Universiteit Utrecht

Should I stay connected?

The effects of telepressure on work-related well-being and the role of recovery experiences

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Abstract

This cross-sectional study examined the relationship between telepressure and work-related well-being outcomes of work engagement and job burnout, moderated by recovery experiences. Telepressure is a relatively new concept within scientific research, which refers to the need to respond and the urge to reply quickly to incoming messages. In the current study the distinction was made between workplace and social telepressure. A survey was conducted among Dutch employed individuals between the ages of 20 and 30 ($N = 133$). The data was analyzed using a multiple linear regression and a bootstrap analysis for moderation effects. The findings showed that workplace and social telepressure correlate positively and that social telepressure was associated with a decrease in work engagement. Interaction effects were found between workplace telepressure and recovery experiences on work engagement, although in the opposite direction as was expected. No associations were found in the relationships between workplace and social telepressure and job burnout. The current study reflected on the possible influential effects of the COVID-19 pandemic on the data. This study adds to the limited body of knowledge on the topic of telepressure. Recommendations for future research and practical implications for organizations are discussed.

Key words: workplace telepressure, social telepressure, job burnout, work engagement, recovery experiences

Should I Stay Connected? The Effects of Telepressure on Work-related Well-being and the Role of Recovery Experiences

Nowadays, information and communication technology (ICT) devices are indispensable in the lives of most people. Not only individuals, but also organizations rely heavily on ICT devices for communication, such as smartphones, computers or tablets (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015. The use of ICT devices in day-to-day life gives users the opportunity to manage relationships and tasks from a single device, in a very flexible way. Most people carry their smartphones everywhere they go, thereby lowering the threshold for information or social accessibility. However, this accessibility has increased expectations among individuals that they should always be socially connected and respond immediately (Barber & Santuzzi, 2016). The experience of both thinking about the need to respond to message-based communications as well as the urge to reply quickly is explained by the term *telepressure* (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015).

Early research on telepressure focused solely on workplace telepressure, which defines the pressure employees feel to reply quickly to work-related communication (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015). However, Barber & Santuzzi (2016) argued that the need to respond to social connections is not limited to work relationships. The following statistics provide support for this argument, as within the age range of 18-25, the Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) in the Netherlands showed that 91% of people use their smartphone for social network purposes as opposed to 38% for professional network communication purposes in 2018 (CBS, 2019). It can be expected that especially younger employees could be affected by a social form of telepressure as they were either born or have grown up into an internet connected world where social contact with friends or family is always possible (Mangold & Smith, 2012; Wood, 2013). Despite the relevance of social sources for telepressure, the majority of research on telepressure does not take into account social relationships.

Since the popularity of using ICT devices, it was anticipated that these devices would be beneficial for productivity in the workplace (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015; Grawitch, Werth, Palmer, Erb, & Lavigne, 2018). However, telepressure has been linked to various negative health outcomes, such as exhaustion and sleep problems (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015; Hu, Santuzzi and Barber, 2019; Santuzzi & Barber, 2018). Moreover, constantly being accessible could make employees feel compelled to extend their flexibility to respond to messages after their regular working hours (e.g. evening hours or weekends), which affects their recovery time (Derks, Van Mierlo, & Schmitz, 2014; Fenner & Renn, 2010; Van Laethem, van

Vianen, & Derks, 2018). As employees need sufficient recovery from work in order to be engaged and productive workers (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007), it is crucial that research examines how telepressure affects employed individuals and how employee recovery can play a role.

To date, the majority of scientific literature has mainly focused on workplace telepressure, its antecedents and effects in work-related environments. The purpose of this study is to add to the body of literature by examining the construct of social telepressure and its distinction to workplace telepressure. Moreover, the associations between both workplace and social telepressure will be examined in relation to work-related well-being, while also investigating the role of recovery experiences within these associations. This will contribute to the existing literature as only the associations between social telepressure and non-work-related outcomes have been investigated (Santuzzi & Barber, 2016). Moreover, research on telepressure is relatively new, therefore investigating these associations will provide more insight to this construct. Telepressure is a unique concept that may help us understand how the use of ICT devices affects employed individuals and their well-being. This can be of importance for society and organizations, in order to help employed individuals guide their way through the experience of constant connectivity.

Defining telepressure

Baber & Santuzzi (2015) defined workplace telepressure as "thinking about ICT messages accompanied by an overwhelming urge to respond" (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015, p. 173). This definition of telepressure is used to explain the preoccupation and urge to respond to message-based ICTs for work purposes, such as receiving e-mails, texts or phone calls. According to Barber and Santuzzi (2015) the experience of workplace telepressure is a result of a raise in ICT demands within organizations. Other studies stated that telepressure could also arise because of environmental factors (Barber & Santuzzi, 2016), or suggested that personal factors (e.g. personality traits) lead to experiencing workplace telepressure (Grawitch et al., 2018). The causes can differ for workplace and social telepressure as some external influences are solely present in the workplace, like the fear of losing your job (Barber & Santuzzi, 2016).

In a longitudinal study, Barber & Santuzzi (2016) showed in a sample of college students that telepressure is a useful construct beyond the context of work, in which individuals feel the need to reply quickly to technology-based messages, even in their general social relationships. Consequently, telepressure could be applied to non-work (e.g. social)

contexts as well. Accordingly, a general measurement of telepressure was developed and validated by Barber & Santuzzi (2016). This measurement exists of the same items as the workplace telepressure measure by Barber and Santuzzi (2015), only the instructions were altered in such a way that it solely involved social interactions. Therefore, this "general" measure of telepressure could also be used as a measurement for social telepressure. In the sample of college students, Barber & Santuzzi (2016) showed that "general" telepressure is related to more technology use and negative well-being outcomes among employed compared to non-employed students. This shows that engaging in multiple domains (i.e. work and non-work domains) could be a factor in experiencing higher levels of telepressure which consequently results in decreased well-being. Within the current study, the urge and preoccupation that an individual can experience while responding to ICT messages within general social relationships is defined as social telepressure. It has to be noted that prior to the study of Barber and Santuzzi (2016), research on social telepressure was limited. Barber and Santuzzi (2016) suggested that future research on the experience of telepressure should aim to measure if the reported telepressure is perceived to be driven by work or non-work sources and which of these sources have a larger effect on health and well-being. Therefore, the current study aims to conceptualize social telepressure as a distinct construct from workplace telepressure.

Workplace telepressure has been linked to negative well-being and health outcomes (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015), higher levels of exhaustion and more sleep problems (Santuzzi & Barber, 2018). Workplace telepressure was also found to be negatively related to satisfaction with work-life balance (Barber, Colin, & Santuzzi, 2019). Moreover, mental and physical health of employees may be affected in the long run (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015), as the feeling of constant availability brings the private and professional domains closer together (Thomée, Eklöf, Gustafsson, Nilsson, & Hagberg, 2007). Employees might believe that staying connected and responding quickly to incoming messages will be viewed as a sign of good performance (Barber & Santuzzi, 205). Maintaining a healthy balance between being available and being able to disconnect from work is a complex and challenging construct. A study by Derks and Bakker (2014) has questioned if it is possible at all for smartphone users to maintain a satisfactory balance between their work and personal life. Therefore, the experience of telepressure is expected to negatively affect employee well-being. The constructs of work engagement and job burnout will be used to represent the measure of work-related well-being among employees in this study.

Work engagement. According to Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter and Taris (2008), work engagement is "a positive, fulfilling, affective-motivational state of work-related well-being that can be seen as the antipode of job burnout" (p. 187). This refers to a more persistent state that is not focused on any particular object, event, individual or behavior (Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002). Characteristics of engaged employees are those who feel energetic, dedicated and who are absorbed by their work (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008). According to Schaufeli et al. (2002), work engagement is operationalized into three characteristics. *Vigor* refers to high levels of energy and mental resilience, willingness to invest effort and persistence when facing challenges. *Dedication* is characterized by high levels of involvement and experiencing significance, enthusiasm and inspiration within work. Lastly, *absorption* refers to being fully concentrated and deeply engrossed in work, where time passes by quickly and it is difficult to detach from work (Bakker et al., 2008).

Employees who experience high levels of telepressure might seem to be dedicated and absorbed in their work, as they are staying connected and involved. However, their vigor is quite low as this would require "intrinsic enjoyment as opposed to just responsiveness to work demands" (Barber & Santuzzi, p. 173, 2015). Therefore, the experience of telepressure could affect work engagement of employees. Moreover, it is expected that telepressure will motivate employees to use their smartphone during work hours (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015; Grawitch et al., 2018). This has consequences as frequent smartphone use at work may lead to diminished work engagement (Van Laethem et al., 2018). This is evident, as it was found that employees who experienced high workplace telepressure reported less work engagement on days in which they used their smartphone intensively during work (Van Laethem et al., 2018). Therefore, it is expected that workplace telepressure will be negatively related to the experience of work engagement.

> *Hypothesis 1a:* Workplace telepressure is negatively associated with work engagement.

As for social telepressure in the workplace, using ICT devices during work does not necessarily mean that the individual is engaged in work-related tasks. Employees could be physically present in a work domain but may engage in non-work-related activities using ICT devices. Multiple studies have reported employees are frequently using ICT devices for non-work-related reasons during work hours (Restubog et al., 2011; Vitak, Crouse, & LaRose, 2011), with habit being the strongest predictor of why employees do so (Jamaluddin, Ahmad,

Alias, & Simun, 2015). For example, employees might receive phone calls, WhatsApp messages or other social notifications from friends or family during work hours. A high frequency of these social messages may cause work engagement to decrease (Van Laethem et al., 2018). Thus, it is expected that the experience of social telepressure is negatively associated with work engagement among employees.

Hypothesis 1b: Social telepressure is negatively associated with work engagement.

Job burnout. Job burnout is conceptualized as "a psychological syndrome in response to chronic interpersonal stressors on the job" (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, p. 399, 2001). It is defined by four dimensions: exhaustion, mental distance, cognitive impairment and emotional impairment (Schaufeli, De Witte, & Desart, 2019). *Exhaustion* refers to a serious loss of energy that results in physical as well as mental exhaustion. *Mental distance* refers to the mental withdrawal from work, of which indifferent and cynical attitudes are characteristics. *Cognitive impairment* manifests itself in memory problems, attention and concentration disorders and performance problems, where thinking is clearly difficult. *Emotional impairment* manifests itself in violent emotional reactions, in which the tolerance limit is low and individuals feel upset without knowing why. Not long ago, the Burnout Assessment Tool (BAT) by Schaufeli et al. (2019) was revised, which is a measurement tool for levels of burnout. As previous research already found associations between telepressure and burnout (Baber & Santuzzi, 2015; Barber & Santuzzi, 2016, Hu et al., 2019), it is interesting to examine the associations between telepressure and job burnout using this revised measure of the BAT.

The relationship between telepressure and job burnout can be explained by the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model of burnout by Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner and Schaufeli (2001). This model assumes that high job demands (e.g. high workload) lead to stress reactions whereas having many job resources (e.g. support from colleagues) lead to higher motivation and productivity (Schaufeli & Taris, 2013). During non-work time employees get the opportunity to restore emotional and physical resources which they have used while working, which is also known as employee recovery (Sonnentag, 2001). As workplace telepressure could drive employees to feel compelled to use their ICT devices more at work (Derks et al., 2014; Van Laethem et al., 2018), this can result in a continuous exposure to job demands. In terms of this prolonged exposure, the higher the required level of activity, the more resources will be depleted (Sonnentag & Zijlstra, 2006). Ultimately, which

could result in higher levels of burnout (Derks et al., 2014; Westman & Etzion, 2001). This is evident as Barber and Santuzzi (2015) reported high levels of workplace telepressure among employees were associated with higher levels of burnout. These results were replicated by Hu, Santuzzi and Barber (2019), who found a positive correlation between workplace telepressure and emotional exhaustion. Therefore, it is expected that workplace telepressure is positively associated with job burnout within this study.

Hypothesis 2a: Workplace telepressure is positively associated with job burnout.

Barber and Santuzzi (2016), measured a "general" form of telepressure, which was aimed at the urge and preoccupation to respond to messages of the participant's social interactions. They hypothesized that employed individuals may have more difficulty keeping up with social interactions because of demanding work obligations. This is because employed individuals have to allocate their resources to meet competing social and work demands. As resources such as time, personal energy or attention are viewed as finite, conflict between competing demands from work and social domains may cause stress and decreased well-being (Butler, 2007; Lenaghan & Sengupta, 2007; Owen, Kavanagh, & Dollard, 2017). Accordingly, Barber & Santuzzi (2016) found that employed students who experienced high levels of telepressure also reported more burnout symptoms and perceived stress compared to non-employed students. This finding illustrates that engaging in multiple domains from which the telepressure emerges (i.e. work and non-work domains) may add to experiencing more burnout symptoms. Therefore, within the current study it is expected that social telepressure will be positively associated with job burnout as employed individuals have to allocate their resources between work and social communication demands.

Hypothesis 2b: Social telepressure is positively associated with job burnout.

The moderating effects of recovery experiences

Recovery is defined as "a process psycho-physiological unwinding after effort expenditure" (Geurts & Sonnentag, p. 485, 2006). In other words, recovery occurs when individuals get the opportunity to restore their resources (Sonnentag & Zijlstra, 2006). The resources can return to its pre-stressor level in which strain is reduced (de Jonge, Spoor, Sonnentag, Dormann, & van den Tooren, 2012). This is important in preventing the exhaustion of resources, which can have negative consequences for health and well-being

(Maslach et al., 2001). There are four main recovery experiences. *Psychological detachment* is a state in which people mentally disconnect from work and do not think about job-related issues when they are away from work and it is considered a critical recovery strategy in the occupational health literature (Sonnentag, 2012; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). *Relaxation* activities are chosen with the explicit intention of relaxing and are characterized by a state of low activation (Stone, Kennedy-Moore, & Neale, 1995). *Control during leisure time* entails that an individual can decide which activity to pursue during their leisure time, as well as when and how (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). *Mastery experiences* are off-job activities that serve as distraction from the job, as they provide challenging experiences and learning opportunities in other domains (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007).

Recovery experiences give individuals the opportunity to return to and stabilize at baseline level where personal resources can be restored (De Jonge et al., 2012; Hobfoll, 2001; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015). Recovered employees are more willing to invest more effort at work and are more resistant to stress (Sonnentag, 2003). Moreover, psychological detachment was found to be positively related to work engagement in the following workday (Sonnentag & Kühnel, 2016). Higher levels of psychological detachment are also associated with higher levels of life satisfaction and lower levels of emotional exhaustion (Fritz, Yankelevich, Zarubin, & Barger, 2010). Because recovered employees have enough resources to be engaged in their work and are able to concentrate fully on the task at hand, recovery experiences also positively affect dedication and absorption (Sonnentag, 2003). Altogether, frequent recovery is crucial for employee health, well-being and performance (Sonnentag, 2001).

In explaining why job stressors may result in health problems, lack of recovery has often been referred to (Geurts & Sonnentag, 2006). This is because continuous depletion of resources will ultimately lead to exhaustion in the absence of sufficient recovery (Sonnentag & Zijlstra, 2006). In the same way, sufficient recovery may buffer the negative effects from job stressors on well-being according to the Stressor-detachment model. This model explains that negative health outcomes caused by prolonged stressors from work can be countered by sufficient levels of psychological detachment (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015). This is because recovery experiences during non-work time may help to replenish well-being of the employed individual (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). Accordingly, Sonnentag and Fritz (2007) showed that recovery experiences could be conceptualized as moderators in the relationship between job stressors and occupational well-being, as they found that psychological detachment was related to well-being. Other studies have also used recovery experiences as

an explanatory mechanism in the relationships between stress reactions and health problems (Allen, Holland, & Reynolds, 2014; Geurts & Sonnentag, 2006; Siltaloppi, Kinnunen, & Feldt, 2009). Therefore, in the current study it is expected that recovery experiences will buffer the harmful effects of workplace and social telepressure on work engagement and job burnout, as individuals are able to sufficiently restore their lost resources.

Hypothesis 3a: Recovery experiences moderate the relationship between workplace telepressure and work engagement

Hypothesis 3b: Recovery experiences moderate the relationship between social telepressure and work engagement

Hypothesis 4a: Recovery experiences moderate the relationship between workplace telepressure and job burnout

Hypothesis 4b: Recovery experiences moderate the relationship between social telepressure and job burnout

The research question in the current study is as follows: *To what extent does the experience of workplace and social telepressure predict work engagement and job burnout, moderated by recovery experiences, among Dutch employed individuals between the age of 20 and 30?* A conceptual overview of the proposed hypotheses is shown in Figures 1 and 2.

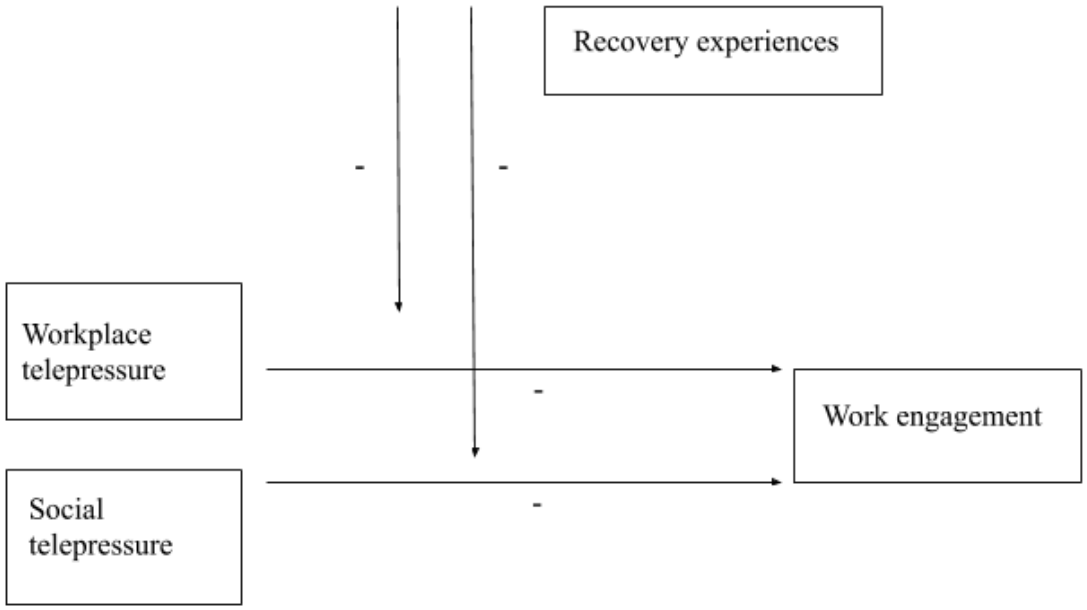

Figure 1. Conceptual models of proposed hypotheses with work engagement as the outcome variable.

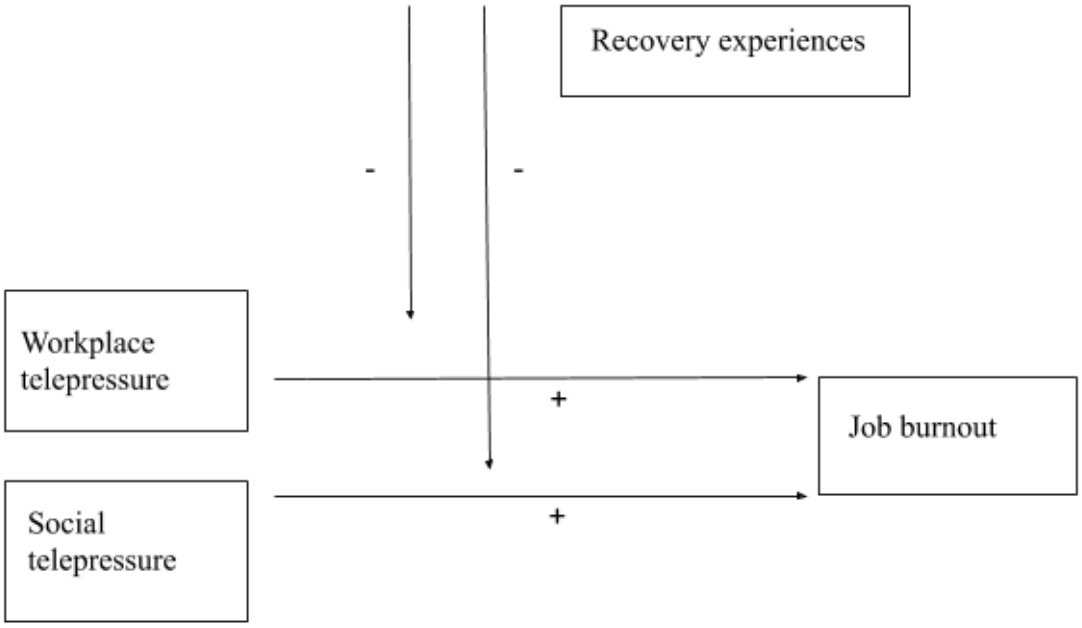

Figure 2. Conceptual models of proposed hypotheses with job burnout as the outcome variable.

Methods

Qualitative phase

First, a small qualitative pilot study was conducted among individuals from the population, in order to gain more insight into this construct as it is a relatively new concept within scientific research in the Netherlands. Twelve participants were asked about their feelings, perceptions and opinions about telepressure, which contributed to the development of the survey. The data collection took place during the global pandemic caused by the COVID-19 virus, also known as the Coronacrisis. During this time, employed individuals were ordered to work from home as much as possible. Therefore, the individual conversations added to the knowledge on how this crisis affected employed individuals. This was important to make the data as valid as possible during these times. In the end, the focus group did not influence the selection of items used within the measurement scales. However, it did influence the survey in the sense that questions were added in order to try and make comparisons between pre-Coronacrisis work situations and the situation at the time the data collection took place (e.g. working from home) (see Appendix C).

Quantitative phase

Procedure

After conducting a qualitative pilot study, the hypotheses were tested using data from an online survey across a sample of employed individuals between the ages of 20 and 30 years old. Before the distribution of the survey, ethical approval was arranged following the procedure specified by the Ethics Review Board of the faculty of Social and Behavioral Sciences at Utrecht University. Participants were recruited via snowball sampling. Before accessing the survey, participants were asked to read and agree to an informed consent (see appendix A), which stated the rights of the participant during and after the questionnaire. Participation requirements were that the participant was between the ages of 20 to 30 years old, was employed and worked a minimum of 12 hours per week. No set requirements of education, genders or sex were applicable within this study.

Participants

In total, 231 participants started the survey of which 135 participants completed the survey. Based on the participant requirements, three cases were not taken into the analyses due to the fact the participants were over 30 years old. Based on the variables and interactions, an alpha of .05 and a medium effect size with a power of .80, the minimum

number of participants should be 84 (Cohen, 1992). The final sample size (N = 133) provides a large enough statistical power.

Within the sample, the average age was 24.61 (SD = 2.11), with 67.7% being female. In terms of employment, 24.8% of participants reported to have a contract with their employers on the basis of 40 hours per week (M = 29.50, SD = 11.66) and 13.5% of participants had been working at their organization for less than a year. Most participants (38.8%) were working in companies with over a hundred employees. Overall, 93.2% of participants said they were allowed to take their phone into work and 53.4% of all participants did not own a separate work phone. Most participants (24.8%) were employed in the trade and services sector. On average participants have been working 5.23 (SD = 10.12) years in their lives.

Table 1

Descriptives of demographic variables

Category	Subcategory	% of participants
Education level	VMBO, HAVO, MBO[1]	9.8
	VWO[2]	3.0
	HBO[3]	21.8
	University	65.4
Entrepreneur	Yes	3.0
	No	97.0
Size of organization	0-10 people	11.6
	11-25 people	15.5
	26-50 people	15.5
	51-100 people	18.6
	100+ people	38.8
Access to mobile phone while at work	Yes	93.2
	No	4.5
	Sometimes	2.3
Separate work phone	Yes	46.6

[1] VMBO: Preparatory secondary education; HAVO: Higher general secondary education; MBO: Secondary vocational education.
[2] VWO: Pre-university education.
[3] HBO: Graduate school.

	No	53.4
Sector of employment	Health care and welfare	20.3
	Trade and services	24.8
	ICT	6.0
	Justice, security and public administration	4.5
	Agriculture, nature and fishing	1,5
	Media and communication	4.5
	Education, culture and science	21.8
	Engineering, production and construction	5.3
	Tourism, recreation and catering	9.0
	Transport and logistics	2.3

Measures

Dutch translations and validations were used for all scales. Individual items can be found in Appendix B and C.

Workplace telepressure. The scale to measure workplace telepressure was developed and validated by Barber and Santuzzi (2015). This is a six-item scale with response options ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).). The scale measures preoccupation (e.g. "It's hard for me to focus on other things when I receive a message from someone") and urge (e.g. "I feel a strong need to respond to other immediately"). The Cronbach's *a* for the workplace telepressure scale was 0.87.

Social telepressure. The same scale was used to measure social telepressure, as was done by Barber and Santuzzi (2016) to measure "general" telepressure. The introductory text for this scale specifically referenced communication with social contacts, such as friends, family or acquaintances. Cronbach's *a* for this scale was 0.90.

Recovery experiences. The scale to measure recovery experiences was developed and validated by Sonnentag and Fritz (2007). In the current study, the Dutch measurement has been used, which was translated and validated by De Bloom, Geurts and Kompier (2012; 2013). This 16-item scale includes four items for each experience type including psychological detachment (e.g., "I forget about work"), relaxation (e.g., "I kick back and relax"), mastery (e.g., "I learn new things"), and control (e.g., "I determine for myself how I will spend my time"). Response options ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The Cronbach's *a* for this scale was 0.79.

Work engagement. Work engagement was measured with the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale by Schaufeli, Bakker and Salanova (2006). This nine-item scale consists of three subscales, which in turn consist of three items, respectively vigor (e.g. "At my work, I feel bursting with energy"), dedication (e.g. "My job inspires me") and absorption (e.g. "I feel happy when I am working intensely"). Response options ranged on a six-point scale from 0 (*never*) to 6 (*always*). The Cronbach's *a* for this scale was 0.92.

Job burnout. Job burnout was measured with the revised Burnout Assessment Tool (BAT) by Schaufeli, De Witte, and Desart (2019). This scale includes 23 items and measures exhaustion (e.g. "At work, I feel mentally exhausted"), mental distance (e.g. "I struggle to find any enthusiasm for my work"), cognitive impairment (e.g. "At work, I have trouble staying focused") and emotional impairment (e.g. "At work, I feel unable to control my emotions"). Response options ranged from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*). The Cronbach's *a* for this scale was 0.91.

COVID-19. When this research was conducted, the world was in a state of pandemic. Therefore, a scale was included in the survey with the goal of being able to measure how much participants were affected personally by the Coronacrisis in relation to their work (e.g. "It hinders my performance in my work"). This scale existed of 3 items, with a Cronbach's *a* of .88. Additionally, participants were asked to rate their levels of workplace and social telepressure in general (i.e. before the pandemic) and during the Coronacrisis.

Analyses

With the Statistical Program for Social Sciences (SPSS) a multiple linear regression was conducted to test the main effects of the predictors on the outcome variables. Additionally, the relationships among variables were tested for moderation using a SPSS macro designed by Preacher and Hayes (2008), using bootstrapping analyses. Bootstrapping essentially re-samples the gathered sample, generating a new sample size (Hayes, 2009; MacKinnon, Lockwood Williams, 2004). While generating a new sample size, the number of bootstrap intervals is recommended to be at least 5000 (Hayes, 2009). This bootstrap analysis increases statistical power and can compensate for shortcomings of the normality assumption (Field, 2013). According to Hayes (2009), bootstrapping is one of the more powerful and valid methods for testing intervening variable effects and should therefore be the method of choice.

Results

Testing assumptions

Prior to interpreting the results of the multiple linear regression analysis, the data was checked on several assumptions regarding normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, multicollinearity, skewness and outliers. Linearity was assessed by a plot of standardized residuals against predicted values. There was independence of residuals as assessed by a Durbin Watson static of 1.78 for the first model and 2.14 for the second model (Field, 2013). There was homoscedasticity as assessed by visual representation of the residuals using a scatterplot. There was no evidence for multicollinearity as Tolerance and VIF values did not exceed limit values of respectively 0.1 and 1 (Field, 2013). As for the second model, a visual representation of cases by using a boxplot detected possible outliers. However, scores on the individual items of the scale for job burnout did not indicate any unusual values. When checking the P-plot and values of Cook's distance and centered Leverage within a plot, this indicated no influential outliers were present. Therefore, no cases were deleted.

Descriptive analyses

Means, standard deviations and Pearson correlation values for all variables are reported in Table 2. Workplace telepressure and social telepressure correlated positively (r = 0.52, p < .01). Job burnout and work engagement correlated negatively (r = -0.58, p < .01) as well as job burnout and recovery experiences (r = -0.31, p < .01). Workplace telepressure did not correlate with work engagement (r = -.01, p = .949) as well as social telepressure did not (r = -0.16, p = .070). Workplace telepressure did not correlate with job burnout (r = 0.14, p = .121) nor did social telepressure (r = 0.17, p = .06). Workplace telepressure and recovery experiences correlated negatively (r = -0.23, p < .01).

Table 2

Means, standard deviations and Pearson correlations among all variables

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Work engagement	4.50	0.84	-				
2. Job burnout	2.05	0.48	-0.58**	-			
3. Workplace telepressure	3.32	0.81	-0.01	0.14	-		
4. Social telepressure	2.85	0.88	-0.16	0.16	0.52**	-	
5. Recovery experiences	3.62	0.41	0.06	-0.31**	-0.23**	-0.10	-

Note. $N = 133$. $^{**}p < .01$ (2-tailed).

Model test analyses

Work engagement.

Hypothesis 1a expected that workplace telepressure would be negatively associated with work engagement. Hypothesis 1b expected that social telepressure would be negatively associated with work engagement. To test Hypotheses 1a and 1b, a multiple linear regression analysis was performed. Unstandardized and standardized regression coefficients and coefficients standard error for each predictor for work engagement are reported in Table 3. The main effects of workplace telepressure, social telepressure and recovery experiences jointly explained 3.7% of the variance in work engagement, $F(3,129) = 1.63$, $p = .185$. Within the regression analysis, recovery experiences were not associated with work engagement ($\beta = 0.06$, $p = .469$). Unlike expected workplace telepressure was not associated work engagement ($\beta = 0.12$, $p = .252$). Consequently, Hypothesis 1a was rejected. As for Hypothesis 1b, social telepressure was negatively associated with work engagement ($\beta = -0.21$, $p < .05$). In other words, high levels of social telepressure are related to lower levels of work engagement. This was like expected, therefore Hypothesis 1b was confirmed.

Table 3

Summary of multiple regression analysis for variables predicting work engagement

	B	95% CI for *B*		*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR
		LL	*UL*				
Model						0.04	0.01
Constant	4.469	4.354	4.639	0.07			
Workplace telepressure	0.10	-0.07	0.27	0.09	0.12		
Social telepressure	-0.18*	-0.34	-0.01	0.08	-0.21*		
Recovery experiences	0.06	-0.09	0.20	0.07	0.06		

Note. $N = 133$. *p. < .05

In testing Hypotheses 3a and 3b, a moderation analysis with bootstrapping was performed. In Hypothesis 3a it was expected that recovery experiences moderate the relationships between workplace telepressure and work engagement. The total model was not significant, as workplace telepressure, recovery experiences and the interaction term

explained 3% of variance in work engagement, $F(3,129) = 1.32$, $p = .269$. However, results of the bootstrap analysis showed a significant interaction effect between workplace telepressure and recovery experiences on work engagement, as the value of zero was not included in the confidence interval, β = -0.12, *SE* = 0.06, *CI* = [-0.22, -0.01]. As displayed in Figure 3, this interaction showed that individuals with sufficient levels of recovery experienced a decrease in work engagement with increasing levels of workplace telepressure, whereas individuals with poor recovery experienced more work engagement with increasing levels of workplace telepressure. Although significant, this effect was in the opposite direction as expected. This is because Hypothesis 3a expected that recovery experiences would weaken the relationship between workplace telepressure and work engagement. Therefore, this hypothesis was rejected.

In Hypothesis 3b it was expected that recovery experiences would moderate the relationship between social telepressure and work engagement. The total model was not significant, as social telepressure, recovery experiences and the interaction term explained 4% of variance in work engagement, $F(3,129) = 1.79$, $p = .153$. There was no interaction effect found between social telepressure and recovery on work engagement as the value of zero was included within the confidence interval, β = -0.08, *SE* = 0.07 *CI* = [-0.23, 0.04]. In other words, high levels of recovery do not weaken the negative relationship between social telepressure and work engagement. Consequently, Hypothesis 3b was rejected.

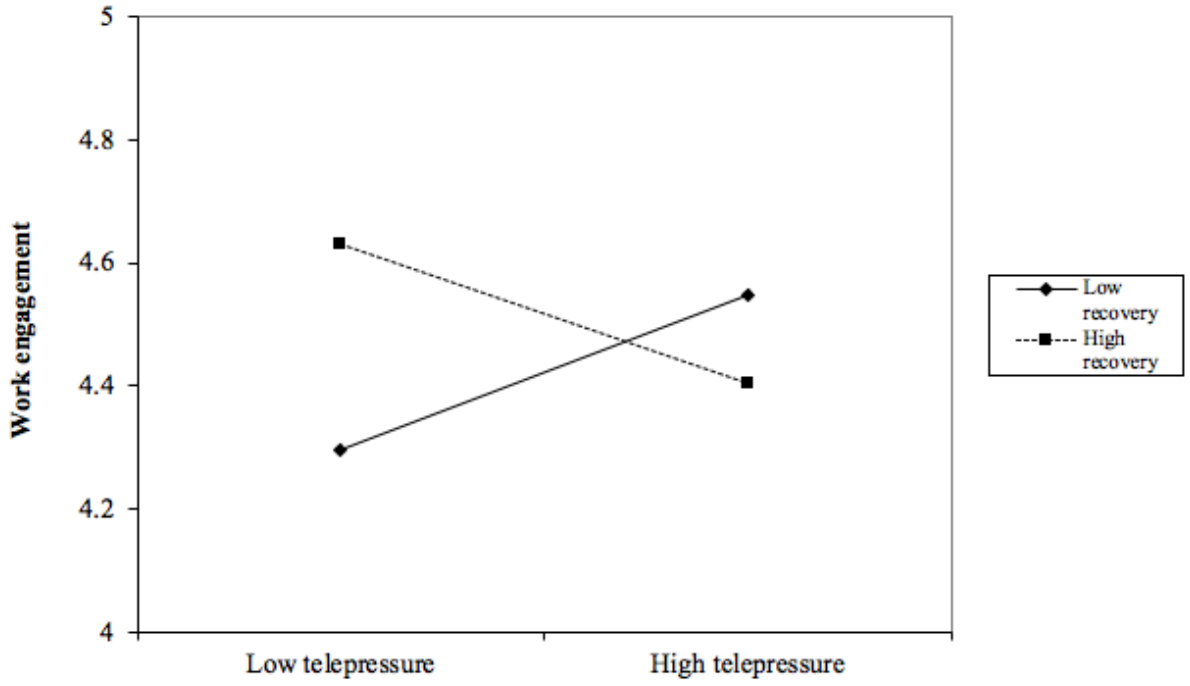

Figure 3. Interaction effect between workplace telepressure and recovery experiences on work engagement.

Job burnout

In Hypotheses 2a and 2b it was expected that workplace and social telepressure were both negatively associated with job burnout. To further test the hypotheses, a multiple linear regression was performed. Unstandardized and standardized regression coefficients and coefficients standard error for each predictor of job burnout are reported in Table 4. The main effects of workplace telepressure, social telepressure and recovery experiences jointly explained 11.1% of the variance in job burnout, $F(3,129) = 5.38$, $p < .01$. Within the regression analysis, recovery experiences were negatively associated with job burnout ($\beta = -0.29$, $p < .01$). Unlike expected, workplace telepressure was not associated with job burnout ($\beta = 0.00$, $p = .998$). Consequently, Hypothesis 2a was rejected. As for Hypothesis 2b, social telepressure was not associated with job burnout ($\beta = 0.13$, $p = .170$). As this was unlike expected, Hypothesis 2b was rejected.

To test for Hypotheses 4a and 4b, another bootstrap analysis for moderation effects was performed. Hypothesis 4a predicted that recovery experiences would moderate the relationships between workplace telepressure and job burnout. The total model was significant, as workplace telepressure, recovery experiences and the interaction term explained 10.11% of variance in job burnout, $F(3,129) = 4.84$, $p < .01$. However, results of the bootstrap analysis showed no interaction effect between workplace telepressure and recovery experiences on job burnout, as the value of zero was included in the confidence interval, $\beta = 0.02$, $SE = 0.03$, $CI = [-0.04, 0.08]$.

Hypothesis 4b predicted that recovery experiences would moderate the relationship between social telepressure and job burnout. The total model was significant, as social telepressure, recovery experiences and the interaction term explained 11.24% of variance in job burnout, $F(3,129) = 5.45$, $p < .01$. However, the results of the bootstrap analysis showed there was no interaction effect of social telepressure and recovery experiences on job burnout, $\beta = 0.01$, $SE = 0.03$, $CI = [-0.05, 0.07]$, as the value of zero was included in the confidence interval.

Table 4

Summary of multiple regression analysis for variables predicting job burnout

	B	95% CI for *B*		*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR
		LL	*UL*				
Model						0.11	0.09
Constant	2.05	1.97	2.13	0.04			
Workplace telepressure	0.00	-.09	0.09	0.05	0.00		
Social telepressure	0.06	-0.03	0.16	0.05	0.13		
Recovery experiences	-0.14**	-0.22	-0.06	0.04	-0.29**		

Note. $N = 133$. *p. < .01.

Additional analyses COVID-19

The majority of participants (51.1%) agreed or strongly agreed to feel like the Coronacrisis had hindered their work performance. Additionally, more than half of the participants (55.7%) agreed or strongly agreed the Coronacrisis had limited them in how well they could do their jobs. A large body of participants (69.2%) said to either agree or strongly agree that the Coronacrisis had limited their options in terms of work.

In terms of the experience of workplace and social telepressure before and during the Coronacrisis, a paired-samples t-test was conducted to compare the means. There was no difference in levels of workplace telepressure in general ($M = 3.36$, $SD = 0.89$) and levels of workplace telepressure during the Coronacrisis ($M = 3.27$, SD = 1.10), t(132)= 1.053, $p = .294$. There was also no difference in levels of social telepressure in general (i.e. before the Coronacrisis) ($M = 2.72$, $SD = 1.04$), and of social telepressure during the Coronacrisis ($M = 2.56$, $SD = 1.04$), t(132)= 1.640, $p = .103$. These results suggested that levels of workplace telepressure and social telepressure have not increased or decreased during the Coronacrisis.

Discussion

The aim of this study was to examine whether workplace and social telepressure were related to work engagement and job burnout. Furthermore, the moderating role of recovery experiences between workplace and social telepressure and the outcome variables was investigated. The associations were tested in a sample of 133 Dutch employed individuals between the ages of 20 and 30 years old.

In recommendation of a previous study on different sources of telepressure by Barber and Santuzzi (2016), the current study attempted to conceptualize workplace telepressure and social telepressure as distinct constructs. The results showed that these variables were positively correlated with one another. In other words, the experience of workplace telepressure is likely to increase the experience of social telepressure, or vice versa. A reason for this finding could be that both workplace and social telepressure arise from the usage of ICT devices. It was already found in research that employed individuals use ICT devices at work out of habit (Jamaluddin et al., 2015). For example, using a phone to respond to work-related messages might make an individual more likely to also respond to social messages on that same device as it might be easy to get distracted. The fact that more than half of the participants did not own a separate work phone (e.g. for work-related communication only) gives some confirmation for this line of thought.

Work engagement

It was expected that workplace telepressure and social telepressure would be negatively associated with work engagement. The results of the analysis showed that workplace telepressure was not related to work engagement. This is contradictory to the findings by van Laethem et al. (2018), who reported that employees who experienced high workplace telepressure reported less work engagement on days in which they used their smartphone intensively during work. An explanation for this contradictory finding may have to do with the COVID-19 pandemic. During these times all work-related communication was done using ICT devices (e.g. video calling) as individuals were mostly working from home. It is imaginable it became somewhat normal for employed individuals to be preoccupied with incoming work-related messages, as this was the only way to be reached by colleagues. Therefore, it is possible that the experience of workplace telepressure became a fact of life for many employed individuals, in the sense that individuals accepted it was something unpleasant that just had to be dealt with. Consequently, this could have affected the reported levels of telepressure in such a way that it deviates from the "normal" (e.g. pre-Coronacrisis) levels of workplace telepressure.

In line with the prediction, social telepressure was negatively associated with work engagement. This means that individuals who experience high levels of social telepressure are likely to experience lower levels of work engagement. This is in line with previous research that reported individuals frequently use ICT devices for non-work-related reasons during work hours (Restubog et al., 2011; Vitak et al., 2011), which consequently decreases work engagement (Van Laethem et al., 2018).

It was expected that recovery experiences would moderate the relationship between workplace telepressure and work engagement. The results of the bootstrap analysis showed a significant interaction effect between workplace telepressure and recovery experiences on work engagement. This effect entails that high levels of recovery result in a decrease in work engagement when telepressure levels are high, while low levels of recovery and low levels of telepressure result in an increase in work engagement. However, these findings were not in the direction as expected, as it was hypothesized that the relationship between workplace telepressure and work engagement would be weaker among individuals who experience high levels of recovery. An explanation for this opposite finding could be that the current study did not take into account any job resources, which are the counterparts of job demands according to the JD-R model by (Schaufeli & Taris, 2013). This is important, as jo resources may prevent energy depletion and are positively related to work engagement (Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2003; Trépanier, Fernet, Austin, Forest, & Vallerand, 2014). More importantly, it could be that some employees do not appraise workplace telepressure as stressful, but experience this more as a challenging demand. The interaction effect showed that this could be the case for the group of individuals that experience low levels of recovery and high levels of telepressure. Crawfard, LePine and Rich (2010) explained that challenge demands at work have the potential to promote personal growth and are therefore related to higher levels of work engagement. A study on technostress (i.e. stress that individuals experience due to the use of information systems) already showed that employees could appraise this stress as ‘thrilling’ or ‘challenging’ which motivates them and leads to positive outcomes like enhanced job performance (Tarafdar, Cooper, & Stich, 2017). It could be possible that workplace telepressure stimulates a similar kind of motivation. However, this is not applicable for all participants, as higher levels of both recovery and workplace telepressure were associated with decreased work engagement. Possible individual factors could play an additional role in the prediction of work engagement, such as mental health, job satisfaction or intrinsic motivation (Fiabane, Giorgi, Sguazzin, & Argentero, 2013). In conclusion, more research is needed to further explore the relationship between workplace telepressure and recovery experiences on work engagement and examine the possible motivational effects of workplace telepressure.

Moreover, it was expected that recovery experiences would moderate the relationship between social telepressure and work engagement. Unlike expected, no significant interaction effects were found. This contradicts previous research that found that recovery experiences will give the individual the opportunity to restore resources that have been depleted during

work time, therefore weakening the negative relationships between stressors and health outcomes, which has positive effects on work engagement in the following day (Sonnentag, 2003; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015). As mentioned, this could be due to the absence of job resources or relevant personal factors within the current study that are positively related to work engagement according to previous scientific research. In conclusion, the moderating effects of recovery experiences were only confirmed for the relationship between workplace telepressure and work engagement.

Job burnout

It was predicted that workplace and social telepressure would be positively associated with job burnout. Unlike predicted, the results showed that workplace telepressure was not related to job burnout. This is in contradiction with previous findings that reported higher levels of workplace telepressure were associated with higher levels of burnout (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015; Hu et al., 2019). Additionally, social telepressure was not found to be related to job burnout either. Again, this is not in line with previous research that showed that individuals who reported high levels of "general" telepressure also reported higher levels of burnout (Barber & Santuzzi, 2016). An explanation for these findings can be found in the scales used to measure burnout levels. Barber and Santuzzi (2015) and Hu et al. (2019) both used the Shirom-Malemed Burnout Measure (Shirom & Melamed, 2006), in contradiction to the revised Burnout Assessment Tool by Schaufeli et al. (2019) used in the current study. Although both measurements attempt to measure the same concept, it is possible that the use of other measures might result in differences in outcomes. Moreover, the population that was researched in the current study was either born or has grown up into an internet connected world. Instead of telepressure having more impact on young employed individuals because of this reason, it could be possible that they are in fact less affected, because they are used to being constantly available and connected. Consequently, this group might not appraise these types of telepressure as stressful or exhausting but see this more as a normal aspect of life. In conclusion, experienced levels of workplace or social telepressure might not be relevant for this working group in the prediction of job burnout levels.

Furthermore, it was expected that recovery experiences would moderate the relationship between workplace telepressure and job burnout. This hypothesis was not confirmed. Additionally, there were no moderation effects found for the relationship between social telepressure and job burnout. Both these findings contradict the principles of the Stressor-detachment model and the findings by Sonnentag and Fritz (2015) that show that negative health outcomes caused by prolonged stressors from work can be countered by

sufficient levels of recovery. An explanation for these findings may have to do with the absence of main effects between workplace and social telepressure and job burnout. The findings of the current study suggest that workplace and social telepressure may not be relevant constructs in the prediction of job burnout, as both variables were not related to job burnout.

COVID-19

As mentioned, a large group of employed individuals was ordered to work from home when the Coronacrisis began. The Dutch National Institute for Health and Environment (In Dutch: RIVM) (2020) stated that the compulsory working from home could affect employees' resilience or vigor because of isolation, decreased colleague support and worse environmental conditions. The findings on the additional analysis on the Coronacrisis experiences supported this, as the majority of participants reported to feel limited within terms of their performance and options within their work. Moreover, the findings suggest that levels of workplace telepressure and social telepressure did not differ during the Coronacrisis as opposed to "general" (i.e. pre-Coronacrisis) levels.

Limitations

The reported findings in the current study are limited by a number of factors. First, due to the cross-sectional nature of the current study, the findings are correlations and not casual relationships (Setia, 2016). Longitudinal research methods are more suitable for the explanation of causal effects (Wunsch, Russo, & Mouchart, 2010).

Second, the study was limited by its sample. Snowball sampling was used in gathering participants, which does not result in a randomly selected sample. Consequently, women and higher levels of education were overrepresented in this study's sample. This may have consequences for the external validity of the study, as this limits the generalization of the findings (Field, 2013).

Third, the COVID-19 virus had spread at the time the data collection took place. As stated by the RIVM (2020), this was a profound, intense and unique situation that affected the world down to the individual level. The goal of this study was to get more insight into normal working conditions among the population, however as employees were mostly working from home during the data collection of this study, this was difficult to achieve. Within the introductory text in the survey it was clearly stated to imagine still working in your office, however it is possible the Coronacrisis affected to what extent participants indicated that they experienced levels of telepressure, work engagement or job burnout. This is because participants might suffer from recall bias, in which participants have trouble recalling

experiences in the past which affects the accuracy of the recollections. This systematic measurement bias often occurred in epidemiology research (Raphael, 1987). In short, the Coronacrisis posed difficulties for the interpretation of the data, generalization of findings and replicability of the whole study. On that note, future studies should consider examining to what extent individuals who work part-time from home experience telepressure. As all work-related communication goes through ICT devices on those days, levels of experienced telepressure might fluctuate. This is especially relevant as the Coronacrisis changed the way of working for the foreseeable future (i.e. structurally increased amount of working from home).

Implications

This study adds to the existing body of scientific literature on telepressure and its effects on work-related well-being. Building on the findings, this study proposes theoretical and practical implications. The current study was the first to investigate social telepressure in relation to work-related outcomes. The findings showed that social telepressure is a significant predictor for work engagement. As social telepressure is an understudied concept in comparison to workplace telepressure, this is an interesting finding. This shows relevance to consider social telepressure when investigating workplace telepressure. Within the current study, the conceptualization of social telepressure was limited to messaging when in reality social telepressure could also be experienced due to messages or notifications from social media apps (e.g. Facebook or Instagram). Therefore, it would be interesting for future research to further investigate the construct of social telepressure in terms of its conceptualization, relevance and effects.

Moreover, the correlation between workplace and social telepressure shows the relevance of a separate work phone for employees. When separating work-related and social communication in multiple devices, it can be expected that this will decrease the detrimental effect of social telepressure on work engagement. This is because employees will get the opportunity to be less occupied with social messages when they are coming in on a separate device of which the use is not permitted extensively during work time. However, this only holds up if employed individuals do not use their work phone for social communication. A separate work phone could also add to the experience of recovery, as employed individuals have the opportunity to fully mentally disconnect from work when they can turn their work phone off completely during non-work hours. Consequently, individuals might also feel less pressured to work beyond their regular working hours. In conclusion, the current study advices for compulsory separate work phones as a practical implication for organizations.

Conclusion

As organizations rely heavily on ICT devices for communication (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015), it is important to understand the effects of the constant use of these devices on work-related well-being among employees. In the current study it was found that workplace and social telepressure reinforce each other and that social telepressure is relevant in predicting work engagement. Moreover, the findings suggest the possibility that workplace telepressure might stimulate a motivational effect among employees. Altogether, these findings provide more insight into the effects of telepressure and the additional value of examining social telepressure. This contributes to scientific literature as it provides more understanding of a relatively new concept within organizational psychology. Future research should build on the current findings to help employed individuals guide their way through the constant connectivity that many face in this day and age.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Informed consent (in Dutch)

Beste deelnemer,
Graag nodigen wij je uit om deel te nemen aan ons afstudeerproject, uitgevoerd door Nina de Vries, Ilse van den Belt en Karlijn Albers. Wij volgen allen de master Social, Health and Organisational Psychology aan de Universiteit Utrecht. Dr. Veerle Brenninkmeijer, werkzaam op de afdeling Sociale, Gezondheids- en Organisatiepsychologie en tevens mastercoördinator, begeleidt dit afstudeerproject.

Achtergrond onderzoek

Dit is een onderzoek naar het omgaan met communicatietechnologie, de angst om waardevolle ervaringen te missen in relatie tot werk en privéleven en de neiging om jezelf te vergelijken met anderen op de werkvloer. Het doel van dit onderzoek is om beter inzicht te krijgen in hoe deze ervaringen invloed hebben op de werkbevlogenheid, burn-out en prestaties van werknemers. Om deel te nemen aan deze studie dien je tussen de 20 en 30 jaar oud te zijn en minimaal 12 uur per week te werken. Deelname aan dit onderzoek is vrijwillig. Om deel te nemen is je schriftelijke toestemming nodig.

Wat er van je wordt verwacht als participant

Aan het begin van de vragenlijst worden een aantal achtergrondgegevens gevraagd. De overige vragen hebben betrekking op je ervaring en gedrag in werkgerelateerde situaties. Aan het einde van de vragenlijst worden een aantal vragen gesteld met betrekking tot de Corona-crisis en hoe je deze ervaart. Het invullen van de survey zal ongeveer tussen de 20 en 30 minuten duren. We willen je uitnodigen om de vragen eerlijk en intuïtief te beantwoorden, het gaat om je eerste ingeving. Bovendien bestaan er geen goede of foute antwoorden. In de vragenlijst kun je mogelijk te maken krijgen met vragen die je persoonlijk raken. Wanneer je wilt stoppen met het invullen van de vragenlijst dan kan dat op elk moment, zonder verdere uitleg. Als je je deelname beëindigt, zullen je onderzoeksgegevens nog gebruikt worden tot het moment van stoppen, tenzij je expliciet om verwijdering vraagt. Er zijn geen verdere risico’s met dit onderzoek geassocieerd.

Vertrouwelijkheid van data verzameling

Voor dit onderzoek verzamelen wij de volgende (algemene) persoonsgegevens: leeftijd, geslacht, hoogst genoten opleiding, huidige functiegroep en contractuele aanstelling. De verzamelde data zullen compleet geanonimiseerd worden, waardoor antwoorden niet tot personen te herleiden zullen zijn. Het databestand met de persoonsgegevens zal bewaard worden in een met een wachtwoord beveiligde online omgeving. De onderzoekers zullen alleen toegang hebben tot de compleet geanonimiseerde versies van de data voor de rest van het onderzoek. De onderzoeksdata zullen minimaal 10 jaar na publicatie van het onderzoek bewaard worden. Dit is in overeenstemming met de richtlijnen van het VSNU Vereniging van Universiteiten in Nederland. Meer informatie over privacy is te vinden op https://autoriteitpersoonsgegevens.nl/nl/onderwerpen/avg-europese-privacywetgeving.

Corona

Vanwege de landelijke maatregelen die zijn getroffen rondom de Corona-crisis is thuiswerken het nieuwe normaal geworden. Omdat ons onderzoek zich richt op werkgerelateerde situaties, kunnen deze maatregelen van invloed zijn op de resultaten van dit onderzoek. We willen daarom vragen om de stellingen te beoordelen vanuit de mindset en werkervaringen van vóór de Corona-crisis.

Contact

Eventuele opmerkingen of vragen over de survey of het onderzoek kunnen gemaild worden naar n.a.devries2@students.uu.nl / k.albers@students.uu.nl / i.s.vandenbelt@students.uu.nl.

Mocht je een officiële klacht willen indienen over dit onderzoek, dan kun je contact opnemen met dr. Veerle Brenninkmeijer via v.brenninkmeijer@uu.nl

Om deel te nemen aan de survey dien je akkoord te gaan met bovenstaande informatie. Ga je akkoord, klik dan op ‘ik ga akkoord’ op de volgende pagina.
Alvast bedankt!

Vriendelijke groet,
Nina de Vries, Ilse van den Belt en Karlijn Albers

Appendix B: Demographic information (in Dutch)

Achtergrondgegevens

1. Wat is je geslacht?	Man/vrouw/anders
2. Wat is je leeftijd?	
3. Wat is je hoogst afgeronde opleiding?	Lagere school MAVO, LBO, VMBO HAVO, MBO VWO HBO Universiteit
4. Ben je zelfstandig ondernemer?	Ja/nee
5. Voor hoeveel uur heb je contractueel een aanstelling?	
6. Hoeveel jaar ben je werkzaam binnen deze organisatie?	
7. Hoe groot (in aantal personen) is de vestiging van het bedrijf waar je werkt?	0-10 personen 11-25 personen 26-50 personen 50-100 personen 100+ personen
8. Hoeveel jaar ben je totaal werkzaam over je gehele leven?	
9. Mag je doorgaans je telefoon meenemen naar je werkplek?	Ja/nee/soms
10. Heb je toegang tot een aparte werktelefoon?	Ja/nee
11. In welke branche ben je momenteel werkzaam?	Gezondheidszorg en welzijn Handel en dienstverlening ICT Justitie, veiligheid en openbaar bestuur Landbouw, natuur en visserij Media en communicatie Onderwijs, cultuur en wetenschap Techniek, productie en bouw Toerisme, recreatie en horeca Transport en logistiek

Appendix C: Measure instruments

Recovery experiences

De volgende uitspraken gaan over nadat het werk is afgelopen en je activiteiten na het werk. Wil je aangeven wat op jou van toepassing is door steeds het best passende getal aan te klikken?

Antwoordschaal:
1 = Helemaal niet mee eens
2 = Niet mee eens
3 = Noch mee eens/noch mee oneens
4 = Mee eens
5 = Helemaal mee eens

Nadat het werk is afgelopen …

1. Vergeet ik het werk
2. Denk ik helemaal niet aan het werk
3. Neem ik afstand van mijn werk
4. Kom ik los van de eisen van het werk
5. Ontspan ik me
6. Doe ik ontspannende dingen
7. Gebruik ik de tijd om te relaxen
8. Neem ik tijd voor ontspannende activiteiten
9. Leer ik nieuwe dingen
10. Zoek ik naar intellectuele uitdagingen
11. Doe ik dingen die me uitdagen
12. Doe ik dingen die mijn horizon verbreden
13. Heb ik het gevoel dat ik voor mezelf kan beslissen wat ik doe
14. Bepaal ik mijn eigen tijdschema
15. Bepaal ik voor mezelf hoe ik mijn tijd wil besteden
16. Zorg ik dat de dingen gedaan worden zoals ik dat wil

Work engagement

De volgende uitspraken gaan over de manier waarop je je werk beleeft en je je daarbij voelt. Wil je aangeven hoe vaak iedere uitspraak op jou van toepassing is door steeds het best passende getal te omcirkelen?

Nooit	Bijna nooit	Af en toe	Regelmatig	Dikwijls	Zeer dikwijls	Altijd
0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Nooit	Een paar keer per jaar of minder	Eens per maand of minder	Een paar keer per maand	Eens per week	Een paar keer per week	Elke dag

1. Op mijn werk bruis ik van energie. *(VI01)*
2. Ik vind het werk dat ik doe nuttig en zinvol. *(DE01)*
3. Als ik aan het werk ben, dan vliegt de tijd voorbij. *(AB01)*
4. Als ik werk voel ik me fit en sterk. *(VI02)*
5. Ik ben enthousiast over mijn baan. *(DE02)*
6. Als ik werk vergeet ik alle andere dingen om me heen. *(AB02)*
7. Mijn werk inspireert mij. *(DE03)*
8. Als ik ‘s morgens opsta heb ik zin om aan het werk te gaan *(VI03)*
9. Wanneer ik heel intensief aan het werk ben, voel ik mij gelukkig. *(AB03)*
10. Ik ben trots op het werk dat ik doe. *(DE04)*
11. Ik ga helemaal op in mijn werk. *(AB04)*
12. Als ik aan het werk ben, dan kan ik heel lang doorgaan. *(VI04)*
13. Mijn werk is voor mij een uitdaging. *(DE05)*
14. Mijn werk brengt mij in vervoering. *(AB05)*
15. Op mijn werk beschik ik over een grote mentale (geestelijke) veerkracht. *(VI05)*
16. Ik kan me moeilijk van mijn werk losmaken. *(AB06)*
17. Op mijn werk zet ik altijd door, ook als het tegenzit. *(VI06)*

VI = vitaliteit; DE = toewijding; AB = absorptie.

Workplace telepressure

Denk bij de volgende vragen aan hoe jij technologie gebruikt om te communiceren met collega's. Denk hierbij in het bijzonder aan technologieën waarmee je berichten kunt sturen en ontvangen en hierbij zelf kunt bepalen wanneer je reageert (e-mail, sms, voicemail etc.). Geef aan in hoeverre je het eens of oneens bent met de volgende stellingen.

Antwoordschaal:
1 = Helemaal mee oneens
2 = Oneens
3 = Neutraal
4 = Eens
5 = Helemaal mee eens

Als ik communicatietechnologie voor werkdoeleinden gebruik...

1. Vind ik het lastig om me op andere dingen te concentreren wanneer ik een bericht van iemand ontvang (Hoofdbezigheid, bezorgdheid)
2. Kan ik mij beter concentreren op andere taken zodra ik mijn berichten heb beantwoord (Hoofdbezigheid, bezorgdheid)
3. Kan ik niet stoppen met denken aan een bericht totdat ik heb gereageerd (Hoofdbezigheid, bezorgdheid)
4. Voel ik een sterke behoefte om direct te reageren (Neiging)
5. Krijg ik een overweldigend gevoel om direct op iemand te reageren zodra ik een verzoek van diegene krijg (Neiging)
6. Vind ik het moeilijk te weerstaan om niet meteen op een bericht te reageren (Neiging)

Na deze vraag volgende de vraag:
Op een schaal van 1 tot 5, in hoeverre ervaar je over het algemeen druk om zo snel mogelijk op berichten van werk te reageren?

Aan het einde van de survey:
Op een schaal van 1 tot 5, in hoeverre ervaar je op dit moment druk om zo snel mogelijk op berichten van werk te reageren?

Social telepressure

Denk bij de volgende vragen aan hoe jij technologie gebruikt om te communiceren met vrienden, familie of kennissen. Denk hierbij in het bijzonder aan technologieën waarmee je berichten kunt sturen en ontvangen en hierbij zelf kan bepalen wanneer je reageert (e-mail, sms, voicemail etc.). Geef aan in hoeverre je het eens of oneens bent met de volgende stellingen.

Antwoordschaal:
1 = Helemaal mee oneens
2 = Oneens
3 = Neutraal
4 = Eens
5 = Helemaal mee eens

Als ik communicatietechnologie voor sociale doeleinden gebruik...

1. Vind ik het lastig om me op andere dingen te concentreren wanneer ik een bericht van iemand ontvang (Hoofdbezigheid, bezorgdheid)
2. Kan ik mij beter concentreren op andere taken zodra ik mijn berichten heb beantwoord (Hoofdbezigheid, bezorgdheid)
3. Kan ik niet stoppen met denken aan een bericht totdat ik heb gereageerd (Hoofdbezigheid, bezorgdheid)
4. Voel ik een sterke behoefte om direct te reageren (Neiging)
5. Krijg ik een overweldigend gevoel om direct op iemand te reageren zodra ik een verzoek van diegene krijg (Neiging)
6. Vind ik het moeilijk te weerstaan om niet meteen op een bericht te reageren (Neiging)

Na deze vraag volgende de vraag:
Op een schaal van 1 tot 5, in hoeverre ervaar je over het algemeen druk om zo snel mogelijk op berichten van vrienden, familie of kenissen te reageren?

Aan het eind van de survey:
Op een schaal van 1 tot 5, in hoeverre ervaar je op dit moment druk om zo snel mogelijk op berichten van vrienden, familie of kennissen te reageren?

Job burnout

De volgende uitspraken hebben betrekking op hoe jij jouw werk beleeft en hoe jij je daarbij voelt. Wil je aangeven hoe vaak iedere uitspraak op jou van toepassing is door steeds het best passende antwoord aan te klikken?

Antwoordschaal:
1 = Nooit
2 = Zelden
3 = Soms
4 = Vaak
5 = Altijd

1. Op het werk voel ik me geestelijk uitgeput
2. Alles wat ik doe op mijn werk, kost mij moeite
3. Ik raak maar niet uitgerust nadat ik gewerkt heb
4. Op het werk voel ik me lichamelijk uitgeput
5. Als ik 'morgens opsta, mis ik de energie om aan de werkdag te beginnen
6. Ik wil wel actief zijn op het werk, maar het lukt mij niet
7. Als ik me inspan op het werk, dan word ik snel moe
8. Op het einde van de werkdag voel ik me mentaal uitgeput en leeg
9. Ik kan geen belangstelling en enthousiasme opbrengen voor mijn werk
10. Op mijn werk denk ik niet veel na en functioneer ik op de automatische piloot
11. Ik voel een sterke weerzin tegen mijn werk
12. Mijn werk laat mij onverschillig
13. Ik ben cynisch over wat mijn werk voor anderen betekent
14. Op het werk kan ik er mijn aandacht moeilijk bijhouden
15. Tijdens mijn werk heb ik moeite om helder na te denken
16. Ik ben vergeetachtig en verstrooid tijdens mijn werk
17. Als ik aan het werk ben, kan ik me moeilijk concentreren
18. Ik maak fouten in mijn werk omdat ik er met mijn hoofd 'niet goed bij ben'
19. Op mijn werk heb ik het gevoel geen controle te hebben over mijn emoties
20. Ik herken mezelf niet in de wijze waarop ik emotioneel reageer op mijn werk
21. Tijdens mijn werk raak ik snel geïrriteerd als de dingen niet lopen zoals ik dat wil

22. Ik word kwaad of verdrietig op mijn werk zonder goed te weten waarom
23. Op mijn werk kan ik onbedoeld te sterk emotioneel reageren

Coronacrisis

Nederland heeft momenteel te maken met de Coronacrisis, wat gevolgen heeft voor ons dagelijks leven. Waar mogelijk moeten werknemers namelijk zoveel mogelijk thuiswerken.

Hoe beïnvloedt de Coronacrisis jou persoonlijk in relatie tot je werk?

Antwoordschaal:

1 = Sterk mee oneens

2 = Mee oneens

3 = Niet mee oneens/niet mee eens

4 = Mee eens

5 = Sterk mee eens

1. Het belemmert mij in mijn prestaties in mijn werk
2. Het beperkt mij in hoe goed ik mijn werk kan doen
3. Het beperkt mijn mogelijkheden voor wat betreft mijn werk