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Master Thesis

**“Anytime-Anywhere” Availability:
Effects of Workplace Telepressure on Recovery Processes and
the Role of Work-Home Segmentation**

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Abstract

Due to the widespread use of information and communication technology at work, the construct of workplace telepressure has been introduced as subject of recent research. In order to contribute to current findings, the present study examines the effect of workplace telepressure on psychological detachment from work and fatigue at bedtime, within the framework of a mediation model. Additionally, the potential benefits of employees' work-home segmentation preference are taken into account by including the construct as a moderator. 194 employees completed the daily questionnaires over a period of seven consecutive days. Owing to the repeated measurements, multilevel modeling was used to analyze the data. Although not all hypotheses were supported, the study shows that psychological detachment is significantly related to fatigue at bedtime. The relationship between workplace telepressure and detachment also became significant, however, only in the presence of work-home segmentation preference. The results underline the importance of employees' recovery processes, contribute to empirical research regarding the consequences of workplace telepressure and can be used to derive practical organizational implications.

Keywords: workplace telepressure, psychological detachment, fatigue, work-home segmentation preference, recovery, information and communication technology

“Anytime-Anywhere” Availability: Effects of Workplace Telepressure on Recovery Processes and the Role of Work-Home Segmentation

The rapid advancement of information and communication technology (ICT) over the past decades has led to significant changes in employees' work patterns and connectivity at all levels in organizations (Coovert & Thompson, 2003; Richardson, 2017). Communication at work, in particular knowledge transfer, now largely consists of message-based interactions (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015). This has led to a massive influx in digital communication (Richardson, 2017). The impact of ICT use in the workplace is relevant both on the individual as well as organizational level, as it can affect employees' recovery processes and subsequently influence the organization's productivity (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015). For this reason, an increasing number of companies are already taking the negative consequences of their employees' constant availability via ICT into account by implementing regulations (Stich, Tarafdar, & Cooper, 2018). While employees of the German car company BMW are allowed to add time spent on work-related e-mails during their spare time to the working time account, incoming e-mails of workers at Daimler are even deleted when they are on vacation (Lindecke, 2015; Richardson, 2017). Those practices of well-known companies indicate the importance of mitigating employees' daily pressure to be highly responsive and “always-on”, when facing large amounts of digital communication.

On the one hand, high responsiveness to e-mails has been shown to be positively related to the employees' perceived task accomplishment (Sonntag, Reinecke, Mata, & Vorderer, 2018). On the other hand, it has also been observed that excessive communication via e-mail can lead to the feeling of being overloaded (Barley, Meyerson, & Grodal, 2011; Edmunds & Morris, 2000). Those results illustrate the two-fold nature of current technological advancements and explain why it is often referred to as a “double-edged sword” (Day, Scott, & Kelloway, 2010).

Based upon this, the relatively new construct of *workplace telepressure* describes a worker's level of preoccupation with ICT-related messages as well as the urge to respond quickly to these (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015). Consequently, someone who experiences high workplace telepressure feels the need to respond instantly to incoming work-related messages, such as e-mails. Since workplace telepressure has been defined recently, related research is still in its infancy. Previous studies have started to investigate the construct's influence on recovery and well-being (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015; Santuzzi & Barber, 2018), but there have only been a few studies so far. Therefore, the present study intends to contribute with further insights into this particular area of research.

Regarding the consequences of workplace telepressure, current research has shown that it is related to negative well-being outcomes such as sleep problems, exhaustion, as well as lower psychological detachment from work (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015; Santuzzi & Barber, 2018). The recovery experience of psychological detachment is, however, particularly relevant in terms of recuperating from the daily workload and hassles (Sonnetag, Binnewies, & Mojza, 2010; Sonnetag & Fritz, 2007; Sonnetag & Fritz, 2015). When employees leave the workplace in the evening they do not automatically switch off mentally, although complete detachment from work-related issues is needed in order to maintain the individuals' well-being (Sonnetag & Fritz, 2015; Sonnetag, Kuttler, & Fritz, 2010). Yet, many knowledge workers take the mobile devices they are working with home and respond to work-related e-mails during their off-job time (Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007). They are staying connected "anytime-anywhere", thereby disregarding the work-home segmentation. This has been shown to impede psychological detachment by blurring the boundaries between the work and home domain (Barber & Jenkins, 2014; Derks & Bakker, 2014).

According to theory, individuals' preferences generally differ in regard to how much they integrate or segment their work and home life (Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000). The present study considers employees' personal *work-home segmentation preference*, which will be referred to as WHSP in this paper, to be an important factor in dealing with the constant connectivity and switching off after work (Barber & Jenkins, 2014; Park, Fritz, & Jex, 2011). In addition, employees' fatigue at bedtime is taken into account as well-being variable, as it has not been investigated in relation to workplace telepressure yet, although it is a relevant consequence of a lack of recovery (Meijman & Mulder, 1998; Sonnetag & Bayer, 2005).

Overall, the present study examines two main research questions. First of all, how does workplace telepressure affect employees' recovery processes in terms of their psychological detachment and level of fatigue in the evening? Secondly, can employees' WHSP buffer the potentially negative impact of workplace telepressure? In order to shed light on these research questions and extend existing findings, a diary study was conducted and evaluated.

Theoretical Background

Workplace Telepressure and Recovery

The Construct of Workplace Telepressure. Particularly mobile technologies, such as smartphones, enable employees' permanent accessibility, thereby increasing their pressure to respond timely to incoming messages (Jarvenpaa & Lang, 2005). This perceived pressure is a psychological reaction to ICT-related communication demands at work and is

conceptualized as workplace telepressure (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015). The construct describes the individual's preoccupation with technology-based messages, as well as a strong urge to respond to these messages as promptly as possible (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015). When experiencing workplace telepressure, employees equate the response expectations regarding synchronous and asynchronous means of communication and feel the need to react to ICT messages as quickly as to face-to-face communication (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015). While the construct itself is strictly conceptualized as an internal psychological state by definition (Santuzzi & Barber, 2018), it is important to note that employees' individual differences as well as external organizational expectations explain a significant amount of variance in workplace telepressure (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015; Barber & Santuzzi, 2017; Grawitch, Werth, Palmer, Erb, & Lavigne, 2018).

Recovery from Work. As regards employees' recovery after work, the effort-recovery model (Meijman & Mulder, 1998) states that individuals need to recuperate from high work demands in order to maintain their well-being as, otherwise, the demands will accumulate and lead to serious health impairments. According to the model, effort expenditure at work results in fatigue and other acute load reactions, such as physiological activation, in the short term. In case employees do not have enough time to recover from these symptoms after work due to additional demands, their physiological activation remains elevated, impeding the body to return to pre-stressor levels for an extended period of time (Meijman & Mulder, 1998). If the theory is applied to the present study, one can assume that the increasing ICT demands require employees to invest even more effort at work, leading to fatigue at the end of the working day. Workplace telepressure, which is interpreted as an individual's reaction to these ICT demands (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015), might result in prolonged mental as well as physiological activation and thus hinder recovery.

The job demands-resources model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) also presumes that chronic job demands have a negative influence on the individuals' well-being and organizational outcomes, due to the depletion of employees' resources. The model distinguishes between job demands and resources, which are both present in the work environment and jointly influence the employees' constitution (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001). In relation to the current paper it might be of relevance, whether digital communication at work is rather perceived as a resource or a demand (Bordi, Okkonen, Mäkinemi, & Heikkilä-Tammi, 2018). Provided the increasing amount of ICT-related communication is perceived as a demand, workplace telepressure can be interpreted as its psychological cost (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Additionally, the model presumes that the well-being indicator of fatigue is an outcome of the health impairment process which is

caused by a lack of job resources and excessive demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Overall, the theories emphasize the need for recovery in order to meet current work demands, such as the high amount of ICT-based communication.

With regard to specific recovery experiences, psychological detachment from work has been shown to be highly relevant (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). Initially, the general detachment concept was introduced by Etzion, Eden, and Lapidot (1998), describing the employee's feeling of being uncoupled from work. Sonnentag und Fritz (2007) extended the construct by conceptualizing psychological detachment as one of four recovery experiences which constitute and positively influence the individual's recovery process. The crucial aspect of psychological detachment from work is not solely the physical distance from work but having the opportunity, as well as ability, to fully mentally disengage from work-related concerns (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007).

Furthermore, psychological detachment is an integral part of the stressor-detachment model by Sonnentag and Fritz (2015). Their model illustrates the importance of psychological detachment with regard to the stressor-strain relationship, by considering the construct as a moderator and partial mediator at the same time. However, it turns out to be an issue that the employees' amount of workload is negatively related to psychological detachment from work (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015). As a result, those employees with the greatest need for recovery are the ones that lack recovery experiences the most (Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015).

Cropley, Michalianou, Pravettoni, and Millward (2012) were able to show that there are in fact three different types of work-related ruminative thinking which prevent employees from unwinding after work, namely affective rumination, problem-solving pondering, and detachment. However, the present research exclusively focuses on the detachment concept as it describes the employee's ability to leave work behind in the evening, rather than the individual's emotional experience or reflective thinking (Cropley et al., 2012). More specifically, this diary study examines the relation between workplace telepressure and psychological detachment from work.

The Impact of Workplace Telepressure on Psychological Detachment. A recent study found a negative relationship between workplace telepressure and psychological detachment, but only at the between-person level (Santuzzi & Barber, 2018). Van Laethem, Van Vianen and Derks (2018) also included workplace telepressure as a variable in their study, while focusing on work-related smartphone use. Their study revealed that employees experiencing high workplace telepressure used their smartphone more frequently for work-related purposes during as well as after work. Work-related smartphone use was in turn

negatively related to psychological detachment after work, whereas workplace telepressure did not seem to moderate this relationship in any way (Van Laethem et al., 2018). Those findings indicate that the evidence in terms of the relationship between workplace telepressure and psychological detachment is still rather scarce.

In general, research has shown that high work demands are related to a lower level of psychological detachment from work (DeArmond, Matthews, & Bunk, 2014; Smit & Barber, 2016; Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005; Sonnentag & Krueger, 2006). ICT demands, such as technology-based communication in the workplace, constitute a specific category of work demands, which is also related to lower psychological detachment and higher workplace telepressure (Santuzzi & Barber, 2018). Considering that workplace telepressure is interpreted as the employees' psychological response to the perceived amount of work-related ICT demands (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015), it is of interest to further examine the construct's relationship with psychological detachment.

Hypothesis 1: The employees' experience of workplace telepressure is negatively related to their psychological detachment from work during non-work time.

Psychological Detachment and Well-being After Work

Concerning the employees' well-being, the negative consequences of insufficient psychological detachment are of particular interest, as practitioners might be able to derive useful organizational implications from this area of research. Taking into account that work-related fatigue is a common complaint which is closely related to recovery at the end of the working day (von Thiele Schwarz, 2011), it was chosen as negative well-being indicator in the present study. Due to the study's diary design and daily measurements, the focus lies on acute work-related fatigue at bedtime which is a short-term outcome of employees' effort expenditure at work (Cropley et al., 2012; Meijman & Mulder, 1998). Fatigue refers to a suboptimal psychophysiological state which is characterized by feelings of exhaustion and tiredness as well as low arousal (Sonnentag, Binnewies, & Mojza, 2008; Zijlstra, Cropley, & Rydstedt, 2014). It fluctuates throughout the day, which is why it is important to take the daily within-person changes in fatigue into account (Hülshöger, 2016).

Sonnentag and Bayer (2005) found evidence for the negative within-person relationship between psychological detachment from work and fatigue at bedtime, showing that the recovery experience was particularly relevant after days with high time pressure at work. Another diary study discovered that low psychological detachment can even have a negative effect on the individuals' level of fatigue the next morning (Sonnentag et al., 2008). Moreover, the results by Cropley et al. (2012) confirmed that the lack of detachment is a significant predictor of acute fatigue. Those results emphasize the relevance and protective

nature of psychological detachment in regard to the employees' well-being, more specifically, fatigue. Building upon previous research, this study intends to replicate the within-person relationship between psychological detachment from work and fatigue at bedtime.

Apart from solely examining the relationship between those two variables, most previous studies in this field included psychological detachment from work either as a moderator or mediator (DeArmond et al., 2014; Santuzzi & Barber, 2018; Sonnentag, Binnewies, et al., 2010), in accordance with the stressor-detachment model (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015). In the present study, psychological detachment from work is also assumed to be a mediating mechanism between employees' workplace telepressure and fatigue at bedtime. The most recent study of Santuzzi and Barber (2018) already considered psychological detachment as possible mediator of the relationship between workplace telepressure and employees' negative well-being indicators. They were focusing on different outcome variables, however. The results of their study indicated that psychological detachment can indeed partially explain the aforementioned relationship at the between-person level. The present study therefore proposes the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2: The employees' psychological detachment from work during non-work time is negatively related to their level of fatigue at bedtime.

Hypothesis 3: The relationship between the employees' experienced workplace telepressure and fatigue at bedtime is mediated by their psychological detachment from work during non-work time.

The Role of Segmentation

With regard to employees' extended access to work in the evening, it is also important to understand how they manage to create boundaries between the work and non-work domain, as this can influence their mental recovery processes (Park et al., 2011). According to boundary theory, every employee has its own way to deal with the potential overlap of the two domains (Ashforth et al., 2000; Clark, 2000). The theory assumes that employees either tend to integrate the different domains or set clear boundaries in order to ensure less unintentional boundary crossing, spill over, and blurring between work and home (Ashforth et al., 2000; Clark, 2000).

It is taken into account that employees are in fact daily border crossers and have to switch between different domains frequently (Clark, 2000). Therefore, the creation and maintenance of boundaries can help them to better organize their environment, provided that everyone has at least some control over it (Ashforth et al., 2000; Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2006). Moreover, boundary theory states that work-home segmentation and integration

represent opposite poles of a continuum (Nippert-Eng, 1996). Both refer to coping strategies for balancing the individual's work and personal life, which can equally come at a cost and have benefits (Ashforth et al., 2000; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Thus, the construct of WHSP describes the employees' individual differences in terms of the degree to which they prefer to keep the work and home domain physically, cognitively, and behaviorally separate from each other (Kreiner, 2006).

In regard to the presumed relationship between workplace telepressure and psychological detachment, employees' WHSP might make a difference. It could influence to what extent the workers' level of workplace telepressure continues to affect them after work. Individuals might feel a strong urge to respond to work-related ICT messages during their working time, but are able to gain distance from these preoccupying thoughts when leaving the workplace, due to their high WHSP (Barber & Jenkins, 2014).

Previous research focused on antecedents of psychological detachment and found evidence for the beneficial impact of WHSP (Park et al., 2011). Furthermore, Park et al. (2011) took work-related technology use at home into account and were able to show that it partially mediates the relationship between WHSP and psychological detachment. Building upon this, a study by Barber and Jenkins (2014) indicated that high boundaries in terms of work-related ICT use at home can help employees to better recover after work. Their results showed that it is crucial to consciously set boundaries in order to enable psychological detachment from work, especially when it is not possible to entirely eliminate work-related ICT use at home.

As mentioned previously, high workplace telepressure itself is related to more frequent work-related smartphone use after work (Van Laethem et al., 2018). However, the results from Derks, Bakker, Peters, and van Wingerden (2016) demonstrate that individuals with a high WHSP generally do not use their smartphone as much as integrators for work-related purposes during their off-job time. They might purposely decide to pay less attention to incoming work messages after hours, in congruence with their preference. Therefore, it can be assumed that segmentors are better able to minimize workplace telepressure's interference with psychological detachment after work, by self-setting stronger boundaries.

In regard to theory, the job demands-resources model states that job demands are not always negative as it depends on the perception of the individual and its resources, which may buffer the effect of the demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). In this context, the individuals' segmentation preference could be interpreted as a resource which aids employees' recovery by facilitating the process of switching off after work, even when workplace telepressure is high. In line with this argumentation, the study hypothesizes the following:

Hypothesis 4: The relationship between employees’ workplace telepressure and psychological detachment from work during non-work time is moderated by their work-home segmentation preference, such that the relation is weaker when the employees have a high work-home segmentation preference.

A thorough search of the literature showed that there are no published diary studies yet, which consider workplace telepressure in combination with the above-mentioned variables. In summary, the present study provides new insights into the construct of workplace telepressure and its impact on employees’ recovery processes by examining the hypothesized relationships depicted in figure 1. Besides, potential benefits of employees’ WHSP are taken into account, by integrating it as a moderator into the model.

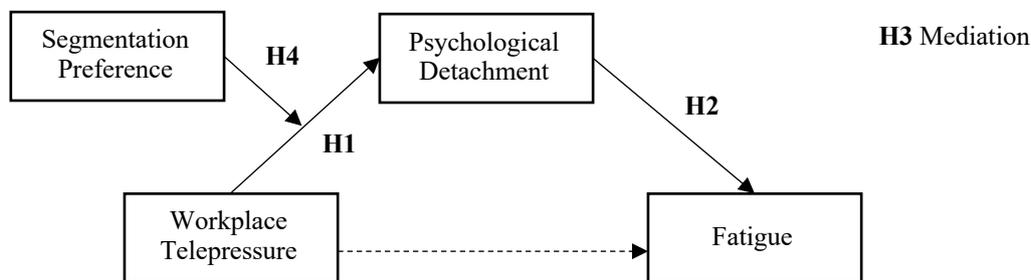


Figure 1. Hypothesized model ----> represents indirect effect.

Methods

Sample

In the main, participants were recruited in Germany as the questionnaires were solely accessible in German. Every person who participated was required to work at least 20 hours per week. The majority of the participants were acquaintances who were acquired through friends, family or work connections. They were either recruited in person, by personal message, phone, e-mail, “snowball principle” or usage of social networks, such as Facebook and Xing. It is relevant to notice that everyone participated voluntarily and was previously informed about the general background of the study. There was no compensation offered, neither monetary nor in any other form. To the best of our knowledge, 456 employees were approached and asked to participate.

Eventually, 194 persons were included in the statistical analysis which corresponds to approximately 43% of all recruited persons. The final sample consisted of 116 women (59.8%) and 78 men (40.2%), and the age of the participants was ranging from 20 to 79 years ($M = 39.45, SD = 15.36$). With regard to the participants’ highest educational attainment, the

descriptive evaluation showed that the majority had completed a university degree, more precisely 125 of the employees. In addition, five of the participants had a doctorate. Besides that, 17 people graduated from secondary school, 33 from high school, and the remaining either did an apprenticeship or completed a college degree. Furthermore, it was surveyed to which occupational group the employees belong. 40 employees were working in commercial-related jobs, 26 in health care professions and 25 in business-related or administrative jobs. The other participants divided into the remaining categories which were ranging from educational occupations to IT to media-related professions.

Additionally, the employees were asked to provide information on their working hours and schedule. More than 170 of the participants worked from Monday to Friday, and 13 employees stated that they had to work the entire weekend. Moreover, 130 employees had a usual nine-to-five job, whereby 38 indicated rather irregular working times. The participants' weekly working hours ranged from 20 to 75 hours ($M = 38.46$, $SD = 10.5$) as employees with part-time as well as full-time jobs were included.

Procedure

The present study was approved by the ethics committee of Maastricht University and data was collected jointly by a research team consisting of four master students. In order to facilitate participation, the research was conducted with the help of online questionnaires via survey software, namely Qualtrics LLC and Soto. Following the consent of the potential participants, the individuals received an e-mail about the background and execution of the research project as well as a link to the study. First of all, the participants were asked to register themselves by clicking on this link, agreeing to the declaration of consent, and completing a general questionnaire. This registration process was meant to ensure the complete anonymity of the participants' answers, as subsequent emails were sent automatically by the survey software. After completing this first step, the participants received the next questionnaire the following Monday, as the study was always carried out from Monday to Sunday.

In terms of the study's diary part, the participants had to fill out two short questionnaires after work each day for seven consecutive days. They received personalized links to the daily questionnaires at 4 p.m. and 8 p.m. via the email address they had registered with. It is important to notice that the links were only accessible for a limited period of time, the earlier one from 4 p.m. to 7.30 p.m. and the second one from 8 p.m. to 0.30 a.m. The first daily questionnaire was meant to be filled out shortly after finishing work and the second one before going to bed in the evening. Concerning participants' expenditure of time, the general

questionnaire took approximately 10 minutes to complete and the daily measures between two to four minutes at each measurement point.

The general questionnaire contained the demographic information of the participants and all relevant trait measures, namely the scale measuring workplace telepressure (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015) and another one assessing WHSP (Kreiner, 2006).¹ During the diary part of the study, the construct of psychological detachment from work was assessed once a day in the evening by the work-related rumination scale (Cropley et al., 2012), whereas fatigue was measured twice a day via the profiles of mood scale (McNair, Lorr, & Droppleman, 1971).² All utilized scales are listed in the appendix.

Study Design

Considering that the participants were asked to self-report their daily experience and behavior by responding to the same items on seven consecutive days, the study had the design of a diary study, a repeated measures design. In addition to between-person measures, quantitative longitudinal data was gathered in order to take the within-person variability of some of the constructs into account. A time-based diary design was chosen with two fixed daily time intervals, allowing the participants to only respond to the questionnaires during a certain period of time every day (Bolger, Davis, & Rafaeli, 2003). The study was constructed this way as it was important to make sure that the items could not be answered at a different point in time. In terms of the concrete variables, workplace telepressure and WHSP were measured at the between-person level, and fatigue as well as psychological detachment from work were considered as within-person variables, due to their fluctuating nature (Hülshager, 2016; Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005).

Measures

Workplace Telepressure. In order to examine the extent of employees' workplace telepressure, a six-item measure developed by Barber and Santuzzi (2015) was included in the general questionnaire. The employees were asked to evaluate their personal experience and psychological reaction to asynchronous message-based communication in the workplace (Santuzzi & Barber, 2018). Example items are "I feel a strong need to respond to others immediately" and "I can concentrate better on tasks once I've responded to my messages", which were rated on a Likert scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*.

¹ Due to exploratory reasons, trait mindfulness, burnout, general sleep quality, and work demands were also assessed via the general questionnaire.

² Positive and negative affectivity, daily work demands, time spent on technology at home, and work-home interference were additionally assessed by the daily measures due to exploratory reasons.

For the purpose of this study, the German version of the scale was used (Thommes, 2015). The computed Cronbach's alpha of .90 indicates the scale's high reliability.

Work-Home Segmentation Preference. The utilized four-item measure was developed by Kreiner (2006) and assessed on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*). This scale has been used in other relevant previous studies (Barber & Jenkins, 2014; Park et al., 2011) and includes items such as "I don't like work issues creeping into my home life", for example. In the context of this study, it was necessary to translate the items into German, which was done with the help of back translation. As the items had an internal consistency of $\alpha = .84$, sufficient reliability was assumed.

Fatigue at bedtime. The participants were asked to indicate how fatigued they were shortly before going to bed by rating four items from the profiles of mood scale (McNair et al., 1971). The participants had to state on a Likert Scale (1 = *not at all* to 5 = *extremely*) how "tired", "exhausted", "fatigued" and "spent" they felt at this particular moment. Those items were back-translated beforehand, in order to be able to include them in German. Cronbach's alpha was computed separately for all 7 days and ranged between $\alpha = .83$ and .93.

Psychological detachment from work during non-work time. This construct was measured by a subscale of the work-related rumination scale (Cropley et al., 2012), which generally distinguishes between three different types of ruminative thinking after work, namely affective rumination, problem-solving pondering and detachment. However, only the detachment scale was of interest in terms of the present study. The five detachment items were adjusted to the day level and rated on a Likert Scale ranging from 1 = *very seldom or never* to 5 = *very often or always*. Their reliability across the 7 measurement days ranged between $\alpha = .44$ and .60.

Data Analysis

The data were collected over a period of 2 months, from May 8, 2019 to July 7, 2019. Subsequently, the data analysis was carried out with the help of the statistics program IBM SPSS 25. Considering the fact that this diary study incorporates data from two different levels of analysis, the within- and between-person level, multilevel analysis (MLA) was required to adequately test the hypotheses. In the present study, the participants' daily recovery and well-being values were nested within the employees themselves. Thus, the repeated level 1 measures (detachment, fatigue) were nested under the level 2 data from the general questionnaire (workplace telepressure, WHSP). In comparison to other analysis methods, MLA is accounting for such nestedness and the non-independence of the lower level data

(Hayes, 2006). The estimation of fixed and random effects also plays an important role in MLA and represents another advantage of this method, as random errors at all levels of analysis can be estimated at the same time (Nezlek, 2001).

In terms of the data analysis, only those 194 employees who filled out the general questionnaire and at least one daily questionnaire were taken into account. Although fatigue was assessed twice a day, it was not necessary to consider the fatigue measures of the end-of-work questionnaire due to the study's focus on fatigue before going to bed. In order to be able to run the analysis, all data sets from different measurement points were merged and put into the required format. Among other modifications, the predictor variables at level 2 were grand-mean centered and the level 1 predictor of psychological detachment was centered to the individual mean, thus person-mean centered.

After checking and preparing the data set, the analysis started with an unconditional, random coefficient model, so called null model, which served as a basis for comparison with further models. During this step, the intraclass correlations were calculated to gain a first impression of the variability in the outcome that was attributable to the between-person differences (Field, 2013). Afterwards, various nested models with increasing complexity were estimated by adding fixed as well as random effects. Thereupon, their respective fit was compared with the help of the full maximum likelihood estimation (Kreft & De Leeuw, 1998). In order to assess possible improvements of the models, the chi-square distribution was used, since its critical values point out significant differences between the maximum likelihood estimates (Hayes, 2006).

With regard to hypothesis 1, the null model of psychological detachment was compared with a random intercept-fixed effect model including workplace telepressure as predictor. Subsequently, an interaction term was added to the model in order to test the moderation postulated in hypothesis 4. Regarding hypothesis 2, the relationship between psychological detachment and fatigue was assessed by estimating and comparing various models again. Finally, hypothesis 3 was tested with the help of multilevel mediation analysis (Baron & Kenny, 1986). According to Baron and Kenny (1986), four criteria have to be met to test a mediation effect. The independent variable (*here*: workplace telepressure) needs to be a significant predictor of the dependent variable (*here*: fatigue) as well as of the mediating variable (*here*: detachment). Additionally, the mediator has to significantly predict the dependent variable, when both the independent variable and mediator are entered as predictors. Following, it is checked whether the impact of the independent on the dependent variable is considerably reduced when the mediating variable is taken into account. In accordance with the method by Baron and Kenny (1986), the relationships between

workplace telepressure, fatigue, and psychological detachment were analyzed first, to evaluate if further analysis steps were reasonable.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 displays all relevant descriptive values including the means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and person- as well as day-level correlations between the study variables. The day-level measures were averaged across 7 days in order to correlate them with the person-level measures. Furthermore, they were not centered before calculating the day-level correlations. The estimation of intraclass correlations (ICC1) indicated the relative amount of within-person and between-person variance. The ICC1 calculations showed that 34% of the variance in psychological detachment and 46% in fatigue at bedtime was attributable to between-person variations, which indicates that the constructs vary across individuals. Therefore, it was justified to use MLA to test the hypotheses.

There was no significant correlation between workplace telepressure and psychological detachment. However, workplace telepressure correlated significantly with fatigue on the person ($r = .20, p < .01$) as well as on the day level ($r = .18, p < .01$). In line with expectations, there was also a significant correlation between psychological detachment and fatigue on the person ($r = -.16, p < .05$) and day level ($r = -.17, p < .01$). Nevertheless, it should be noted that correlations need to be interpreted with caution, particularly in a diary design with repeated measurements, as the study variables might be interdependent (Hayes, 2006).

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations between Study Variables

Variable	<i>M (SD)</i>	1	2	3	4
1. Workplace Telepressure	2.85 (1.01)	(.90)	0.21**	-0.13**	0.18**
2. Segmentation Preference	3.95 (0.86)	0.21**	(.84)	0.11**	0.13**
3. Detachment	3.10 (0.59)	-0.08	0.15*	(.84)	-0.17**
4. Fatigue at Bedtime	2.67 (0.86)	0.20**	0.10	-0.16*	(.81)

Note. $N = 194$ at the person level. Average reliability for each variable appears in brackets on the main diagonal. Below the diagonal: correlations at the person level; above the diagonal: correlations at the day level.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Hypotheses Testing

Workplace Telepressure, Detachment and the Role of Segmentation. The negative relationship between workplace telepressure and psychological detachment proposed in hypothesis 1, was assumed to be moderated by employees' WHSP, as stated in hypothesis 4. These two hypotheses were assessed by comparing three nested multilevel models, the null model, Model 1 and Model 2, as displayed in Table 2. First of all, an unconditional, random coefficient model was estimated for psychological detachment. Thereupon, the level 2 predictor workplace telepressure was added to the model as a fixed effect. The subsequent comparison between the null model and Model 1 showed that there was no significant difference between the models' maximum likelihood values. Based on this first step of the multilevel analysis, hypothesis 1 could not be confirmed.

During the next step, the level 2 predictor WHSP was entered as moderator by adding the interaction term between WHSP and workplace telepressure. According to the maximum likelihood estimation, the fit of Model 2 improved in comparison to Model 1 (difference of $-2 \times \log = 7.48$, $df = 2$, $p < .05$). However, the p -value of the interaction term was not significant ($p = .188$). Consequently, the moderation hypothesis had to be rejected. Yet, the main effect of workplace telepressure became marginally significant in the presence of WHSP. Due to the significance of both main effects, the issue was further investigated by entering WHSP as sole predictor. The results showed that it still significantly predicted detachment (estimate = 0.10, $t = 2.02$, $p < .05$). Although hypothesis 4 was not supported, the results were of relevance for hypothesis 1.

Psychological Detachment and Fatigue. Thereafter, hypothesis 2 was examined which postulated a negative relationship between psychological detachment and fatigue. Various nested models and their respective fit were compared, more specifically the null model, Model 1, and Model 2. First, the null model of fatigue at bedtime was estimated, which solely included the intercept as predictor. Subsequently, the level 1 predictor psychological detachment was added to the model as a fixed effect. The comparison of the maximum likelihood values pointed to a highly significant difference and improvement of the model fit (difference of $-2 \times \log = 24.98$, $df = 1$, $p < .01$). Considering that psychological detachment is able to vary within persons, it was entered as a random effect in Model 2, which represented a random intercept-random slope model. Again, the model fit improved significantly (difference of $-2 \times \log = 11.28$, $df = 2$, $p < .01$). On the basis of the results, which are displayed in Table 3, hypothesis 2 was fully supported as a significant relationship was found (estimate = -0.21, $t = -3.57$, $p < .01$).

Table 2

Multilevel Estimates of Models Predicting Psychological Detachment by Workplace Telepressure and WHSP (Hypothesis 1 and 4)

	Null Model			Model 1			Model 2		
	Estimate	SE	t	Estimate	SE	t	Estimate	SE	t
Fixed Effects									
Intercept	3.11	0.04	69.94***	3.11	0.04	70.80***	3.11	0.04	71.31***
Workplace Telepressure				-0.75	0.04	-1.73	-0.09	0.04	2.03*
Segmentation Preference							0.12	0.05	2.38*
Workplace Telepressure x Segmentation Preference							0.05	162.15	1.32
Random Effects									
Residual	0.43	0.26		0.43	0.03		0.43	0.04	
Intercept	0.22	0.04		0.21	0.04		0.20	0.03	
-2 x LL	1621.49			1618.55			1611.07		
df	3			4			6		
Δ -2 x LL				2.94			7.48*		
Δ df				1			2		

Note. $N = 194$ at the person level. Models are random intercept, fixed slope models. Model 1 is compared to the null model, Model 2 is compared to Model 1.

Δ = difference; SE = Standard Error; LL = log likelihood.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed).

Table 3

Multilevel Estimates for Models Predicting Fatigue at Bedtime (Hypothesis 2)

	Null Model			Model 1			Model 2		
	Estimate	SE	<i>t</i>	Estimate	SE	<i>t</i>	Estimate	SE	<i>t</i>
Fixed Effects									
Intercept	2.66	0.06	44.31***	2.66	0.06	44.05***	2.66	0.06	43.92***
Detachment				-0.19	0.05	-4.06***	-0.21	0.06	-3.57**
Random Effects									
Residual	0.55	0.03		0.54	0.03		0.49	0.03	
Intercept	0.47	0.07		0.48	0.07		0.50	0.07	
-2 x LL	1878.60			1853.62			1842.34		
<i>df</i>	3			4			6		
Δ -2 x LL				24.98**			11.28**		
Δ <i>df</i>				1			2		

Note. *N* = 194 at the person level. In Model 2 the random slope is specified. Model 1 is compared to the null model, Model 2 is compared to Model 1.

Δ = difference; SE = Standard Error; LL = log likelihood.

p* < .05; *p* < .01; ****p* < .001 (two-tailed).

The Mediating Role of Psychological Detachment. Hypothesis 3 predicted an indirect relationship between workplace telepressure and fatigue, which was expected to be mediated by psychological detachment. In order to test this assumption, the mediation analysis method by Baron and Kenny (1986) was utilized. In congruence with their four steps, the relationship between the independent (*here*: workplace telepressure) and the dependent variable (*here*: fatigue) was assessed first. Therefore, the null model of fatigue was compared with a random intercept-fixed effect model which included workplace telepressure as predictor. As shown in Table 4, the relationship between the two variables was significant (estimate = 0.17, $t = 2.99$, $p < .01$) and therefore, the first criterion of the mediation analysis was met. Secondly, the independent variable was supposed to be significantly related to the mediator. However, the relationship between workplace telepressure and psychological detachment was non-significant, which has already been shown during the examination of hypothesis 1.

Yet, the third step of the mediation analysis was still carried out by testing whether the mediator (*here*: psychological detachment) significantly predicted the dependent variable (*here*: fatigue) in the presence of the independent variable (*here*: workplace telepressure). The results confirmed that this requirement was met (estimate = -0.21, $t = -3.58$, $p < .01$). During the last step, it was checked whether the mediator (*here*: psychological detachment) was able to explain the relationship between the independent (*here*: workplace telepressure) and dependent variable (*here*: fatigue). Contrary to expectations, workplace telepressure remained a significant predictor of fatigue in the presence of psychological detachment (estimate = 0.17, $t = 3.01$, $p < .01$). Furthermore, its influence on fatigue was not reduced at all with the additional consideration of the mediator. Due to the non-significance of Step 2 and 4, it did not make sense to further analyze the postulated model, as the requirements for a mediation were not sufficiently met. Consequently, hypothesis 3 had to be rejected.

Overall, the data analysis showed that psychological detachment significantly predicts fatigue at bedtime. The relationship between workplace telepressure and detachment only became significant in the presence of WHSP, although the moderation hypothesis was not confirmed. Apart from this, the results could not confirm that the relationship between workplace telepressure and fatigue is mediated by psychological detachment.

Table 4
Multilevel Estimates for Mediation Model (Hypothesis 3)

	Step 1			Step 2 ^a			Step 3/4		
	Estimate	SE	t	Estimate	SE	t	Estimate	SE	t
WPT	0.17	0.06	2.99**	-0.75	0.04	-1.73	0.17	0.06	3.01**
DET							-0.21	0.06	-3.58**
-2*LL	1869.94			1618.55			1833.51		
Δ -2*LL	8.66**			2.94			11.41**		

Note. N = 194 at the person level. Step 1: Workplace telepressure as predictor of fatigue; Step 2: Workplace telepressure as predictor of psychological detachment; Step 3/4: Mediation model, workplace telepressure as predictor of fatigue in presence of psychological detachment.

Δ = difference; SE = Standard Error; LL = log likelihood; WPT = Workplace Telepressure; DET = Psychological Detachment.

^a = equivalent to model of hypothesis 1.

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001 (two-tailed).

Discussion

Due to relevant changes in communication at work (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015; Richardson, 2017), the present study aims to extent current research on the impact of employees’ experience of workplace telepressure. It was assumed that there is a negative relationship between workplace telepressure and psychological detachment (hypothesis 1), which is moderated by the employees’ WHSP (hypothesis 4). Furthermore, the study postulated a negative relationship between psychological detachment and fatigue at bedtime (hypothesis 2). Eventually, an indirect relationship between workplace telepressure and fatigue was examined, by considering psychological detachment as mediator (hypothesis 3). Based on the evaluation of the collected data, hypothesis 2 was confirmed, meaning that support was found for the relationship between psychological detachment and fatigue at bedtime. Hypothesis 1 was not rejected either, although the postulated relationship turned out to be more complex than expected, as it only became significant in the presence of WHSP. Unfortunately, hypothesis 3 and 4 could not be confirmed.

The significant negative relationship between psychological detachment and fatigue at bedtime is consistent with previous research (Querstret & Cropley, 2012; Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005; Sonnentag et al., 2008). Sonnentag and Bayer (2005) measured the constructs at the same time of the day, more precisely before going to bed, and also found a significant relationship at the within- as well as between-person level. The fact that they utilized different measures for both constructs indicates that this result might be consistent across varying methods. Altogether, the relationship between psychological detachment and fatigue seems to

be supported by previous research as well as the present data. This outcome coincides with the effort-recovery model (Meijman & Mulder, 1998) and job demands-resources model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), as it validates the relevance of recovery in terms of maintaining employees' well-being.

Based on the results, there is a marginally significant negative relationship between workplace telepressure and psychological detachment, however, only in the presence of WHSP. Therefore, hypothesis 1 is supported under the condition that WHSP is entered as additional predictor. It cannot be assumed that workplace telepressure significantly influences detachment from work by itself. The result is further interpreted in the context of the outcome of hypothesis 4. There are various possible reasons for this vague outcome. Although the measurement scale of workplace telepressure has been validated (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015), there were already some inconsistencies in the literature. Grawitch et al. (2018) criticized the lack of unique variance in workplace telepressure when taking other related variables into account. However, they did find a significant relationship between workplace telepressure and psychological detachment, equally as Santuzzi and Barber (2018). Consequently, workplace telepressure appears to play a role in terms of employees' psychological detachment but may not explain sufficient variance on its own in the present study. Furthermore, Grawitch et al. (2018) as well as Santuzzi and Barber (2018) utilized a different detachment scale, namely the one developed by Sonnentag and Fritz (2007), which might be another reason why the current data analysis did not result in the same significant outcome. The rather low reliability of the detachment scale in this study argues in favor of that argument.

Eventually, many participants did not have an occupation that entails frequent ICT-based communication with clients or colleagues, for example individuals working in the health care sector. Having said this, the definition of workplace telepressure seems to be specifically related to knowledge workers who accomplish their work via ICT. Therefore, the present sample might have been too diverse in terms of the participants' professions.

The consideration of WHSP as moderating variable did not result in a clear outcome. Although the model fit improved, the interaction effect postulated in hypothesis 4 was not significant. Nevertheless, further investigation showed that WHSP does play a role concerning the direct relationship between workplace telepressure and detachment, as the main effect becomes significant in the presence of WHSP. It can be derived that the model fit improved due to the influence of WHSP and the direct relationships between the variables. One possible explanation for the significant main effect would be that the relationship only becomes significant after a certain cut-off value of the employees' WHSP (Aiken, West, & Reno, 1991). This would imply that a particular degree of WHSP is needed in order for workplace telepressure to have a significant negative impact on detachment. However, as the

relationship is rather weak and plotting the results did not result in any further conclusions, no concrete interpretation is possible.

This particular moderation has not been postulated before but previous research also found a positive relationship between WHSP and psychological detachment (Park et al., 2011) The relationship suggests that the preference to separate work and home can help employees to switch off after work. Although the postulated hypothesis was not confirmed, the findings are still in line with boundary theory and acknowledge that work-home segmentation does constitute a possible coping strategy (Ashforth et al., 2000).

With regard to hypothesis 3, the data analysis did not yield a significant result. The main issue was the non-significant relationship between workplace telepressure and psychological detachment, as all other relationships in the mediation model were shown to be significant. Therefore, the mediation effect found by Santuzzi and Barber (2018) could not be transferred to the current model with fatigue as dependent variable. In their research, there was a significant indirect effect of workplace telepressure on sleep problems and physical exhaustion, which was mediated by psychological detachment on the between-person level (Santuzzi & Barber, 2018). Considering this finding and the fact that previous studies have found a significant relationship between workplace telepressure and psychological detachment (Grawitch et al., 2018; Santuzzi & Barber, 2018), the proposed mediation model is worth further investigation. The results might not be significant in the current analysis due to the utilized measurement scale of detachment and other limitations of the study. Apart from that, the data analysis has shown that there is a significant relationship between workplace telepressure and fatigue at bedtime which emphasizes the construct's negative well-being consequences on employees.

Overall, the study showed that employees with low psychological detachment from work are more fatigued before going to bed in the evening. Furthermore, there is a marginally negative relationship between employees' workplace telepressure and psychological detachment, which only exists in the presence of WHSP. The other two hypotheses did not yield any significant outcomes. Yet, the results give new insights into the relations between the utilized variables and partly confirm previous research. Additionally, the mediation analysis uncovered a significant direct relationship between workplace telepressure and fatigue at bedtime. This was not specifically hypothesized but contributes to future research and practical implications can be derived.

Practical Implications

Organizations are advised to take current research into account when introducing new regulations with the aim of protecting their employees' well-being. Based on the results of

this study, they should set clear limits regarding employees' work-related ICT use during their off-job time. This way, organizations might be able to reduce the pressures associated with work-related communication and consequently the employees' fatigue in the evening. In addition, they could have regulations in place that facilitate the process of switching off after work and support their employees' mental as well as physiological well-being.

In this context, the supervisors play an important role as they are the ones that set the expectations in terms of their subordinates' responsiveness. Therefore, supervisors have to pay attention to their own ICT-based communication behavior. For example, they should not send their subordinates emails during their vacation and late at night. Additionally, more organizations could adopt regulations similar to the email restrictions of Daimler and Volkswagen, such as deleting incoming emails during their employees' vacations (Lindecke, 2015; Richardson, 2017). This way, it might be easier for employees to free their mind and detach completely from work issues. Although, those practices seem disadvantageous at first sight, organizations should focus on the long-term benefits for their employees as they can positively influence the organization as a whole.

Nevertheless, it should be noticed that too much psychological detachment can also have counterproductive effects on the organization's productivity, as employees with high levels of detachment might require a longer start-up period when resuming to work (Fritz, Yankelevich, Zarubin, & Barger, 2010). Furthermore, thinking about work during off-job time is not necessarily negative as it can also imply that someone reflects positively upon work (Sonnentag, 2011). Therefore, a medium level of detachment might be the most beneficial, when taking employees' well-being as well as the organization's goals into account (Fritz et al., 2010). Obviously, the employees' extent of detachment is difficult to estimate in an organization, but regular recovery and well-being surveys could be established as part of the organization's culture.

Currently, many companies offer their employees additional flexibility in terms of when and where they accomplish their work, although those practices rather blur the boundaries between the work and home life (Clark, 2000). Based on the relationship between WHSP and psychological detachment, those kind of working arrangements are not necessarily helpful for every employee (Rothbard, Phillips, & Dumas, 2005). Thus, organizations should treat their employees as individuals with differing needs and preferences (Kreiner, 2006). Human resources professionals might consider matching employees' individualized preferences with their career development as well as work benefits, for example in terms of flexible working time arrangements or on-site child care. Overall, an organization's regulations can have a substantial impact on the employees' ability to negotiate the time efficiently between the work and home domain (Clark, 2000).

Limitations and Future Research

In terms of a diary study's limitations, the individuals' participation rate over the course of the study is a common issue. Although the surveys in the present research were rather short, the study represented a burden for them, especially because they did not receive any compensation. Therefore, most of the participants did not take part in the entire study, probably due to lack of motivation or time. We intended to partly counteract this problem by recruiting even more participants and mainly approaching people with whom we have a personal relationship. However, future diary studies could set up additional e-mail or WhatsApp reminders in order to ensure high participation rates throughout the study.

Despite the fact that each daily questionnaire was only accessible for a limited period of time, it was not possible to ensure that the participants completed them at the exact time they were supposed to. For example, some participants reported that they filled out the bedtime-questionnaire shortly after receiving it, as it was more convenient than before going to bed. Other employees complained that they work longer than 7.30 p.m. and responded to the end-of-work questionnaire while they were still working. Generally, those issues are inevitable in a diary study, but can be minimized by choosing an appropriate study design (Bolger et al., 2003).

On the whole, the results were based on a satisfactory sample, as it was relatively heterogenous in terms of the employees' occupation, age, and working hours, which is desirable in terms of a study's generalizability. However, it was not considered that workplace telepressure is a construct which mainly influences knowledge workers who accomplish their work via ICT. Consequently, further studies focusing specifically on workplace telepressure could be more exclusive and only recruit participants who do their work via laptop, tablet or smart phone.

In general, additional studies regarding workplace telepressure should be conducted in order to further validate the construct and demonstrate its relevance in the literature. Although several studies emphasize the variable's ability to explain unique variance in employees' well-being (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015; Barber & Santuzzi, 2017), Grawitch et al. (2018) indicated that this is not the case in terms of more generalized well-being outcomes. Their study showed that most of the variance explained by workplace telepressure was subsumed by other existing variables. Due to those inconsistent findings, future studies should get to the bottom of this issue, particularly because it might be of fundamental importance for the continuation of this niche of research.

Besides, it has already been shown in the literature that the fit between the individuals' segmentation preference and their actual segmentation supplies in the organization is of great relevance (Kreiner, 2006). However, solely the construct of workers' WHSP has been taken

into account in this study. Therefore, it is possible that some of the participants may in fact prefer to segment the work and home domain but are not fully able to do so, as it is not encouraged by their workplace. This kind of person-environment misfit could have an additional influence on the employees' recovery and well-being (Kreiner, 2006; Rothbard et al., 2005), which is not considered in the present model. Consequently, this matter should be recognized in future studies, for example by including the interaction between the workers' WHSP and employer's supplies as variable. By this means, it would also be acknowledged that neither segmentation nor integration is the ultimate coping strategy, as it rather depends on the fit (Clark, 2000; Rothbard et al., 2005).

Conclusion

On account of current technological advancements and their implementation in our everyday life, it is highly unlikely that the influence of technology at work will decrease any time soon. Therefore, it is important to deal with those developments the right way, to profit from their upsides and reduce their downsides. One particular downside is the experience of workplace telepressure which significantly contributes to employees' fatigue at bedtime. In the context of employees' well-being, the current study emphasizes the importance and protective nature of psychological detachment due to its positive influence on fatigue. Overall, it is crucial to take the consequences of technology-related changes at work seriously, as they do not solely affect the employees themselves but the organization as a whole. Although it seems necessary to ensure fast ICT-based communication and high responsiveness, an organization's future competitiveness might be at stake if it only focuses on the short-term profit and does not take employees' long-term consequences into consideration.

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Appendix

Workplace Telepressure Scale (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015; Thommes, 2015)

Für die folgenden Fragen denken Sie bitte darüber nach, wie Sie Technologien einsetzen, um mit Leuten an ihrem Arbeitsplatz zu kommunizieren. Denken Sie speziell an nachrichtenbasierte Technologien, die Ihnen Kontrolle über Ihr Antwortverhalten überlassen (E-Mail, Intranet, Sprachnachrichten etc.). Bitte beurteilen Sie, wie sehr Sie mit den folgenden Aussagen übereinstimmen. Wenn ich nachrichtenbasierte Technologien am Arbeitsplatz verwende...

Item 1: ist es hart für mich, mich auf andere Dinge zu fokussieren, wenn ich eine Nachricht von jemandem erhalten habe.

Item 2: kann ich mich besser auf eine andere Aufgabe konzentrieren, wenn ich meine Nachrichten beantwortet habe.

Item 3: kann ich nicht damit aufhören über eine Nachricht nachzudenken, bis ich darauf geantwortet habe.

Item 4: verspüre ich ein starkes Bedürfnis danach anderen sofort zu antworten.

Item 5: überkommt mich ein einnehmendes Gefühl, in genau dem Moment auf eine Anfrage zu antworten, wenn ich sie erhalte.

Item 6: ist es schwierig für mich, auf eine Nachricht nicht direkt zu antworten.

Likert Scale:

1 = *stimme überhaupt nicht zu*; 2 = *stimme eher nicht zu*; 3 = *weder noch/ teils teils*;
4 = *stimme eher zu*; 5 = *stimme voll zu*

Work-Home Segmentation Preference Scale (Kreiner, 2006)

Bitte geben Sie an inwiefern Sie den folgenden Aussagen zustimmen.

Item 1: Ich mag es nicht, wenn ich zu Hause über die Arbeit nachdenken muss.

Item 2: Ich bevorzuge es, das Arbeitsleben am Arbeitsplatz zu belassen.

Item 3: Ich mag es nicht, wenn sich Probleme von der Arbeit in mein Privatleben einschleichen.

Item 4: Ich mag es, wenn ich die Arbeit hinter mir lassen kann, wenn ich nach Hause gehe.

Likert Scale:

1 = *stimme überhaupt nicht zu*; 2 = *stimme nicht zu*; 3 = *stimme eher nicht zu*; 4 = *weder noch*; 5 = *stimme eher zu*; 6 = *stimme zu*; 7 = *stimme völlig zu*

Fatigue – Profiles of Mood Scale (McNair et al., 1971)

Bitte geben Sie an, wie Sie sich in diesem Moment fühlen.

Item 1: Ermüdet.

Item 2: Erledigt.

Item 3: Erschöpft.

Item 4: Verausgabt.

Likert Scale:

1 = *überhaupt nicht*; 2 = *ein wenig*; 3 = *durchschnittlich*; 4 = *ziemlich*; 5 = *in hohem Maße*

Psychological Detachment – Work-Related Rumination Scale (Cropley et al., 2012)

Bitte geben Sie an inwiefern die folgenden Fragen auf Sie zutreffen.

Item 1: Haben Sie sich heute nicht imstande gefühlt, von der Arbeit abzuschalten?

Item 2: Heute war ich in der Lage aufzuhören, in meiner freien Zeit über Arbeit nachzudenken.

Item 3: Ist es Ihnen heute leicht gefallen sich nach der Arbeit zu entspannen?

Item 4: Heute habe ich mich gezwungen, um von der Arbeit abzuschalten sobald ich die Arbeit verlassen habe.

Item 5: Haben Sie heute Arbeitsprobleme hinter sich gelassen, als Sie die Arbeit verlassen haben?

Likert Scale:

1 = *sehr selten oder nie*; 2 = *selten*; 3 = *manchmal*; 4 = *oft*; 5 = *sehr oft oder immer*