seu trabalho?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

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PSYCHOLOGICAL DETACHMENT FROM WORK DURING OFF-JOB TIME

7. Indique o grau de concordância com as escalas que se seguem, tendo em atenção a seguinte afirmação:

Fora do horário de trabalho...	1 – Discordo Totalmente	2 – Discordo	3 - Não concordo nem discordo	4 - Concordo	5 - Concordo Totalmente
… eu esqueço-me do trabalho.	⚪	⚪	⚪	⚪	⚪
… não penso no trabalho de modo algum.	⚪	⚪	⚪	⚪	⚪
… distancio-me do trabalho.	⚪	⚪	⚪	⚪	⚪
… eu faço uma pausa nas exigências do trabalho.	⚪	⚪	⚪	⚪	⚪

PSYCHOLOGICAL DETACHMENT FROM WORK DURING OFF-JOB TIME

Para fins de tratamento estatístico, agradecemos que preencha as seguintes informações:

1. Género:

⬤ Masculino

⬤ Feminino

⬤ Outro

2. Idade:

⬤ De 18 a 30 anos

⬤ De 31 a 40 anos

⬤ De 41 a 50 anos

⬤ De 51 a 60 anos

⬤ Mais de 60 anos

3. Grau académico:

⬤ Ensino Básico

⬤ Ensino Secundário

⬤ Ensino Superior

⬤ Outro

4. Estado civil:

⬤ Solteiro(a)

⬤ União de facto

⬤ Casado(a)

⬤ Divorciado(a)

⬤ Viúvo(a)

5. Vive com um(a) parceiro(a)?

⬤ Sim

⬤ Não

6. Número de filhos:

[   ]

7. Há quanto tempo trabalha na empresa?

⬤ Menos de 1 ano

⬤ De 1 a 5 anos

⬤ De 6 a 10 anos

⬤ De 11 a 15 anos

⬤ Mais de 16 anos

8. Indique, em média, quantas horas trabalha por **dia**:

[   ]

9. Indique, em média, quantas horas extraordinárias faz por **semana**:

[   ]

10. Tem algum cargo de chefia?

⬤ Sim

⬤ Não

11. Tem responsabilidade sobre alguma equipa?

◯ Sim

◯ Não

12. O seu trabalho permite aceder a conteúdos de trabalho de forma remota (ex.: a partir de casa)?

◯ Sim
◯ Não

Se respondeu que sim, indique, em média, quantas horas por **semana** se conecta remotamente:

[   ]

Para o sorteio do voucher, tenha em atenção as indicações abaixo.

Código [   ]
Data [   ]

O <u>primeiro número</u> corresponde ao código que lhe foi atribuído aleatoriamente pelo programa.

Por favor não se esqueça de **guardar o seu código (pode imprimir ou fazer *print screen*)**, uma vez que, só com este será possível identificar e comprovar se é o/a vencedor/a.

A data serve apenas para garantir que os vencedores responderam ao questionário dentro do prazo estipulado.

Caso não tenha sido gerado nenhum código, guarde esta página na mesma.

<u>Nota:</u> Por favor não se esqueça de avançar para a página seguinte de forma a finalizar o seu questionário.

Caso não tenha sido gerado um código na página anterior, por favor crie o seu código, atendendo à seguinte regra:

3 letras, 4 números, 1 letra, 1 número, 2 letras, 1 número

Por exemplo: PTM1718M2RF8.

Atenção, não utilize este exemplo para a sua resposta!

Coloque-o aqui:

Agradecemos a sua participação neste inquérito.

A sua resposta foi registrada.