

**PSYCHOLOGICAL DETACHMENT FROM
WORK DURING OFF-JOB TIME: A
RELATIONSHIP WITH JOB DEMANDS AND
RESOURCES**

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October 2019

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It is with jubilation I close this enriching and so long-awaited chapter in my life. My academic path was not always easy but, gladly, I always had love and support to help me to get through the toughest situations.

To the person who supervised this dissertation, Professor Carla Costa, I owe her my acknowledgment. Without her dedication and positivism regarding this study, I could never have finished this master's degree.

The respondents of the online questionnaire were fundamental for the success of this dissertation.

I give gratitude and thanks to my colleagues from university in their help with this study since we kept sharing our thoughts and ideas with a hope to help each other's work and souls. Thank you for being so helpful and kind.

To all my friends who listened for months my complaints, doubts and victories regarding this piece of research and who always relativized my concerns, trusting me more than myself. Specially to Rui, my flatmate and videos partner, who revealed to be an excellent critical asset.

Miguel, the person who taught me the most about how to face life's adversities. My evolution as a grown-up is exponential since we met, and you are the reason of all my hard working and objectivity in what comes to achieve my goals.

Lastly, I am very grateful for having parents who strived to raised me according to the noblest values. You did a great job, guys! And thank you for always trust me in the decisions I have been making without ever questioning my assertiveness.

ABSTRACT

Globalization in the 21st century has increased the awareness of psychological detachment from work during off-job time. Studies have shown the importance of psychological detachment as a promoter of recovery from job demands and stressful occurrences at work. In contemporary workplaces, job resources help to reduce the significance given to job demands, thus, mitigating their effects and, consequently, facilitating the recovery process. The present study analyses the relevance of job resources and demands in the process of psychological detachment, considering personal and organizational characteristics as mediators. The hypotheses were verified on a quantitative analysis carried out on 345 employees in Portugal. By performing a multiple regression analysis, it was possible to find that job autonomy has a positive impact on psychological detachment whereas psychological detachment negatively relates with emotional demands. Workload negatively influences this relationship. Personal characteristics did not have a significant impact in the process of unwinding from work, neither a sense of mission. Concerning practical implications, it is important to provide job autonomy in order to promote psychological detachment and, consequently, well-being so as employees can deal with emotional demands. Organisations should act against workload since it appeared negative affect employees' well-being.

Key words: psychological detachment, job resources, job demands, organizational effectiveness, personal traits.

JEL Classification System codes:

O15 – Economic Development: Human Resources.

Y40 Dissertation (unclassified).

RESUMO

Devido à globalização característica do século XXI, a tarefa de distanciamento psicológico do trabalho nas horas de lazer revela-se cada vez mais complexa. Estudos comprovaram a importância do distanciamento do trabalho como forma de recuperação das complicações e exigências laborais. A percepção da existência de recursos no trabalho ajuda a reduzir a significância dada às exigências, atenuando os efeitos das mesmas e, conseqüentemente, facilitando o processo de recuperação. O presente estudo analisa a relevância dos recursos e das exigências do trabalho no processo de distanciamento psicológico, considerando características pessoais e organizacionais como mediadores do mesmo. As hipóteses foram verificadas com base numa análise quantitativa realizada a 345 trabalhadores em Portugal. Executando uma análise múltipla de regressão, foi possível apurar que a autonomia no trabalho tem um impacto positivo no distanciamento psicológico e que o distanciamento psicológico provoca uma diminuição das exigências emocionais do trabalho sendo a carga horária negativamente correlacionada com esta relação. As características pessoais e o sentido de missão demonstraram não influenciar o processo de recuperação dos recursos do indivíduo. Relativamente a implicações práticas, é importante proporcionar autonomia no trabalho como forma de promover o distanciamento psicológico e, conseqüentemente, o bem-estar de forma a que os colaboradores consigam suportar as exigências emocionais do trabalho. As organizações deveriam agir contra a carga horária uma vez que afeta, negativamente, os colaboradores.

Palavras-chave: distanciamento psicológico, recursos do trabalho, exigências do trabalho, eficiência organizacional, características pessoais.

Códigos do Sistema de Classificações JEL:

O15 – Desenvolvimento Económico: Recursos Humanos;

Y40 – Dissertações (sem classificação)

CONTENTS

CHAPTER I - LITERATURE REVIEW	11
1.1 Psychological detachment from work during off-job time	11
1.2 Jobs Demands & Resources	13
1.2.1 Job Autonomy and psychological detachment	15
1.2.2. The moderation of mission on the relationship of job autonomy and psychological detachment	17
1.2.3. Emotional demands and psychological detachment	19
1.2.4. The mediation role of workload on the relationship between psychological detachment and emotional demands	21
1.3 Personal Traits	22
1.3.1 The mediation role of negative emotionality between psychological detachment and emotional demands	22
1.5 Research Hypotheses and Conceptual Model	25
CHAPTER II - METHODOLOGY	27
2.1 Procedure	27
2.2 Sample	27
2.3 Measures	29
CHAPTER III - RESULTS	32
3.1 Correlations	32
3.2 Test of Hypotheses	32
CHAPTER IV - DISCUSSION	39
4.1. Theoretical Implications	39
4.2. Practical implications	40
4.3 Limitations and Future Research	41
CONCLUSION	43
REFERENCES	44

INDEX OF FIGURES

Figure 1 – Conceptual model analysed in the present research.....	26
Figure 2 – Conceptual model of the moderation of mission on the relationship between job autonomy and psychological detachment.....	33
Figure 3 – Statistical model of the moderation of mission on the relationship between job autonomy and psychological detachment	33
Figure 4 - Conceptual model of the mediation of workload on the relationship of psychological detachment and emotional demands.....	35
Figure 5 – Statistical model of the mediation of workload on the relationship of psychological detachment and emotional demands.....	35
Figure 6 – Conceptual model of the mediation of negative emotionality on the relationship of psychological detachment and emotional demands.....	37
Figure 7 – Statistical model of the mediation of negative emotionality on the relationship of psychological detachment and emotional demands.....	37

INDEX OF TABLES

Table 1 – Sociodemographic characteristics of the respondents	27
Table 2 – Mean, Standard Deviation and correlations between the variables	32
Table 3 – Results of the moderation of mission on the relationship between job autonomy and psychological detachment.....	34
Table 4 – Results of the mediation of workload on the relationship of psychological detachment and emotional demands	36
Table 5 – Results of the mediation of negative emotionality on the relationship of psychological detachment and emotional demands.	38

INTRODUCTION

In the 21st century, growth, change and development are happening at speeds, hitherto never seen before. With globalization, businesses are trying to adapt to this new world by insisting employees continuously learn new skills for a marketplace that is in constant flux (Wood & Wilberger, 2015; Aina, Adeyeye & Ige, 2012). The need to continuously be connected to the world is a common feeling among professionals. Online, people often feel safer and more secure since the feeling of awareness is intensely present. Because technology and connectivity are permeated in modern society, the distinction between work and pleasure is becoming increasingly blurred. Nowadays, employees have constant access to work content using digital communication during their time off. It is increasingly difficult to mentally switch off from job related information and consequently, the distinction between work and non-work life becomes faint (Park, Fritz, & Jex, 2011; Sonnentag, Mojza, Binnewies & Scholl, 2008). The importance of separate leisure from non-work life is explained by the negative consequences of a poor recovery on employees' health and well-being (Wendsche, & Lohmann-Haislah, 2017; Sonnentag & Krueger, 2006) when the balance is absent. Hence, this dissertation explores, as its main theme, the psychological detachment from work during off-job time as a recovery experience.

Not only does psychological detachment during off-job time positively contribute to the employee's mental health (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015), it also improves the organization's success (Bliese & Castro, 2000). This study proposes to analyse the variables which are related with this recovery experience with the aim to suggest management practices to promote and encourage psychological detachment.

The research model draws the hypothesis, correlating different variables to better perceive their connection. Firstly, it was recognized the importance of understanding the relationship between job autonomy and psychological detachment being psychological detachment the dependent variable. The relevance of this connection is due to the main role job autonomy plays on the creation and maintenance of well-being (Thompson & Prottas, 2006; Sheldon, Ryan, & Reis, 1996) and its negative association with low levels of psychological detachment when its levels are also low (Wendsche & Lohmann-Haislah, 2017).

Secondly, this study aims to understand the change that occurs in the relationship between job autonomy and psychological detachment when the sense of mission is present. Since mission is closely linked with role clarity (Foote, Seipel, Johnson, & Duffy, 2006) and role clarity relates to health and well-being (De Villiers & Stander, 2011; Bliese & Castro, 2000), it seemed relevant to analyse the weight of mission in the relationship mentioned above.

Thirdly, pretends to understand the relationship of psychological detachment on emotional demands, more specifically, if an employee with high levels of psychological detachment tends to have low levels of emotional demands. This relationship would suggest a direct correlation with employee's health and well-being (Shepherd, Fritz, Hammer, Guros & Meier, 2018), contributing for an effectiveness and efficacy response from employees when faced with stressful situations (de Jonge, Spoor, Sonnentag, Dormann & van den Tooren, 2012).

Lastly, this thesis analysis the relationship between psychological detachment and emotional demands with negative emotionality and workload. Studying negative emotionality as the mediator of the relationship between psychological detachment and emotional demands, provided evidence of the negative correlation of this personal trait with job stress (Naseer, Khan & Khawaja, 2012), with job demands (Bowling, Alarcon, Bragg, & Hartman, 2015) and psychological detachment (Ozer & Benet-Martinez, 2005). Workload was also considered as a mediator of the relationship between psychological detachment and emotional demands due to its proved negative correlation with both psychological detachment (Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005; Cropley & Millward Purvis, 2003) and emotional demands (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015) in previous studies.

Starting with a concrete theory about psychological detachment from work during off-job time, this research exposes the meaning of it adapted to the present theme, with the aim to better understand the main subject and to contextualize it with the remaining components. As well as this, the analysis provided will also comprise a critical and substantiate vision of work characteristics, personal traits and organizational features when elements in the recovery experience. The main findings contribute to a better explanation of the topic, with the expectation that this is valuable information for further researchers in this field. Finally, management practices and suggestions are made in order

Psychological detachment from work during off-job time: a relationship with job demands and resources

to induce an organizational culture where psychological detachment is facilitated and promoted with a vision in employee well-being.

Divided into five chapters, this dissertation presents a literature review regarding psychological detachment from work during off-job time and the variables that were considered to be related with it; the methodology of the collection of data; the analysis of data using a statistical methods; the discussion of the results as well as the implications inherent to the research; a conclusion which wraps the main findings up and draws the final thoughts.

As most researchers focus on the benefits of psychological detachment from work or in the consequences when the process does not occur, it was considered relevant to target the components that can affect the process and that can influence. As a result, this study seeks to a) comprehend if job resources have a positive effect on the process of psychological detachment from work during off-job time and b) if psychological detachment have a negative effect on job demands.

CHAPTER I - LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1 Psychological detachment from work during off-job time

In 1998, Etzion, Eden, and Lapidot developed a study to percept “the effect of a respite from work on employee perception of job stressors and the experience of burnout prior to the respite and on returning to work” (Etzion et al., 1998: 577). Even if the study had a unusual sample (employees of a military and reserve service) it is not the same as vacations since “daily activities during reserve service are quite different from those engaged in while on vacation” (Etzion et al., 1998: 578). However, both demand a break from work activities which implies an interruption in the labour routine. As the authors believed that the detachment from work were not equal among employees, a psychological variable was introduced in order to measure the different levels of detachment. They concluded that after a reserve service respite, the employees’ perception of job stressors and burnout were lower in comparison with the group of employees who did not have a respite. Confirming their theory of detachment being a psychological feature, the process of detachment from work was considered as a “process that involves an individual’s sense of being detached from the ongoing demands that produce chronic job stress” (Etzion et al., 1998: 583). The study was the first pioneering in introducing a psychological dimension in detachment from work, whilst they acknowledged the employees had physical detachment from their work, what the authors gauged was if these employees were also emotionally free from the burdens of work (Etzion et al., 1998: 583).

Hence, the employees’ sense of being away from work was conceptualized as a “sense of detachment from work routine” (Etzion et al., 1998: 579). Thereafter, Sonnentag and Bayer referred to psychological detachment from work during off-job time as “the off-job experience of ‘switching off’ mentally” (Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005: 393), a definition used nowadays among researchers.

Being psychologically detached from work during off-job time, it does not only refer to being physically away from the workplace but also being mentally away from work-related issues (Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005; Sonnentag & Krueger, 2006; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007; Derks, Mierlo & Schmitz, 2014). This process requires not only a distance between individuals and work-related activities including answering phone calls from work or checking emails but also the absence of any thoughts related with work topics (Sonnentag

& Bayer, 2005; Sonnentag & Krueger, 2006; Sonnentag, Mojza & Binnewies, 2010; Sonnentag, 2012). For an individual to be successful in the process of psychological detachment, it is not enough to leave the workplace at the end of the working-day. It is equally important to have a break from work-related issues by mentally forgetting about one's job (Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005). Psychological detachment is proved to allow individuals to return to their previous state of well-being, once work demands are removed (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007; Hahn, Binnewies, Sonnentag & Mojza, 2011; Fritz, Yankelevich, Zarubin, & Barger, 2010) as well as to improve on-the-job morale and performance (Sonnentag & Krueger, 2006). To fully detach from work a mental and physical detachment is needed. Leisure time replenishes one's mental and physical well-being which were lost during the working day.

Resources are, by definition, "objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies that are valued by the individual or that serve as a means for attainment of these objects, personal characteristics, conditions or energies" (Hobfoll, 1989: 516). According to the conservation of resources theory (COR), individuals experience stress when those resources are "threatened or lost or when no resources are gained after resource investment" (Sonnentag, 2001) since "an individual aspires to preserve, protect, and build resources" (Fritz & Sonnentag, 2005). An individual's resources are lost or destroyed by the strain of work-related demands, negatively affecting the individual. Hence, the lack of resources originates an impaired well-being, health and job performance (Sonnentag, 2001; Fritz & Sonnentag, 2005; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007; Binnewies, Sonnentag & Mojza, 2010).

The Effort-Recovery model complements the previous theory, defending that allocating resources in work causes increase reactions in the individuals, such as physiological, behavioural or subjective reactions (Sonnentag, 2001). These reactions can be reverted when the individual is no longer facing work demands and associated effort expenditure, returning to the pre-demand state during recovery (Sonnentag, 2001; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). Together, the conservation of resources theory and the effort-recovery model complement each other because the first one defends the need for a break from work demands aiming the achievement of lost resources by investing other resources and the second one, stands by the occurrence of recovery when work demands are no longer present (Sonnentag, 2001).

Recovery is the process through which individuals restore the lost resources due to job-related stresses. The process that dissolves strain reactions caused by job stressors is named recovery (Meijman & Mulder, 1998). Recovery only occurs if a situation that provokes a strain reaction is absent (Sonnentag, 2001; Sonnentag & Natter, 2004; Sonnentag et al., 2018; Demsky, Hammer, Fritz & Black, 2018). To unwind from work, the individual needs to engage in activities with low demands that do not ask for excessive effort from the cognitive system or which relates with one's job, assuming the importance of the quality of recovery activities (Sonnentag, 2001; Sonnentag & Natter, 2004). Restoring resources through recovery reduces fatigue and stress (Sonnentag, 2001; Hahn & Dormann, 2013) and contributes to the satisfaction of physically or psychological needs of the individuals such as increase of life satisfaction (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007) or increase of working performance (Binnewies et al., 2010).

Recovery can be interpreted as internal - when it happens in a working context - or external - when it happens during off-job time (Geurts & Sonnentag, 2006). Internal recovery is commonly associated with work breaks where employees do not face job stressors that can threaten their resources. The external recovery occurs in a short period of time (such as during the evenings or weekends) or in a longer break from work (for example, vacations) but it is important to bear in mind that, in order to fully recover the individual must be able to be released from harmful situations which add to their stresses and worries.

Sonnentag & Fritz (2007) presented four different types of recovery experiences: psychological detachment, mastery, control and relaxation. The focus of this dissertation will be the psychological detachment aspect. This dissertation examines one's physical and mental state as they disengage from work during leisure time and how this recovery experience can occur. Psychological detachment is considered as an external recovery and "the most relevant recovery experience" (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007: 217).

1.2 Jobs Demands & Resources

In the past, researches have been developed with the intent to identify and understand the characteristics of the job that cause an impact on individual's well-being (Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti & Xanthopoulou, 2007; Bakker, Demerouti & Verbeke, 2004; Sonnentag & Zijlstra, 2006; De Jonge, Dormann, Janssen, Dollard, Landeweerd, & Nijhuis, 2001). Findings suggest job demands like workload, emotional demands and an unfavourable physical environment are negatively correlated with employee's well-being

and, consequently, work-life balance (Van der Doef & Maes, 1999; Tims, Bakker & Derks, 2013; Fritz & Sonnentag, 2015; Biron, Brun, Ivers & Cooper, 2006). On the other hand, supervisor support, job autonomy, job control, named job resources may have the opposite effect, being a trigger for employee's mentally and physical health (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Elfering, Grebner, K Semmer, Kaiser-Freiburghaus, Lauper-Del Ponte & Witschi, 2005; Thompson & Prottas, 2006; Daniels & Guppy, 1994).

As described before, the model of conservation of resources defends the idea people "strive to retain, protect, and build resources and what is threatening to them is the potential or actual loss of these valued resources" (Hobfoll, 1989: 516). However, at work certain situations can occur, provoking the destruction of those resources. Along with this model, the job demands-resources model plays an important role when it comes to refer resources. The model defends the "assumption that whereas every occupation may have its own specific risks factors associated with job stress,(...) thus constituting an overarching model that may be applied to various occupational settings, irrespective of the particular demands and resources involved" (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007: 312). The factors referred above are both from job demands and job resources.

Job demands relate to "those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological (...) effort or skills and are therefore associated with certain physiological and/or physical costs" (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007: 312). Even though job demands do not – necessarily - cause negative consequences on the individuals, they may be a strong concern if the amount of effort and resources they require from the individual is bigger than the ones they can give due to a weak recovery.

When job demands asserts control over an individual who did not have an effective recover, the resources will be exposed and may, therefore, lead to a loss, leading to physical and mental exhaustion of the employee and to health problems (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner & Schaufeli, 2001; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner & Schaufeli, 2000).

On the other hand, job resources refer "to those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that are either/or: functional in achieving work goals; reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs; stimulate personal growth, learning, and development" (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007: 312). As

explained before, the objective of an individual is to maintain and accumulate resources by avoiding its loss. In order to be successful in this mission, it is important to have a balance between job resources and job demands. The reduction of the latter would be the ideal scenario. Consolidating this theory, job resources are not just important to balance the quantity of job demands but it can also diminish the perception of the individuals worth regarding the work-related demands.

Several studies have investigated the possibility of job resources can outweigh job demands, implying that, in the presence of job resources, job demands can be diminished or be eliminated (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; De Jonge, Dollard, Dormann, Le Blanc & Houtman, 2000; Demerouti, & Bakker, 2011; Loh, Idris, Dollard & Isahak, 2018).

Researchers found out that certain job demands can be attenuated when job resources are also present. Precisely, that “work overload, emotional demands (...) did not result in high levels of burnout if employees experienced autonomy, received feedback, (...) or had a high-quality relationship with their supervisor” (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007: 317).

1.2.1 Job Autonomy and psychological detachment

Over the decades, the role of the employee at work has been transverse. Whereas in the 20th century the supervisor or the manager represented an authority figure who dictated the rules for the employees, nowadays this role has changed (Zhang, Jex, Peng & Wang, 2017). The alteration is more attenuated in horizontal hierarchies affiliated in individualist cultures where employees appear to value more independence comparing with collectivist cultures (Diener, Heintzelman, Kushlev, Tay, Wirtz, Lutes & Oishi, 2017; Wu, Luksyte & Parker, 2015). The inequality distribution of decision power regarding one’s job is still a reality on structures with a more vertical system of hierarchy. For example, the countries where there is a higher power distance and/or a high culture of collectivism, the tendency is to distribute the autonomy and power among employees in unequal parts, being the decision power focused on supervisors or managers (Liu, Spector, Liu & Shi, 2011; Erez, 2010).

Autonomy is defined as “the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the employee in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out” (Hackman & Oldham, 1975: 162). A high level of job autonomy is assured when employees have control over work scheduling, decision making and work methods. Autonomous jobs should encourage the employees

to be engaged, motivated and expand the degree of creativity once they feel in control over their job and, by not having an excess of supervision from superiors, their sense of confidence increases by feeling trust from the hierarchical system (Deci & Ryan, 1987; Spreitzer, 1995). Owning the freedom, the flexibility and the power to decide about the time or method of their own job tasks, employees tend to feel more “satisfied, committed, involved, and motivated” (Spector, 1986: 1013). In the presence of job autonomy, the employee’s willingness to put their effort in a job-related task, contributing to achieve better and fastest results, increasing their performance and, consequently, job satisfaction is considerably high (Bakker, Demerouti, Schaufeli, 2003; Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). It has been demonstrated that job autonomy contributes for the conservation of resources (Hobfoll, 2001; Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). Additionally, studies conclude that employees with a high level of job autonomy are more likely to have the ability to cope with stressful situations (Bakker & Demerouti, 2006) and be “satisfied with their job, family, and life in general” (Thompson & Prottas, 2006: 115).

On the other hand, low job autonomy decreases employees’ creativity, motivation, self-confidence and sense of meaningfulness, affecting their effectiveness and productivity (Hamilton Skurak, Malinen, Näswall, & Kuntz, 2018; Wang, & Cheng, 2010; Erez, 2010). In fact, the lack of this job resource “may have detrimental effects on health if individuals are aware that job autonomy is unavailable for them” (De Jonge & Dormann, 2003: 48), provoking the loss of resources (De Jonge & Dormann, 2003; Hobfoll, 1989). Low levels of job autonomy can be the cause to “higher levels of fatigue at the end of the workday” (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015: 96). This assumption does not exclude the hypothesis of the occurrence of health problems on individuals who have low job autonomy.

In previous studies, job autonomy was highlighted as a buffer in the depletion of energy (Ryan & Deci, 2008) and, as it is an important psychological need, leads directly to the increasement of energy levels (Gable et al., 2000). Additionally, “personal well-being is a direct function of the satisfaction of basic psychological needs” (Reis, Sheldon, Gable, Roscoe & Ryan, 2008: 420), it is possible to deduce that job autonomy is positively related with well-being (Sheldon et al., 1996; Thompson & Prottas, 2006) and negatively associated with burnout (van der Ploeg, Merom, Corpuz, & Bauman, 2003). It was also found low levels of autonomy at work “lead employees to spent more time with work-related activities during non-work time” (Wendsche & Lohmann-Haislah, 2017: 19),

Psychological detachment from work during off-job time: a relationship with job demands and resources

indicating that the recover does not occur when the employees are in their leisure time. Since psychological detachment is the most relevant recovery experience (Derks et al., 2014; Sonnentag et al., 2010), it is possible to agree on the failure of this process when job autonomy is low. Hereupon, if a low level of job autonomy conduces to a low level of psychological detachment and if both variables induce well-being in employees' life, this study hypothesises that high levels of job autonomy lead to high levels of psychological detachment from work during off-job time.

H1: Job autonomy is positively related with psychological detachment.

1.2.2. The moderation of mission on the relationship of job autonomy and psychological detachment

Some researchers have argued that culture must be approached both as an understanding of the impact of social structures on people as well as the role individuals play on the creation of those structures (Riley, 1983; Giddens, 1979). In 1983, Riley affirmed that “structures are both the medium and the outcome of interaction” (Riley, 1983: 415). The theory behind this sentence holds, in one hand, based on any interaction since rules and structures are what guide the act of the individual. On the other hand, structures are the outcome of any interaction because they do not exist without them (Riley, 1983).

Culture has been used to explain a broad range of social practices and outcomes in organizational contexts, including organizational effectiveness and performance and job attitudes (Leidner & Kayworth, 2006). The idea of organizational culture appeared with the purpose of understanding the practices and behaviors adopted by the employees of a company as individuals and as a group, forming a common set of patterns regarding people's actions.

This way, organizational culture can be described as “the set of shared, taken-for granted implicit assumptions that a group holds and that determines how it perceives, thinks about and reacts to its various environments” (Schein, 1996: 236). Despite employees creating the organizational culture, this concept is defined in the organization and each time a new individual behaves in this circle, it will adopt the code of the organization. With this in mind, the definition of organizational culture assumes the social importance to influence behaviors in different levels such as individual, group or organizational level.

This can be seen in the direct relationship between groups and the culture of an organization since the core values exist because people put them into practice thanks to

employees having “the same content and meaning at the group and organizational levels” (Hartnell, Ou & Kinicki, 2011: 678). In doing so, culture is considered “as an integral feature of organizational behavior” (Hartnell et al., 2011: 678) contributing to the organizational performance and, consequently, for organizational effectiveness (Hartnell, Ou & Kinicki, 2011; Denison, 1996; Denison & Mishra, 1995; Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv & Sanders, 1990).

Denison proposed “that the most effective organizations are characterized by a strong mission and high levels of employee involvement, internal consistency, and adaptability” (Boyce, Nieminen, Gillespie, Ryan & Denison, 2015: 341). The *mission* must have a clear strategy with a set of possible and realistic actions in order to achieve the pre-defined goals by the organization; *employee involvement* is closely linked with individual development and professional growth, the endorsement of the organization and cooperation between teams; *internal consistency* refers to the solitude of the values, the agreement about them and the adoption of these values; *adaptability* is the extent to which the organization is willing to learn and improve from its principle competitors and clients, promoting dynamic and adaptive responses to organizational and employee level (Boyce et al., 2015). According to Denison, an organization which demonstrates to have all the cultural points mentioned above, is considered an effective organization, along with “the balancing and simultaneous pursuit of the competing demands” (Denison & Mishra, 1995: 2015).

Having a sense of mission is considered an important characteristic in this study with regards to psychological detachment from work during off-job time. A culture with clear purpose was identified as the ability to focus “on goal accomplishment through clarifying organizational goals and structuring employees’ roles to attain the organization’s strategic direction” (Hartnell et al., 2016: 848). When a culture has a strong mission statement, it facilitates the organizational identification from the employees, which leads them to adopt the organizational mission (Gözükara & Simsek, 2016). On the other hand, if an employee finds weaknesses in the objectives of the organization their response can result in an inability or unwillingness to complete their tasks with accuracy.

Role clarity is present when the employees feel they extensively understand their function and their role within the working environment (Foote et al., 2006). The existence of role clarity facilitates the openness to understand mission helping to clarify organizational roles ending in understanding organization’s mission. Understanding the company’s

Psychological detachment from work during off-job time: a relationship with job demands and resources

mission gives security and confidence to employees since they know exactly their professional propose.

Role clarity and job autonomy are commonly linked because when someone's role is clear, induces the understanding and perception of job autonomy, giving the employee dexterity to command a work day (Allameh, Harooni, Chaleshtari & Asadi, 2013). Since the health and well-being of employees are maintained or created when the organization has a range of qualities including role clarity (De Villiers & Stander, 2011; Bliese & Castro, 2000), it is expected employees experience well-being when job autonomy and mission are present.

Thus, understanding one's roles will help better understand the organization's mission and consequently, help in the restoration of resources and well-being. By association, as role clarity is intrinsically linked with the company's mission. As a result, the higher up the company's mission, the greater the impact the role of job autonomy has on psychological detachment.

H2: Mission moderates the impact of job autonomy on psychological detachment, to the extent that the relationship will be stronger when mission is higher.

1.2.3. Emotional demands and psychological detachment

Employees are constantly confronted with physical, cognitive, and emotional job demands. Being the emotional dimension of job demands, emotional demands are "issues at work that affect the employee personality and are emotionally drained" (Bakker, Lieke, Prins, & Van der Heijden, 2011: 172). "Emotional demands can be defined as those aspects of the job that require sustained emotional effort because of interactional contact with clients" (de Jonge & Dormann, 2003: 59). Usually they involve enhancement or inhibition of emotions, being more evident in jobs which involves customers, patients or frequent interpersonal interactions at the workplace. For example, in recruitment consulting, when persuading the individual to accept a new job offer by explaining all the arguments in favour of it, it is hardly impossible not to get emotional involved, especially if empathy was created in the past with the candidate. Conversely, if the job offer is rejected, the consultant may need to camouflage any resulting emotions. In both cases, there is the presence of emotional demands once the employee is psychological and emotionally involved in the situation. When an employee has the need to suppress certain

emotions in order to be successful at work, it means the employee is suffering from emotional demands (De Jonge et al., 2000).

To deal with objections and demanding situations, employees spend attention, effort and resources which contributes for exhaustion and later, for a poor health and well-being (Loh et al., 2018; Zijlstra & Sonnentag, 2006). According to the Conservation of Resources theory, employees strive to restore lost resources. By having time away from work, employees are able to replenish these lost or threatened resources by investing in new ones (Sonnentag, 2001). So long as practised activities in their free time are unrelated to work, employees will be able to truly relax as their energies are not transfixed with job-related thoughts or emotions (Safstrom & Hartig, 2013). The recovery avoids the overwhelming of emotions, thoughts and feelings regarding one's job, combating exhaustion and poor well-being not only in leisure time but also during work hours.

When an employee is condemned to facing a long period of increased strain, they mobilize increased energy to meet these demands (Sonnentag et al., 2010), experiencing a loss of resources which will accelerate negative responses such as poor physical health or emotional exhaustion (van der Doef & Schelvis, 2019; Rodriguez-Muñoz, Sanz-Vergel, Demerouti and Bakker, 2012; de Jonge, Le Blanc, Peeters & Noordam, 2008; Bakker et al., 2003 Siegrist, 1996). Hereby, emotional demands are considered “a strong predictor (more damaging) of psychological health” (Loh et al., 2018: 626) since they are the trigger for an imbalance health and well-being. The lack of psychological detachment may “narrow focus to salient problems, increase strain, and interfere with sleep” (Shepherd et al., 2018: 3), emotional exhaustion and health complaints (Sonnentag and Fritz, 2007).

Psychological detachment from work during off-job time “can act as a buffer against demands that deplete regulatory capacity” (Shepherd et al., 2018: 3). Following this theory, psychological detachment is negatively correlated with emotional demands since when one increases, the other has the opposite reaction. Employees experience recovery during leisure time, their levels of energy and resources are restored, helping them to face emotional demands without feeling an excessive amount of exhaustion or stress (Shepherd et al., 2018). Psychological detachment is negatively related with emotional demands since attenuates the effects of this job demand on employee health and well-being. Unwinding after work during leisure time allows employees to avoid being overwhelmed with job demands when going back to work the next day. This recovery

Psychological detachment from work during off-job time: a relationship with job demands and resources

will help them to deal with unfavourable work situations in a way it would not be possible if recovery had not occurred (de Jonge et al., 2012).

H3: Psychological detachment positively relates with emotional demands.

1.2.4. The mediation role of workload on the relationship between psychological detachment and emotional demands

Considered as a job demand, workload “represents the sheer volume of work required of an employee” (Spector & Jex, 1998: 358). This representation is only valid if workload is assumed as quantitative in terms of working hours and level of production. Supposing the volume of work is high and the time an employee disposes is not enough to accomplish all the tasks, high workload “implies that one has to accomplish a high amount of work within little time” (Sonnentag & Krueger, 2006: 199). Not being able to focus on core job-related tasks, high workload can be related with exhaustion, threatening the employee’s resources leading to negative organizational outcomes (Walsh, Yang, Dose & Hille, 2015).

High workload is often related with psychological detachment because since they do not have enough time to accomplish their tasks, employees will be worried about it. Once they arrive at home, instead of forgetting job-related problems, they will continue thinking about the unfinished tasks, feeling worried or stressed for not completing what was assigned and creating solutions to perceive how to realize the tasks the next day, accumulating tasks. It is a cycle hard to break. In other cases, individuals have the need to finish their tasks at home and doing this, it is impossible to unwind and to fully detach from work, once they do not use their off-job time to fully recover but to finish their job-related daily tasks (Sonnentag & Krueger, 2006: 199).

Having this in mind, workload has been considered as “particularly detrimental to detachment” (Sonnentag & Krueger, 2006) and studies proved the existence of a “negative relationship between workload and detachment” (Sonnentag & Krueger, 2006; Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005; Cropley & Millward Purvis, 2003). “Emotional demands are more detrimental under conditions of high workload” (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017: 273) and proving when employees face high levels of workload, usually, they face high levels of emotional demands (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015; American Psychological Association, 2013).

Psychological detachment from work during off-job time: a relationship with job demands and resources

H4: Workload mediates the relationship of psychological detachment on emotional demands.

1.3 Personal Traits

1.3.1 The mediation role of negative emotionality between psychological detachment and emotional demands

Over the decades, personal traits have been studied in order to find more accurately taxonomy and measurement to classify them. One of the major function of traits concepts is “to classify, describe, and summarize a person’s observable behaviors and internal experiences” (John, Hampson & Goldberg, 1991: 348). The complexity of this matter is due to the difference that people demonstrate when it comes to show their ideas and vision through actions. However, after many years of studies, the researchers found a standard class of definition that could be used to quantify these components on people.

In the 1920’s, Klages was the first psychologist to transform the natural and common language regarding personality to scientific language, followed by Baumgarten, and Allport and Odbert (John and Srivastava, 1999). These authors developed a “study of the personality-relevant terms in an unabridged English dictionary” (John and Srivastava, 1999: 103). The result was an 18.000 terms’ list which they divided into four categories aiming to compose the research: personal traits; temporary states, moods and activities; highly evaluative judgments of personal conduct and reputation; physical characteristics, capacities and talents.

A few years later, Norman re-distribute the terms that Allport and Odbert had construct in 1936, to seven categories: stable “biophysical” traits; temporary states; activities; social roles; social effects; evaluative terms; anatomical and physical terms (John and Srivastava, 1999). By doing so, Norman demonstrated the complexity and ampleness of the personality lexicon explained in the natural language. Due to overlapping and imprecision of the taxonomy, the list of terms was adapted to a simple and short list of 35 variables and identified 12 different types of personality (John and Srivastava, 1999).

From here, Fiske simplified the descriptions of Cattell’s variables and from this work, Tupes and Christal found “five relatively strong and recurrent factors and nothing more of any consequence” (Tupes & Christal, 1961: 14). These five factors were extraversion or surgency; agreeableness; emotional stability versus neuroticism; intellect or openness.

The denomination of the “Big Five” came from the findings made by the initial study of Cattell. This title does not imply that personality can be measured through five dimensions with efficacy and suggests the vastness and the broad of each dimension.

The “Big Five” taxonomy has been studied over since. It was only at the end of the 20th century that John, Donahue and Kentle (1991) created the Big Five Inventory. This brief inventory was composed by 44 items and because of that, it was shorter and appeared with the need to have a narrow, concise and clear instrument to represent personality dimensions (John and Srivastava, 1999).

This list has continued to today and it is used by many researchers. It was adapted many times but the general definition follows the same ideology as the original. The dimensions are divided in five different categories: agreeableness – a dimension where individuals tend to deal with situations with tolerance, flexibility and cooperativeness (Witt, Burke, Barrick & Mount, 2002); conscientiousness – reflects the tendency of individuals to suppress their impulses in order to strict within the rules or to achieve their goals in a long-term period being evident the self-discipline and orderliness (DeYoung, Hirsh, Shane, Papademetris, Rajeevan & Gray, 2010); extraversion – corresponds to the inclination to experience positive emotions demonstrating a broad range of traits such as sociability, talkativeness and assertiveness (DeYoung et al., 2010); openness to experience – individuals who belong to this dimension are more willing to accept changes and display a high curiosity for intellectual experiences demonstrating their imagination, creativity and intelligence (Mount, Barrick, Scullen & Rounds, 2005; Komarraju, Karau & Schmeck, 2009); neuroticism – is associated with a high frequency experiencing negative emotions , including anxiety or depression (Eysenck, 2017).

In 2017, Soto & John decided to revise the model in order to induce an upgrade on the nomination of the personal traits. The most significant change was the change from Neuroticism to Negative Emotionality. The main goal of this adjustment was to move from a clinical connotation connected with neuroticism to negative emotionality since “highlight this domain’s focus on negative experiences while more clearly distinguishing it from psychiatric illness” (Soto & John, 2017: 120).

As the Big Five-Traits have been associated with a bunch of different behaviours (Ozer & Benet-Martinez, 2005), it is expected employees high on negative emotionality to have more difficult when it comes to psychological detachment from work during off-job time

since they experience work demands intensively (Bowling et al., 2015). Since a negative emotionality employee has more difficulty dealing with stressful situations, the ability to overtake when face with job demand is lower when comparing with an employee who does not have this type of personality. Following this theory, these individuals are less likely to be emotionally balanced, including less likelihood to psychological detachment from work. This personal trait is not only positively associated with job demands but it is also negatively associated with life satisfaction (Naseer et al., 2012). Since emotional demands are intertwined with job demands, this study suggests that negative emotionality is correlated with emotional demands.

This study supposes negative emotionality is negative related with psychological detachment and emotional demands since employees high in negative emotionality tend to struggle when dealing with emotional demands. The main goal of connect personal traits and psychological detachment is to understand “the degree to which an employee experiences facilitation is likely to be influenced by his or her personality” (Wayne, Musisca & Fleeson, 2004: 109).

H5: Negative emotionality mediates the relationship of psychological detachment on emotional demands.

Psychological detachment from work during off-job time: a relationship with job demands and resources

1.5 Research Hypotheses and Conceptual Model

H1: Job autonomy is positively related with psychological detachment.

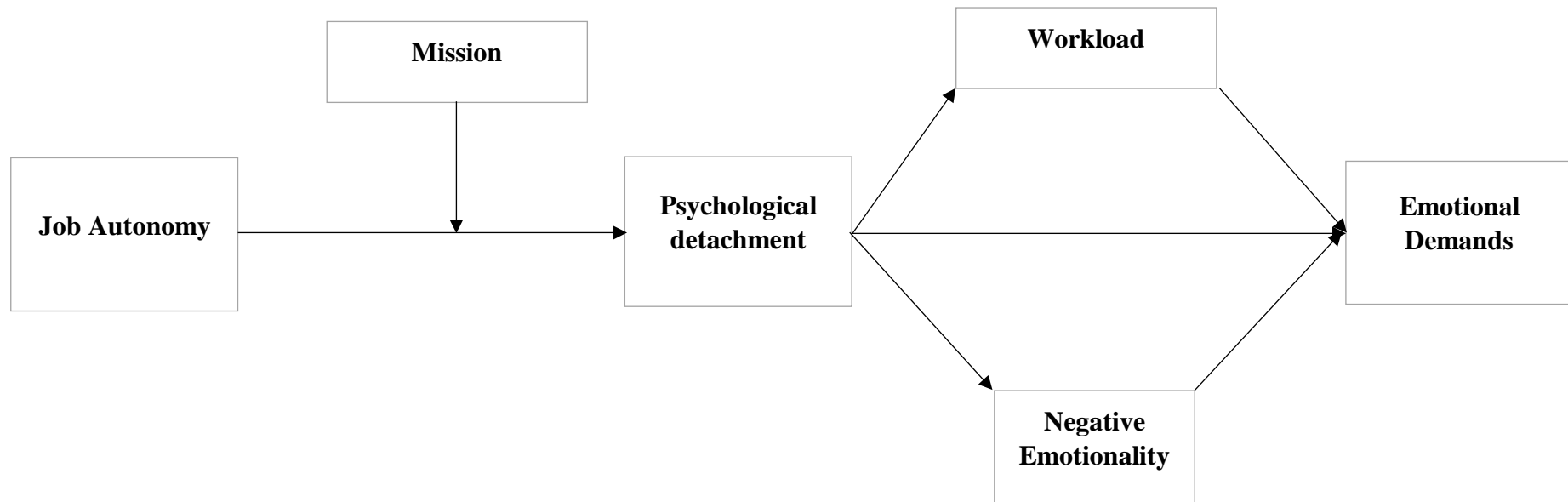
H2: Mission moderates the impact of job autonomy on psychological detachment, to the extent that the relationship will be stronger when mission is higher.

H3: Psychological detachment positively relates with emotional demands.

H4: Workload mediates the relationship of psychological detachment on emotional demands.

H5: Negative emotionality mediates relationship of psychological detachment on emotional demands.

Figure 1 – Conceptual model



CHAPTER II - METHODOLOGY

2.1 Procedure

To ensure the study had a reliable and solid conclusion, the sample had to meet a couple of criteria. As the major goal is to interpret psychological detachment as a reducer of job demands and an outcome of job resources, respondents had to be work-based in Portugal and over 18 years old.

As it was an online survey created on Google Docs, the participants were recruited using a professional social media platform according to the requirements mentioned above. Each applicant responded to the questions provided and submitted the online survey.

2.2 Sample

From a total of 345 respondents, 52.5% were females and 47.2% males. Only one respondent had a different gender. The average age was 31.86 and almost all the respondents had a higher education or a completed postgraduate programme (89.6%). 57.4% of the respondents were single, 25.2% were married and 13.6% were in a domestic partnership. 71% of the respondents did not have kids. 55.6% affirmed to work in an IT company, 22.9% said they worked in a Consulting and similar services company and 20.3% worked in companies from different areas such as Trade and Retail, Financial Services and Insurance and others. Regarding tenure, 73.6% of the respondents work in the company either for less than 1 year or between 1 to 3 years. While 73.6% of the respondents did not hold a leadership position, 26.4% had a team to lead. Most of the respondents had remote access to work-related content (83.8%) and they assumed they spent, in average, 4.25 hours per week, accessing it (SD=5.609).

Table 1 – Sociodemographic characteristics of the respondents

		N	\bar{X}	SD	%
Gender	Female	181			52.5
	Male	163			47.2
	Other	1			0.3
Age	20 to 30	190	31.86	8.617	55.1

Psychological detachment from work during off-job time: a relationship with job demands and resources

	31 to 40	95			27.5
	41 to 50	49			14.2
	51 to 60	10			2.9
	61 to 70	1			0.3
Education	Compulsory School	2			0.6
	Upper Secondary School	21			6.1
	Higher Education or Postgraduate Programmes	309			89.6
	Other	13			3.8
Marital Status	Single	198			57.4
	Domestic Partnership	47			13.6
	Married	87			25.2
	Divorced	10			2.9
	Widowed	1			0.3
	Other	2			0.6
Have children	Yes	100			29
	No	245			71
Company's area	Administrative Activities and Support Services	13			3.8
	Financial Services and Insurance	14			4.1
	Trade and Retail	26			7.5
	Trade and Retail	79			22.9
	Consulting and Similar Services	196			56.8
	Information Technology (IT)	17			4.9
	Other				
Tenure	Less than 1 year	104			30.1
	1 to 3 years	150			43.5
	4 to 6 years	33			9.6
	7 to 9 years	14	3.78	5.623	4.1
	10 to 12 years	20			5.8
	More than 13 years	24			7
Leadership Position	Yes	91			26.4
	No	254			73.6

Psychological detachment from work during off-job time: a relationship with job demands and resources

Remote access to work-related content	Yes	289			83.8
	No	56			16.2
Hours accessing work-related content, remotely	0	58			20.1
	1	40			13.8
	2	53			18.3
	3	18			6.2
	4	26			9
	5	28			9.7
	6	11			3.8
	7	2			0.7
	8	18			6.2
	9	1	4.25	5.609	0.3
	10	15			5.2
	12	2			0.7
	15	3			1
	16	2			0.7
	18	1			0.3
	20	6			2.1
	30	3			1
	32	1			0.3
40	1			0.3	

2.3 Measures

Workload

Workload was measured using the scale of 5 items from the Quantitative Workload Inventory (QWI; Spector & Jex, 1998). From a 5-point Likert Scale where 1="Less than once per month" and 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 0.814.

Emotional Demands

The level of emotional demands was assessed with the Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire (CPQ; Kristensen, Hannerz, Høgh & Borg, 2005). 4 items were measured

Psychological detachment from work during off-job time: a relationship with job demands and resources

in a 5-points Likert scale (1=Never/Hardly; 5=Always) and sample items are “Is your work emotionally demanding?” and “Do you get emotionally involved in your work?”. The Cronbach’s α value was 0.782.

Job Autonomy

The level of job autonomy was assessed with the Work Design Questionnaire (WDQ; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). With a total of 9 items, this variable is divided in three categories: work scheduling autonomy, decision-making autonomy and work methods autonomy. The measurement was made by using a 5-point Likert scale (1=“Strongly Disagree; 5=“Strongly Agree”) and sample items are “The job allows me to plan how I do my work” or “The job allows me to decide on my own how to go about doing my work”. The Cronbach’s α for this scale was 0.947.

Personal Traits

Negative emotionality was measured by a scale presented in the Big Five Inventory-2 (BFI-2) (Soto & John, 2017). The 12 items were divided into three categories, which were measured with a 5-point Likert scale (1=“Disagree Strongly”; 5=“Agree Strongly”). Sample items of negative emotionality are “I see myself as someone who can be tense” and “I am someone who worries a lot.”. The Cronbach’s α value was 0.801 for negative emotionality.

Organizational Effectiveness

To determine the level of organizational culture and effectiveness, a scale developed by Denison and Mishra was used (Denison & Mishra, 1993). However, as the scale was divided in four categories, it was used the one denominated as mission. It was measured with a 5-point Likert scale (1=“Strongly Disagree”; 5=“Strongly Agree”) and sample item is “There is a shared vision of the what this organization will be like in the future”. The Cronbach’s α value was 0.758 .

Psychological Detachment from work

Seen as a recovery process strategy, psychological detachment from work during off-job time was measured according to the scale from Recovery Experience Questionnaire (REQ: Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). The 4 items were measured according to a 5-point Likert scale were 1=“I do not agree at all” and 5=“I fully agree”. Samples items are “I

Psychological detachment from work during off-job time: a relationship with job demands and resources

forget about work” or “I get a break from the demands of work”. The Cronbach’s α value was 0.856.

CHAPTER III - RESULTS

3.1 Correlations

The table above indicates the mean, the standard deviation and the Cronbach's alpha value of all the variables mentioned in the research's model. The correlation between the variables is also shown which was calculated using the Pearson's correlation coefficient that measures the relationship between linear variables.

It is possible to conclude that the most relevant relationships are between emotional demands and workload ($r=0.51$; $p<0.01$), emotional demands and psychological detachment ($r=-0.35$; $p<0.01$) and workload and psychological detachment ($r=-0.33$; $p<0.01$).

Table 2 – Mean, Standard Deviation and correlations between the variables

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Psychological Detachment	2.83	0.96	(0.86)					
2. Mission	3.73	0.91	0.06	(0.77)				
3. Job Autonomy	3.96	0.80	-0.07	0,26**	(0.95)			
4. Emotional Demands	2.96	0.86	-0.35**	-0.10	0.01	(0.78)		
5. Workload	3.42	0.92	-0.33**	0.11	0.12*	0.51**	(0.81)	
6. Negative Emotionality	2.63	0.59	-0.12*	-0.20**	-0.27**	0.15**	0.01	(0.80)

The value of the Cronbach's Alpha is in bold and between brackets.

* $p<0.05$ (2-tailed)

** $p<0.01$ (2-tailed)

3.2 Test of Hypotheses

To analyse the collected data for the present study and to understand the hypothetical relationships between variables, PROCESS macro was added to IBM SPSS Statistics (Hayes, 2006).

There is a linear regression between the independent variable (X_1 =Job Autonomy) and the dependent variable (Y_1 =Psychological detachment) with a moderation between this relationship (M_1 =Mission). To analyse these hypotheses, the data was interpreted using the Model 2 of Process Macro.

Figure 2 – Conceptual model of the moderation of mission on the relationship between job autonomy and psychological detachment

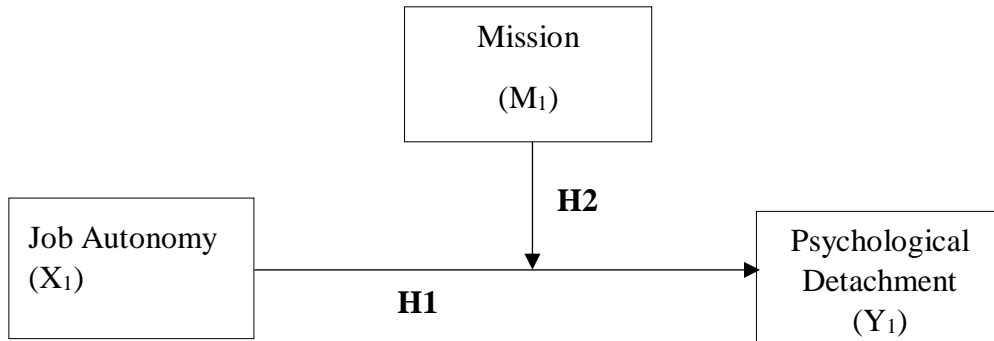


Figure 3 – Statistical model of the moderation of mission on the relationship between job autonomy and psychological detachment

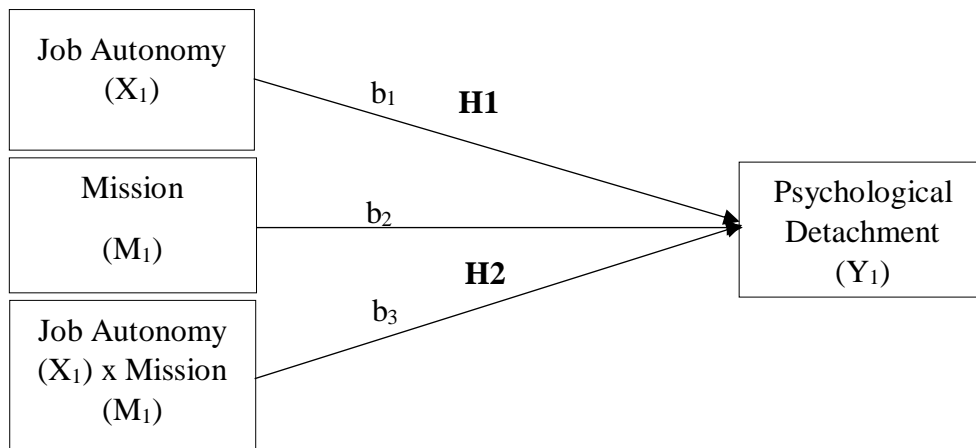


Table 3 – Results of the moderation of mission on the relationship between job autonomy and psychological detachment

Moderation	b	SE	t	p	CI (Lower)	CI (Upper)
$X_1 \rightarrow Y_1$ (b ₁)	0.4883	0.2437	2.0036	0.0459	0.0089	0.9676
$M_1 \rightarrow Y_1$ (b ₂)	0.7509	0.2706	2.7747	0.0058	0.2186	1.2831
$X_1 \times M_1 \rightarrow Y_1$ (b ₃)	-0.1642	0.0649	-2.5300	0.0119	-0.2919	-0.0365
Conditional effect for low mission	-0.0044	0.0777	-.0572	0.9544	-0.1572	0.1484
Conditional effect for medium mission	-0.1687	0.0715	-2.3602	0.0188	-0.3092	-0.0281
Conditional effect for high mission	-0.2508	0.0883	-2.8390	0.0048	-0.4245	-0.0770

Through this research, mission was considered a possible moderator, suggesting that, along with job autonomy, it would help the employee to detach from work during off-job time.

As visible in Table 3, the results indicate a positive significant relationship between job autonomy and psychological detachment (b₁) (b=0.4883, t(3.341)=2.0036, p<0.05, 95% CI 0.0089 to 0.9676). Hence, H1 is supported.

Mission was reported as moderator of the relationship between job autonomy and psychological detachment. The overall model is significant: R²=0.0283, F(3,341)=3.3085, p<0.05. The results show a significant and positive effect of mission on psychological detachment (b₂) (b=0.751, t(3,341)= 2.7747, p<0.05, 95% CI 0.2186 to 1.2831). Regarding the interaction between job autonomy and mission, it provokes an increase on the significance of the model: ΔR²=0.0182, F(1,341)=6.4007, p<0,05. The effect on the dependent variable is also significant but negative (b₃) (b=-0.1642, t(3,341)= -2.5300, p<0.05, 95% CI -0.2919 to -0.0365). Viewed in detail and contrary of what was expected, there is a negative association between job autonomy and psychological detachment when the levels of mission are high (b=-0.2508, t(1,341)=-2.8390, p<0.05, 95% CI -0.4245 to -

Psychological detachment from work during off-job time: a relationship with job demands and resources

0.0770). Thus, there is a negative moderation, contrary of what was expected, which means mission negatively affects job autonomy and psychological detachment, disturbing the protection of the health and well-being of employees. This finding showed that as higher the sense of mission, the lower the relationship between job autonomy and psychological detachment. Thus, H2 is not supported.

Figure 4 - Conceptual model of the mediation of workload on the relationship of psychological detachment and emotional demands

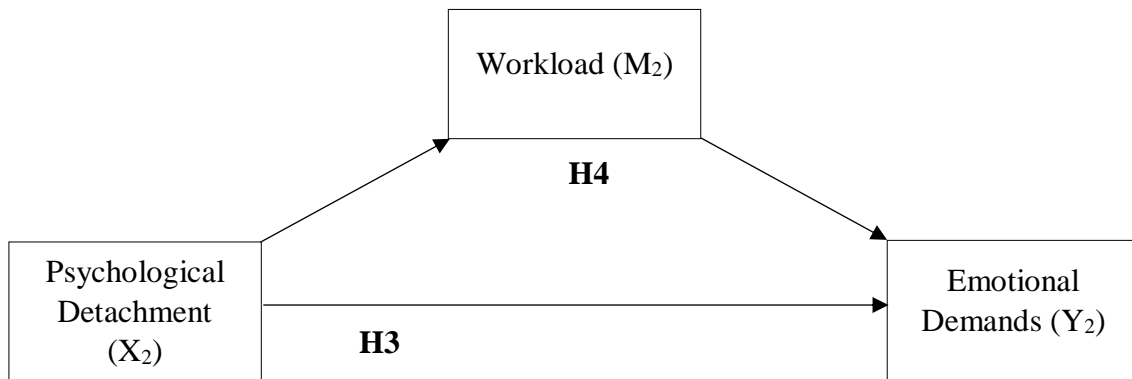


Figure 5 – Statistical model of the mediation of workload on the relationship of psychological detachment and emotional demands

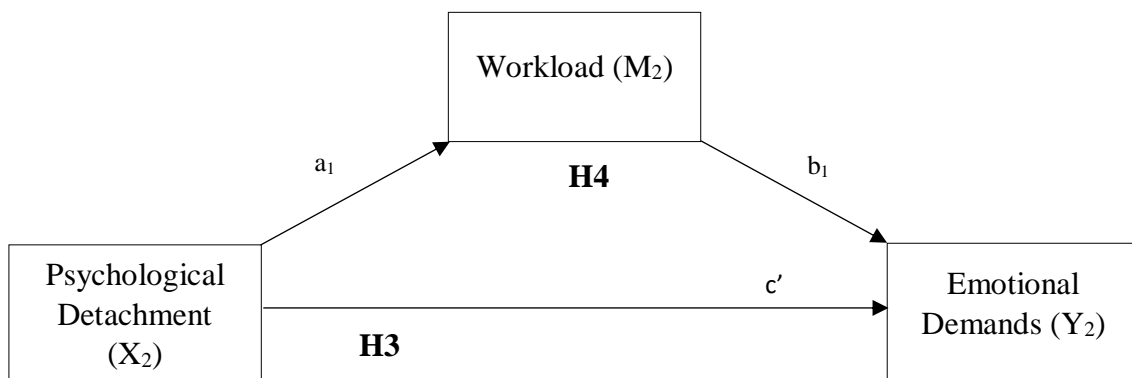


Table 4 – Results of the mediation of workload on the relationship of psychological detachment and emotional demands

Mediation		b	SE	t	p	CI (Lower)	CI (Upper)
$X_2 \rightarrow M_2$	(a ₁)	-0.3144	0.0490	-6.4138	0.0000	-0.4108	-0.2180
$M_2 \rightarrow Y_2$	(b ₁)	0.4109	0.0445	9.2309	0.0000	0.3233	0.4984
$X_2 \rightarrow Y_2$	(c)	-0.3156	0.0451	-6.9986	0.0000	-0.4043	-0.2269
$X_2 \rightarrow Y_2$	(c')	-0.1864	0.0428	-4.3597	0.0000	-0.2705	-0.1023
$X_2 \rightarrow M_2 \rightarrow Y_2$	(a ₁ *b ₁)	-0.1922	0.0252			-0.1805	-0.0811

Workload was considered a mediator in the relationship between psychological detachment and emotional demands. In this study, it was considered an existent negative relationship between psychological detachment and emotional demands. The main concept is the diminution of emotional demands when psychological detachment is higher. According to the results there is a negative and significant effect of psychological detachment on emotional demands (c) (b=-0.3156 , t(2.342)=-6.9986, p<0.001, 95% CI -0.4043 to -0.2269). Thus, H3 is accepted

Therefore, this mediation suggests that the relationship between psychological detachment and emotional demands is negatively affected by workload. As it is possible to observe in Table 4, the mediation of workload in the relationship between psychological detachment and emotional demands is significant: $R^2=0.1071$; $F_{(1,343)}=41.1372$; $p<0.001$. According to the statistical results, there is a negative effect of psychological detachment on workload (a₁) (b=-0.3144, $t_{(1,343)}=-6.4138$; $p<0.001$, 95% CI -0.4108 to -0.2180) and a significant and positive effect of workload on emotional demands (b₁) (b=0.4109, $t_{(2,342)}=9.2309$; $p<0.001$, 95% CI 0.3233 to 0.4984).

The effect of psychological detachment on emotional demands when workload is not present proved there is a negative significance (c') (b=-0.1864, $t_{(1,343)}=-4.3597$, $p<0.001$, 95% CI -0.2705 to -0.1023). Lastly, the indirect effect of psychological detachment on emotional demands in the presence of workload is negative and significant (a₁*b₁) (b=-0.1922, 95% CI -0.1805 to -0.0811). The relationship between psychological detachment

Psychological detachment from work during off-job time: a relationship with job demands and resources

and emotional demands becomes more negative when workload is present, indicating workload is a mediator of the relationship. Thereby, H4 is supported.

Figure 6 – Conceptual model of the mediation of negative emotionality on the relationship of psychological detachment and emotional demands

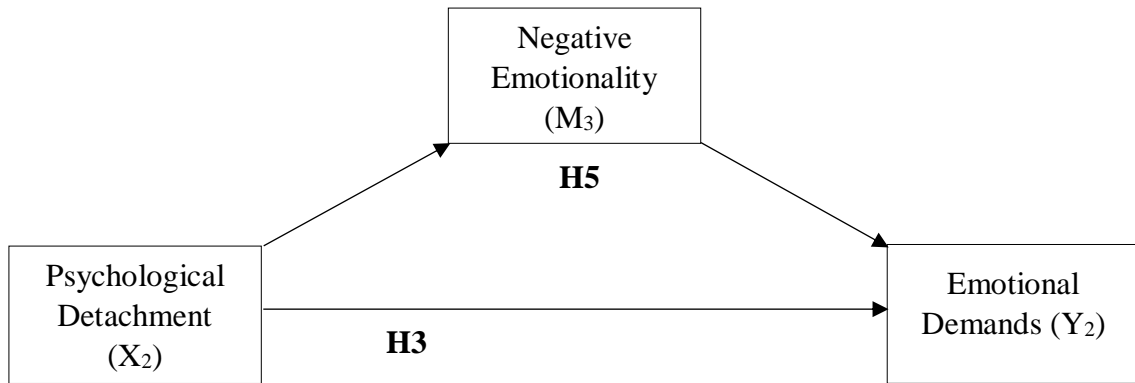


Figure 7 – Statistical model of the mediation of negative emotionality on the relationship of psychological detachment and emotional demands

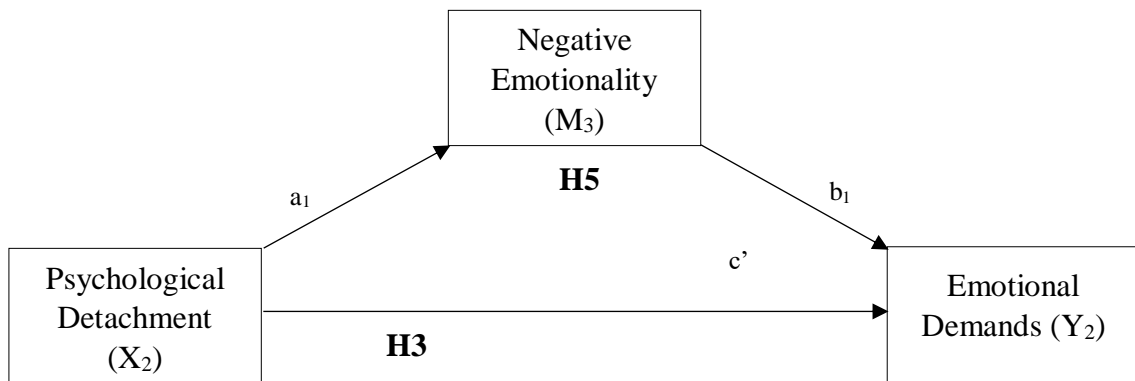


Table 5 – Results of the mediation of negative emotionality on the relationship of psychological detachment and emotional demands

Mediation		b	SE	t	p	CI (lower)	CI (Upper)
$X_2 \rightarrow M_3$	(a ₁)	-0.0728	0.0328	-2.2189	0.0271	-0.1373	-0.0083
$M_3 \rightarrow Y_2$	(b ₁)	0.1626	0.0738	2.2024	0.0283	0.0174	0.3077
$X_2 \rightarrow Y_2$	(c)	-0.3156	0.0451	-6.9986	0.0000	-0.4043	-0.2269
$X_2 \rightarrow Y_2$	(c')	-0.3038	0.0452	-6.7258	0.0000	-0.3926	-0.2149
$X_2 \rightarrow M_3 \rightarrow Y_2$	(a ₁ *b ₁)	-0.0118	0.0081			-0.0305	0.0012

In the present study, negative emotionality was considered as a possible mediator between psychological detachment and emotional demands. Thus, according to the hypothesis, the relationship of psychological detachment from work during off-job time and emotional demands is negatively adversely affected when negative emotionality is present.

The model of the mediation of negative emotionality on the relationship between psychological detachment and emotional demands is significant: $R^2=0.0142$; $F_{(1,343)}=4.9237$; $p<0.05$. The results showed a negative effect of psychological detachment on negative emotionality (a₁) ($b=-0.0728$, $t_{(1,343)}=-2.2189$, $p<0.05$, 95% CI -0.1373 to -0.0083) and significant and positive effect of negative emotionality on emotional demands (b₁) ($b=0.1626$, $t_{(2,342)}=2.2024$; $p<0.05$, 95% CI 0.0174 to 0.3077). The numbers indicate there is a significant effect of psychological detachment on emotional demands, in the absence of negative emotionality (c') ($b=-0.3038$, $t_{(2,342)}=-6.7258$, $p<0.001$, 95% CI -0.3926 to -0.2149). However, the indirect effect of psychological detachment on emotional demands when negative emotionality is present, indicated a not significant effect (a₁*b₁) ($b=-0.0118$, 95% CI -0.0305 to 0.0012). Thereby, H5 is not supported.

CHAPTER IV - DISCUSSION

4.1. Theoretical Implications

The purpose of this research was to analyse how psychological detachment was affected by job autonomy and how this recovery experience could affect emotional demands. In order to fully understand the role of psychological detachment in these scenarios, it was crucial to have a deeper understanding of each of the variables and find previous researches which linked those components.

As hypothesised in previous studies, there is a positive relationship between job autonomy and psychological detachment indicating when job autonomy is a recurring feature of employee's daily basis, the process of successfully unwinding from work during leisure time is more likely to successfully happen (Wendsche & Lohmann-Haislah, 2017; Demerouti & Bakker, 2011; Hobfoll, 2001). Furthermore, mission was considered a moderator in the relationship between job autonomy and psychological detachment, intending to positively influence the relationship, by strengthen it (Allameh et al., 2013; De Villiers & Stander, 2011; Bliese & Castro, 2000). However, despite the positive and significance of the correlation of mission with both job autonomy and psychological detachment, individually, when it comes to verify the effect of mission on the relationship between job autonomy and psychological detachment, the effect is significantly more negative in correlation with the level of mission increasing. Rejecting previous literature, not only does mission fail to influence this relationship but actually negatively influences its impact.

Furthermore, following the studies which suggested the correlation of psychological detachment with emotional demands, it was demonstrated its truth. Psychological detachment negatively affected emotional demands, as it was foreseen (Shepherd et al., 2018) inferring the diminution of emotional demands when psychological detachment is higher.

Moreover, negative emotionality was considered a mediator of the relationship between psychological detachment and emotional demands. According to literature, negative emotionality added negative significance to the relationship between psychological detachment and emotional demands (Naseer et al., 2012; Wayne et al., 2004). However, even though this mediator explained the negative correlation between the variables

mentioned above, when comparing the direct and indirect effect of negative emotionality on the relationship, there is not a strong difference between them.

Regarding workload, the goal was to evaluate the interaction of this job demand as a mediator in the relationship of psychological detachment and emotional demands. The hypothesis expected the workload to explain the negative correlation (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015), which was verified. Workload does not only have a significant relationship with both psychological detachment and emotional demands on an individual basis but also increases their negative correlation when added as a mediator.

4.2. Practical implications

In organisations, the importance given to work-life balance has been increasing over the years (Baral & Bhargava, 2010). The growing awareness of the importance of mental health has increased pressure on organisations to seek solutions and practices with the purpose to maintain and create conditions to sustain employees' health and well-being (Kossek, Valcour & Lirio, 2014; Bell, Rajendran & Theiler, 2012).

This study contributes to the understanding how recovery experience can be affected by job resources and how can affect job demands. The findings suggest job autonomy plays an important and critical role when it comes to unwind from work during leisure time. As the literature previously confirmed, when an employee believes to have the freedom and flexibility to adjust work schedules, procedures and manage priorities, the greater the chance of recovering their physical and mental resources lost in the workplace. (Wang & Cheng, 2010; Thompson & Prottas, 2006). In this regard, organizations should focus on promote job autonomy as a common and regular feature in the workplace as a method to guarantee the psychological detachment of the employees and, consequently, their health and well-being.

Despite the theory being that mission would act as a moderator in the relationship between job autonomy and psychological detachment, this variable did not positively affect the strength of this relationship. In contrary, mission revealed to weaken the relationship, suggesting that its presence would only deplete the positive correlation of job autonomy on psychological detachment. This situation can be explained by the attachment and engagement someone has, concerning the organizations' mission, impeding one's disengagement when leaving the workplace.

Psychological detachment from work during off-job time: a relationship with job demands and resources

Showing a negative relationship between psychological detachment and emotional demands, results demonstrated when employees can fully detach from work, they will restore the lost resources, feeling more motivated and energetic to deal with emotional demands (Shepherd et al., 2018; De Jonge et al., 2012). Promoting psychological detachment is an astute management practice to promote employees' well-being in organisations' structures.

Negative emotionality did not show a relevant correlation with psychological detachment and emotional demands, indicating that personal traits do not interfere with employees' work life.

Since workload show a statistical negative correlation in the relationship between psychological detachment and emotional demands, organisations must try to reduce employees' workload otherwise - it will annul the effect of psychological detachment on emotional demands.

4.3 Limitations and Future Research

While reading academic papers and books about the relationship between psychological detachment from work during off-job time and emotional demands, most researches only approached the relationship in one way: the effect of emotional demands on psychological demands. Few studies addressed the problematic in the opposite direction. The hypothesis previously studied where psychological detachment is negatively related with emotional demands, acting as a buffer of this job demand has little support from the existent literature. Future research must focus on understanding how psychological detachment can decrease the weight of job demands on employees (for example, emotional demands) to comprehend its importance in opposing stressful situations at work. Most studies related with recovery experiences, tend to analyse the effect of job demands and job resources on psychological detachment from work during off-job time aiming to envision management practices to promote recovery from work but it would be beneficial, in future studies, to evaluate the role of psychological detachment when dealing job demands and resources.

As the personal trait here studied is an item associated with negativity and since demands a self-evaluation to the respondents, their perception about themselves cannot be fully trustworthy once people tend to make a "negative self-evaluation when experiencing negative emotion" (Bastian, Kuppens, Hornsey, Park, Koval & Uchida, 2012).

Psychological detachment from work during off-job time: a relationship with job demands and resources

Regarding the respondents of the questionnaire, as the approach was made through a professional network, many did not reply to the messages. Faced with this issue, it was necessary to widen the range of requirements, particularly concerning the company's sector of work. Ideally, the sample would come from the same sector to allow to reach more trustful and reliable conclusions. Although, employees from different sectors had to be included to increase the sample size with the interest of collecting a reasonable amount of answers.

CONCLUSION

Psychological detachment is a current topic in organisations due to the heightened awareness of employees and organisations regarding recovering experiences (Derks & Bakker, 2014; Sonnentag, Kuttler & Fritz, 2010). The purpose of this research paper was to expose the positive effect of job autonomy on psychological detachment and the negative effect of psychological detachment on emotional demands with workload as an important mediator.

The relevance of psychological detachment as a recovery experience is undeniable due to its proved benefits on employees' well-being (Hahn et al., 2011; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007; Fritz et al., 2010). Organisations must strive to encourage and facilitate the recovery process of the employees by reducing workload and investing in job resources such as feedback from supervisors or supervisory coaching since they seem to facilitate psychological detachment, which, in its turns, helps to face job demands (Shepherd et al., 2018).

This study drawn interesting data, which provide a different and new vision of the multivariate role of psychological detachment. Due to the approach of psychological detachment as a dependent variable and answering to the first research question, results showed that job autonomy positively affects psychological detachment, but mission does not have a decisive position on this relationship, against previous expectations (De Villiers & Stander, 2011; Bliese & Castro, 2000).

In response to the second research question, psychological detachment outweighs emotional demands since when psychological detachment is higher, emotional demands tend to be lower. This result shows the priority organizations should give to recovery experiences if the aim is to keep employees motivated and engaged at work (Moreno-Jiménez, Mayo, Sanz-Vergel, Geurts, Rodríguez-Muñoz & Garrosa, 2009; Sonnentag et al., 2008). With respect to workload, this job demand proved to have a negative impact on the relationship of psychological detach and emotional demands.

In conclusion, the relevance of the topics of this research, and the connections between them, added a new approach to the literature one and, hopefully, will help other researchers to gain knowledge regarding this theme.

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