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On Fire or Burned-Out?: The Role of Self-Monitoring on Burnout in the Workplace

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ON FIRE OR BURNED-OUT?:THE ROLE OF SELF-MONITORING ON BURNOUT IN THE
WORKPLACE

by

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in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

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Abstract

Workplace burnout (i.e., exhaustion, disengagement, lack of professional efficacy) produces turnover which, in turn, increases costs (personnel recruitment, selection, training) for businesses (Maslach et al., 2001). Job demands predict workplace exhaustion whereas job resources predict workplace cynicism (Demerouti et al., 2001). Burnout is also related to individual differences in personality (Alessandri et al., 2018). In the present study, we explore the potential mediating effect of demands and resources on the connection between self-monitoring (Fuglestad & Snyder, 2010; Wilmot et al., 2015) and burnout. Self-monitoring can be conceptualized as either a single, dichotomous variable (Snyder, 1974) or two, continuous variables: protective and acquisitive (Wilmot et al., 2015). Using Amazon's Mechanical Turk Participants System (MTurk), we recruited 109 employees from mid- to large-sized companies. Participants completed one measure of self-monitoring (Snyder, 1974), two measures of burnout (Kristensen et al., 2005; Maslach et al., 2001), and one measure of job demands and resources (Bakker, 2014). Mediation was assessed using Hayes' PROCESS model (Hayes, 2013). No direct relationship between self-monitoring (all types) and burnout was found. An indirect effect -mediated by job resources - was found for univariate as well as acquisitive self-monitoring and burnout. No indirect effects were found for protective self-monitoring and burnout when controlling for age. Results were replicated across both burnout measures. Our findings offer a theoretical and empirical addition to the literature on self-monitoring and the workplace (Day & Schleicher, 2006) as well as workplace burnout (Maslach et al., 2001).

On Fire or Burned Out?: The Role of Self-Monitoring on Burnout in the Workplace

Employee well-being is an often discussed topic in the field of industrial-organizational psychology (Maslach & Leiter, 2008; Rautenbach & Rothmann, 2017; Schotanus-Dijkstra et al., 2016). Employee well-being focuses on improving employee morale and productivity in order to increase employee output and employer profits (Brandstätter et al., 2016). Employee well-being researchers also focus on turnover reduction (Hamidi et al., 2018; Scanlan & Still, 2019).

Employers who experience high turnover rates see decreased profits and productivity as well as increased strain on financial resources to replace their missing workers (Tarallo, 2019).

So, what factors might contribute to turnover intention? Researchers have found that personality factors such as self-monitoring status and environmental factors such as those that lead to burnout have been linked with employee intentions to leave his or her current employer (Day & Schleicher, 2006; Scanlan & Still, 2019). While previous studies have looked at these phenomenon separately, no study has looked at self-monitoring and burnout together.

Self-Monitoring

Univariate model of self-monitoring

According to Snyder (1974), self-monitoring represents stable individual differences among people regarding their non-verbal behavior, display of affect, and other forms of impression management. Impression management involves an individual's ability and motivation to engage in socially appropriate behavior through self-regulation. Individuals can use impression management to either be situationally specific or cross-situationally consistent.

In the conventional univariate model, individuals are either high or low self-monitors (Fuglestad & Snyder, 2010; Gangestad & Snyder, 2000). High and low self-monitors differ in their ability, motivation, attention, use of ability, and behavior when engaging in impression

management. High self-monitors have the ability to adapt to specific social situations and engage in impression management to be the right person for the situation. High self-monitors focus their attention outwards and use their self-presentation skills to mirror other individual's behaviors and/or act socially appropriate. Individuals high in self-monitoring behave in a situationally specific manner (Fuglestad & Snyder, 2009). For instance, if a high self-monitor is in a group of extroverted individuals and he or she is in a situation in which being extroverted is appropriate (e.g., at a concert), he or she will also display behaviors related to extroversion. However, if a high self-monitor is in a group of extroverted individuals but the situation is more appropriate for introverted behaviors (e.g., in a library), he or she will display behaviors related to introversion. Low self-monitors have the ability to be themselves no matter the situation and engage in impression management to be internally consistent. Low self-monitors focus their attention inwards and engage in self-verification to maintain personal congruency. Individuals low in self-monitoring behave in a cross-situationally consistent manner to maintain self-congruency (Fuglestad & Snyder, 2009). For instance, a low self-monitor who is an introvert will display introverted behaviors no matter if the group he or she is with is full of introverted or extroverted individuals and no matter which behavior is appropriate for the situation.

Scholars conceptualize self-monitoring as a class variable which involves two categories: high self-monitors and low self-monitors (Gangestad & Snyder, 1985). However, other researchers have argued that self-monitoring is a continuous, multidimensional variable rather than a discrete, categorical variable (Briggs & Cheek, 1988; Briggs et al., 1980; Finch & West, 1997; John et al., 1996; Larkin, 1991; Lennox, 1988; see also Leone, 2006). Researchers have recently proposed a new, bivariate model of self-monitoring (Wilmot, 2015).

Bivariate model of self-monitoring

Within the bivariate model, researchers conceptualize self-monitoring as a continuous variable wherein individuals are not categorized as being a “type” of self-monitor but rather as being higher or lower on two separate self-monitoring “traits”: acquisitive and protective (Wilmot, 2015). Acquisitive self-monitors engage in impression management to get along, get ahead, and gain rewards. Conversely, protective self-monitors engage in impression management to avoid loss and avoid appearing socially undesirable (Wilmot, 2015). Acquisitive self-monitoring is positively related to extraversion, openness, authenticity, and narcissism and negatively to self-consciousness and normative influence. In contrast, protective self-monitoring relates positively to neuroticism, self-consciousness, anxiety, conscientiousness, Machiavellianism, normative influence, and pessimism and negatively to agreeableness and authenticity (Polak & Prokop, 1989; Rauthmann, 2011; Renner et al., 2004; Wilmot et al., 2016, 2017; Wooten & Reed II, 2004). Both acquisitive and protective self-monitoring relate positively to psychopathy and negatively to straightforwardness (Rauthmann, 2011; Wilmot et al., 2016, 2017). The acquisitive self-monitor is confident and manages his or her impressions to gain social rewards, whereas the protective self-monitor is anxious and manages his or her impressions to avoid losing social status (Wilmot et al., 2017).

Self-monitoring in the workplace

Although little research has been done regarding self-monitoring and burnout, research has been done on self-monitoring in the workplace. According to Day et al. (2002), self-monitoring is related to perceived management skills, level of job involvement, outcomes of job evaluations and promotions, experience of role ambiguity and role conflict, and levels of job commitment and job satisfaction in the workplace. High self-monitors’ ability to be the right person for the situation means that others perceive them as having better management skills

compared to low self-monitors. High self-monitors rather than low self-monitors are also perceived as having greater job involvement by their managers (Day et al., 2002). As a result, high self-monitors are more likely than low self-monitors to receive favorable job evaluations and job promotions. Although high self-monitors, compared to low self-monitors, receive higher performance ratings at work, they are more likely than low self-monitors to experience role ambiguity and role conflict. Low self-monitors also show greater levels of workplace commitment than do high self-monitors (Day & Schleicher, 2006). High self-monitors look for advancement opportunities and their ability to fit most workplace cultures means that they will often leave companies if a better opportunity comes along. Low self-monitors prefer to work for companies that allow them to be themselves. Finally, high and low self-monitors do not differ significantly in levels of job satisfaction (Day & Schleicher, 2006; Kilduff & Day, 1994).

Day and colleagues (2002) indicated if one wants to get ahead at work, he or she needs to act like a high self-monitor. However, Day and Schleicher (2006) suggested low self-monitors can also perform effectively in the workplace as long as their workplace environment matches their self-congruent behavior. High self-monitors use impression management to project a likable image (Flynn et al., 2006). Likable people have an easier time getting along with coworkers, and individuals in upper management perceive likable people as being competent (Day & Schleicher, 2006). Individuals in upper management perceive high self-monitors as being more competent managers due to the high self-monitors ability to project a likeable image and promote high self-monitors more often than they do low self-monitors. However, low self-monitors are just as competent at performing managerial roles as high self-monitors and can get along with others (Day & Schleicher, 2006). However, low self-monitors get along with a smaller group of people than do high self-monitors (Flynn et al., 2006). Low self-monitors can outperform high self-

monitors and advance through upper management when working for a company which allows them to be cross-situationally consistent. Although high self-monitors outperform low self-monitors in getting promotions, both high and low self-monitors make effective leaders (Day & Schleicher, 2006; Kilduff & Day, 1994). One advantage of the low self-monitoring manager compared to the high self-monitoring manager is that he or she shows higher workplace commitment. High self-monitors will more likely leave a company to seek out higher-paid positions, whereas low self-monitors will remain at a company and seek to move up in position from within their company (Day & Schleicher, 2006; Kilduff & Day, 1994).

Workplace Burnout

Researchers conceptualize burnout as a combination of three components: emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and lack of professional efficacy (Demerouti et al., 2001; Maslach et al., 2001). Although researchers disagree about which phenomenon comes first, emotional exhaustion and cynicism develop in a linear fashion with one phenomenon following the other, (Gan & Gan, 2014; Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Maslach et al., 2001). However, researchers agree that lack of personal efficacy develops simultaneously with emotional exhaustion and cynicism (Maslach & Leiter, 2008).

Emotional exhaustion is conceptualized as depletion of psychological and physical resources (Maslach et al., 2001). Emotionally exhausted workers engage in maladaptive coping mechanisms such as taking unnecessary sick days, refusing to interact with coworkers, and being emotionally unavailable even when physically at work (Alessandri et al., 2018; Hallsten et al., 2011). Workers who are emotionally exhausted often show greater signs of stress and decreased levels of involvement with their company compared to workers who are not experiencing emotional exhaustion (Demerouti et al., 2001; Liu & Yu, 2019; Maslach & Leiter, 2008).

Cynicism, or depersonalization, is a negative and sometimes antisocial reaction to aspects of the job (Maslach et al., 2001). Cynical workers often have conflicts with their coworkers and managers. Cynical workers are also absent from work more often than are non-cynical workers (Bang & Reio, 2017; Demerouti et al., 2001; Maslach & Leiter, 2008). Lack of professional efficacy is related to negative personal self-evaluation (Maslach et al., 2001). Workers with low professional efficacy often feel incompetent in their job performance, lack a sense of achievement, and show decreased job performance compared to their coworkers with high professional efficacy (Harry, 2017; Maslach & Leiter, 2008).

Detrimental effects of burnout on employee performance results in financial losses for current employers. Workers who suffer from burnout are more likely to leave their company and suffer from stress-related health problems compared to workers who do not experience burnout (Brandstätter et al., 2016; Marchand et al., 2014a; 2014b). The cost to replace burned-out workers can be up to double the yearly salaries of the burned-out workers (Tarallo, 2019). If burned-out workers do not leave their company, they have increased rates of absenteeism over their non-burned out coworkers (Brandstätter et al., 2016; Hamidi et al., 2018; Scanlan & Still, 2019). Chronic absenteeism results in decreased productivity and therefore impacts the output and earnings for a company (Tarallo, 2019).

Job Demands-Resources

Related to job burnout are job demands and job resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2016; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001; Salmela-Aro & Upadyaya, 2018). In the Job Demands-Resources Model (Demerouti et al., 2001), job demands are directly related to feelings of emotional exhaustion. Job demands are physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of jobs that demand mental and physical effort (Bakker & Demerouti, 2016; Salmela-Aro

& Upadyaya, 2018). Workers with high job demands experience mental and physical fatigue that is related to stress and exhaustion (Gan & Gan, 2014; Salmela-Aro & Upadyaya, 2018). In the Job Demands-Resources Model (Demerouti et al., 2001), job resources are directly related to feelings of cynicism. Workers utilize job resources (e.g., physical, psychological, social and organizational) to achieve work goals, reduce job demands, and stimulate personal growth (Bakker & Demerouti, 2016; Jimenez & Dunkl, 2017). Workers receive job resources either from external sources (their organization and social groups) or internal sources (their own personality and abilities; Bakker & Demerouti, 2014). When job demands are increased for employees, their job resources become increasingly depleted which results in emotional exhaustion (Rautenbach & Rothmann, 2017; Salmela-Aro & Upadyaya, 2018). Employees become cynical when they are unable to meet job demands due to having decreased job resources (Bakker, & Demerouti, 2016).

Although researchers have found that situational factors often cause burnout, personality also contributes to the probability of burnout (Alessandri et al., 2018; Lee & Ashforth, 1996). Individual differences in emotional stability are a strong predictor of becoming burned out. Emotionally stable individuals are better able to handle acute stress and are less anxious than emotionally unstable individuals (Wilt & Revelle, 2009). Workers high in emotional stability are better able to handle negative workplace emotions (e.g., receiving a poor performance review or arguing with a coworker) and less likely to experience decreased professional efficacy compared to workers low in emotional stability (Alessandri et al., 2018; Maslach & Leiter, 2008).

Current Study

Although researchers have studied the relationship between self-monitoring and the workplace and burnout and personality, none have investigated the relationship between self-

monitoring and burnout (Alessandri et al., 2018; Day & Schleicher, 2006). In the current study we propose a series of three research questions. Our first question explores whether self-monitoring and burnout have a direct relationship. Our second question is whether the relationship between self-monitoring and burnout will be mediated through the job demands-resources model. Given the recent debate over the existence of a continuous, bivariate model of self-monitoring (Wilmot, 2015), our final research question was whether or not the univariate model of self-monitoring and the bivariate model of self-monitoring have similar patterns of results with burnout.

Method

Participants

We recruited participants using Amazon MTurk for our study “Men’s/Women’s Workplace Experiences”. Participants were compensated \$2.00 for their time. We required that participants be at least 18 years of age and work a full-time job in a mid- to large-sized company, which we defined as a company with 50 or more employees. We had 59 female and 50 male participants. Participants ranged in age from 22 to 65 ($M=34.30$, $SD=9.00$). All participants held a position that involved managing or supervising others and came from a mid- to large-sized company (denoted as 50 or more employees).

Participants were required to review and agree to an electronic informed consent form before being allowed to begin the study. No participants were excluded from the study, however, some responses given in the age and number of years in the current job questions were removed due to the answers being outside of the possible range (such as saying they were 500 years old). Each participant was treated in accordance with the APA Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct (APA, 2017).

Procedure

Self-monitoring

We assessed self-monitoring status using the 25-item Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder, 1974). A sample item is “*In different situations and with different people, I often act like a very different person*”. Participants read each statement and responded with either *true* or *false*. The 25-item Self-Monitoring Scale has 12 negatively worded items (a response of *true* indicated low self-monitoring rather than high self-monitoring). We reverse scored the responses on these items.

Using the 25-item Self-Monitoring Scale, we calculated three indices of Self-Monitoring. The first index was based on Snyder’s Univariate Model of Self-Monitoring (Snyder, 1974). We used the full range of scores to calculate a composite score. Higher scores indicated a higher self-monitoring status. The next two indices were based on Wilmot’s Bivariate Model of Self-Monitoring: Acquisitive and Protective (Wilmot, 2015; Wilmot et al., 2017). We assessed acquisitive self-monitoring using six items from the full 25-item Self-Monitoring Scale. A sample item is “*I would probably make a good actor*”. Higher scores indicated higher acquisitive self-monitoring. We assessed protective self-monitoring using seven items from the full 25-Item Self-Monitoring Scale and computed a composite score. A sample item is “*Even if I am not enjoying myself, I often pretend to be having a good time*” Higher scores indicated higher protective self-monitoring.

In terms of the Univariate Model, Snyder (1974) found a test-retest reliability over one month of .83, and Briggs and colleagues (1980) found a test-retest reliability over 45 days of .72. Snyder (1974) found a Kuder-Richardson 20 reliability of .70, and other researchers have found Cronbach’s alphas ranging from .68 to .74 (Briggs et al., 1980; Flynn et al., 2006; Wilmot et al.,

2017). Day et al. (2002) found an average Cronbach's alpha of .74 across 69 samples. In their latest revision of the acquisitive and protective self-monitoring scales, Wilmot et al. (2017) found Cronbach's alphas of .65 and .77 for the acquisitive scale and Cronbach's alphas of .61 and .69 for the protective scale. We found a Cronbach's alpha of .67 for the Univariate model, .61 for the acquisitive scale, and .56 for the protective scale.

To validate the 25-item Self-Monitoring Scale, Snyder (1974) looked at different groups of people to show convergent validity. Snyder found that actors scored higher than average on the Self-Monitoring Scale and psychiatric patients scored lower than average on the Self-Monitoring Scale. Snyder also assessed peer ratings and found that friends rated high self-monitors as having more impression management characteristics and low self-monitors as having fewer impression management characteristics. Researchers have shown that scores on the 25-Item Self-Monitoring Scale correlate positively with scores on other impression management scales such as the Lennox and Wolf Revised Self-Monitoring Scale (.53; Flynn et al., 2006; Lennox & Wolfe, 1984). Furthermore, Wilmot et al. (2016) found that scores on acquisitive self-monitoring correlate positively with scores on measures of plasticity (a meta-trait comprised of shared variance between Extraversion and Openness/ Intellect from the Big 5) and scores of protective self-monitoring correlate negatively with scores on measures of stability (a meta-trait comprised of shared variance between Emotional Stability, Conscientiousness, and Agreeableness from the Big 5).

In terms of discriminant validity, Snyder (1974) found that scores on the Univariate self-monitoring scale were not related with scores on the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory Psychopathic Deviate scale (-.20), Christie and Geis's Machiavellianism scale (-.09), and Kassarian's Inner-Other Directedness scale (-.19). Other researchers have found that scores

on the 25-Item Self-Monitoring Scale were not related with scores on the Texas Social Behavior Inventory (.26), the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (-.17), Cheek and Buss's Shyness Scale (-.17), Fenigstein et al.'s Public Self-Consciousness Scale (.26), Fenigstein et al.'s Private Self-Consciousness Scale (.17), and Leary et al.'s Need to Belong Scale (.11; Briggs & Cheek, 1988; Rose & Kim, 2011). Self-monitoring has a weak but reliable relationship to participant sex (.11) and age (-.13; Day et al., 2002). Self-monitoring is not related to socially desirable responding (-.18) or other-deception (-.02; Paulhus, 1982; Snyder, 1974)).

Burnout

We measured burnout using the Maslach Burnout Inventory - General Survey (Schaufeli et al., 1996). The Maslach Burnout Inventory - General Survey has 16 items and 3 subscales (Emotional Exhaustion, Cynicism, and Professional Efficacy). An example item is "I feel emotionally drained from my work." Participants responded to each statement on a 0 (*never*) to 6 (*every day*) scale. No responses to this survey are reverse scored. We calculated average scores for each subscale because these subscales have unequal numbers of items. Higher average scores on emotional exhaustion and cynicism indicate higher levels of burnout, while higher average scores on professional efficacy indicate less burnout.

Researchers have found evidence of reliability and validity for the Maslach Burnout Inventory - General Survey. Researchers have found test-retest reliability over 6 months to be .73 for emotional exhaustion, .66 for cynicism, and .67 for professional efficacy (Jimenez & Dunkl, 2017). While other researchers have found test-retest reliability over the span of a year to be .60 for emotional exhaustion, .65 for cynicism, and .67 for professional efficacy (Maslach et al., 1997). For internal consistency, researchers have found Cronbach's alphas of .82 to .90 for emotional exhaustion, .64 to .79 for cynicism, and .71 to .79 for professional efficacy

(Chirkowska-Smolak & Kleka, 2011; Maslach et al., 1997; Storm & Rothman, 2004; Winwood & Winefield, 2004). In our sample, we found Cronbach's alphas of .91 for emotional exhaustion, .84 for cynicism, and .85 for professional efficacy.

As for convergent validity for scores on the Maslach Burnout Inventory, Maslach et al. (1997) found that individuals who were rated by their peers as being physically fatigued had high levels of emotional exhaustion, those who were rated by their peers as complaining more had high levels of cynicism, and those who held high-stress jobs such as physicians and police officers showed high levels of emotional exhaustion. Further, researchers have found that scores on the Maslach Burnout Inventory - General Survey are related to scores on similar measures. Scores on the Emotional Exhaustion subscale are correlated with scores on the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory - Emotional Exhaustion subscale (.60), the Copenhagen Burnout Inventory Personal Burnout subscale (.73), and the Copenhagen Burnout Inventory Work Burnout subscale (.82; Demerouti et al., 2001; Winwood & Winefield, 2004). Scores on the Cynicism subscale are correlated with scores on the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory- Cynicism subscale (.60), the Copenhagen Burnout Inventory Personal Burnout subscale (.38), and the Copenhagen Burnout Inventory Work Burnout subscale (.46; Demerouti et al., 2001; Winwood & Winefield, 2004).

Further, researchers have found evidence of discriminant validity for scores on the Maslach Burnout Inventory - General Survey. Emotional Exhaustion scores are not related to scores on Decision Authority (-.20), Extraversion (-.01), Agreeableness (-.05), Conscientiousness (.10), Neuroticism (.36), and Autonomy (.08). Cynicism scores are not related to scores on Decision Authority (-.22), Skill Discretion (-.14), Extraversion (-.20), Agreeableness (-.15), Conscientiousness (.08), Neuroticism (.26), and Autonomy (.23). Professional Efficacy scores are not related to scores on Decision Authority (.23), Skill Discretion (.10), Extraversion

(.35), Agreeableness (.25), Conscientiousness (-.01), Neuroticism (-.17), and Autonomy (.17; Bakker et al., 2006; Taris et al., 2014). Scores on the Maslach Burnout Inventory - General Survey are also not related to scores on the Crowne-Marlow Social Desirability Scale (Schaufeli et al., 1996).

We also included another measure of burnout in our research: the Copenhagen Burnout Inventory (Kristensen et al., 2005). The Copenhagen Burnout Inventory Personal Burnout and Work Burnout subscales consist of 13 items (Kristensen et al., 2005). A sample item is “Do you feel worn out at the end of the working day?”. Participants responded to all items with either *Always, Often, Sometimes, Seldom, Never/Almost Never*. Item 10 is reverse scored. We calculated average scores for both subscales due to the unequal number of items within each subscale. Higher scores on personal burnout and work burnout are indicative of more burnout.

As with the Maslach Burnout Inventory - General Survey, researchers have found evidence of reliability and validity for scores on the Copenhagen Burnout Inventory. Kristensen et al. (2005) found a test-retest reliability over the span of three years of .54 for personal burnout and .51 for work burnout. For internal consistency, researchers have found Cronbach’s alphas ranging from .84 to .91 for both personal and work burnout (Fong et al., 2014; Kristensen et al., 2005). We found a Cronbach’s alpha of .87 for personal burnout and .86 for work burnout.

For convergent validity, Kristensen et al. (2005) found that midwives, nurses and other hospital personnel have the highest rates of burnout across both subscales compared to chief doctors and supervisors. As previously mentioned, scores on the Copenhagen Burnout Inventory are positively correlated with scores on the Maslach Burnout Inventory - General Survey (Demerouti et al., 2001; Winwood & Winefield, 2004). Scores on Personal Burnout are related to scores on measures of vitality (-.75), mental health (-.67), general health (.49), physical distress

(.64), anxiety (.69), depression (.61), and workplace social support (-.46 Fong et al., 2014; Kristensen et al., 2005). Scores on the Work Burnout scale are related to scores on measures of vitality (-.72), mental health (-.64), general health (-.43), physical distress (.75), depression (.61), anxiety (.70), workplace social support (-.48), and work commitment (-.33). Fong et al. (2014) also found that age is not related to scores on personal burnout (-.26) or work burnout (-.33).

Job Demands-Resources

To measure job demands and resources in the workplace, we used the Job Demands-Resources Questionnaire (Bakker, 2014). The Job Demands-Resources questionnaire has 107 items to assess 6 workplace phenomena: job demands, job resources, personal resources, well-being, performance, and behavior. For the present study we utilized only the job demands and resources scales. We created total scores for each scale in the Job Demands-Resources Questionnaire. We did not reverse score any items.

The Job Demands scale has 5 subscales: work pressure, cognitive demands, emotional demands, role conflict, and hassles. An example item of work pressure is “Do you work under time pressure?” Respondents answer on a 1 to 5 scale with higher numbers indicating greater job demands. The Job Resources scale has 5 subscales: autonomy, social support, feedback, opportunities for development, and coaching. An example item for autonomy is “Do you have flexibility in the execution of your job?” Respondents answer on a 1 to 5 scale with higher scores indicating greater job resources.

For reliability, researchers have found test-retest reliability for scores on other related job demand-resource scales. Boyd et al. (2011) found a test-retest reliability between .47 and .52 over a 3-year period on scores of earlier versions of the Job Demands-Resources Scale. Heckenberg et al. (2019) found similar test-retest correlations over the span of 8 weeks for scores

on the Work Engagement, Self-Efficacy, and Optimism subscales. For internal consistency, Heckenberg et al. (2019) found Cronbach's alphas of .91 for scores on the Work Engagement subscale and .80 for the Self-Efficacy and Optimism subscales. Researchers have consistently found Cronbach's alphas over .70 on a previous version of this scale as well (Llorens et al., 2006). In our study, we found Cronbach's alphas of .92 for scores on Job Demands and .92 for scores on Job Resources.

For convergent validity, Bakker & Demerouti (2014) have found that scores on the Job Demands-Resources Scale relate to scores on absenteeism, turnover intention, burnout, work well-being, and engagement. They also found that scores on the Personal Resources subscale related to scores on life-satisfaction, motivation, and performance. Regarding demographics, Boyd et al. (2011) found that scores on an older version of the scale were not related to age.

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Table 1 has the univariate statistics for all variables in the present study. Preliminary analysis indicates no violation of the assumption of normality. All means, standard deviations, and ranges were within expected values, and there were no issues with skewness or kurtosis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012).

Table 1

Univariate Statistics for Predictors, Mediators, and Outcome Variables

	Mean	SD	Kurtosis	Skew	Range
<u>Univariate Self-Monitoring</u>	36.53	4.08	+0.46	+0.08	21.00
<u>Acquisitive Self-Monitoring</u>	8.53	1.71	-0.77	+0.16	6.00
<u>Protective Self-Monitoring</u>	10.42	1.77	-0.64	+0.02	7.00
<u>Emotional Exhaustion</u>	22.74	7.39	-0.74	-0.32	29.00
<u>Cynicism</u>	20.24	7.49	-0.86	-0.02	29.00
<u>Professional Efficacy</u>	33.51	6.49	-0.31	-0.68	26.00
<u>Job Demands</u>	69.56	15.82	-0.43	-0.04	71.00

<u>Job Resources</u>	57.94	12.41	0.27	-0.31	66.00
<u>Personal Burnout</u>	17.20	4.61	-0.03	+0.68	20.00
<u>Work Burnout</u>	19.71	5.62	-0.18	-0.24	27.00

Given the correlational nature of this study, multicollinearity was also assessed (see Table 2 for zero-order correlations). In contrast to some previous research (Day et al., 2002), sex of participants did not covary with self-monitoring scores and therefore was not controlled for in our analyses. However, there was a small but significant correlation between age and protective self-monitoring scores (Table 2, column 3, row 11). Although there is at times a correlation between univariate self-monitoring scores and age (Day et al., 2002), no other researchers have indicated a correlation between protective self-monitoring and age (Wilmot et al., 2017). Given this potential confound, we examined the effects of age in our exploratory analyses.

As expected from prior research (Maslach et al., 2001; Storm & Rothman, 2004; Taris et al., 2014), scores on emotional exhaustion correlated with scores on cynicism (Table 2, column 4, row 5) and scores on cynicism correlated with scores on emotional exhaustion and professional efficacy (Table 2, column 5, rows 4 and 6). Supporting previous findings (Bakker & Demerouti, 2016; 2014; Taris et al., 2014), scores on emotional exhaustion correlated with scores on job demands (Table 2, column 4, row 7) and scores on cynicism correlated with scores on job resources (Table 2, column 5, row 8). Interestingly, scores on cynicism also correlated with scores on job demands (Table 2, column 5, row 7). Although not part of the Job Demands-Resources model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2016, 2014; Taris et al., 2014), scores on professional efficacy correlated with scores on job resources but not scores on job demands (Table 2, column 6, rows 7 and 8). Finally, in line with the Job Demands-Resources Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2016; 2014), scores on job resources were not correlated with scores on job demands (Table 2, column 7, row 8).

Table 2

Bivariate Correlations between Variables

	USM	ASM	PSM	EE	CY	PE	JD	JR	PB	WB
<u>USM</u>	(.67)									
<u>ASM</u>	+.74***	(.61)								
<u>PSM</u>	+.59***	+.15	(.56)							
<u>EE</u>	+.01	+.06	+.18	(.91)						
<u>CY</u>	-.07	-.01	+.12	+.65***	(.84)					
<u>PE</u>	+.04	+.05	-.11	-.15	-.42***	(.85)				
<u>JD</u>	+.03	+.11	+.20*	+.54***	+.45***	-.17	(.92)			
<u>JR</u>	+.31*	+.29*	+.15	-.17	-.42***	+.55***	+.10	(.92)		
<u>PB</u>	-.24*	-.24*	+.05	+.52***	+.30**	-.23*	+.17	-.38***	(.87)	
<u>WB</u>	-.19*	-.16	+.02	+.68***	+.54***	-.33**	+.35**	-.44***	+.77***	(.86)
<u>Age</u>	-.11	-.01	-.28**	-.21*	-.21*	+.30**	-.26**	+.05	-.18	-.23*

Note. USM = Univariate Self-Monitoring, ASM = Acquisitive Self-Monitoring, PSM = Protective Self-Monitoring, EE = Emotional

Exhaustion, CY = Cynicism, PE = Professional Efficacy, JD = Job Demands, JR = Job Resources, PB = Personal Burnout, WB =

Work Burnout. Cronbach's Alpha's presented on the diagonal in parenthesis.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Main Analyses

Parallel mediation was assessed using Model 4 of Hayes' PROCESS program (Hayes, 2013). We used 95% confidence intervals based on 10,000 bias-correcting bootstrap samples to determine the reliability of effects. If zero was not included in these intervals, then effects were considered reliable. Our predictor variables were univariate self-monitoring, acquisitive self-monitoring, and protective self-monitoring. Our mediators were job demands and job resources. Our outcome variables were emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and professional efficacy.

Direct Effects of Self-Monitoring on Burnout

Our first research question was whether or not a direct pathway existed between self-monitoring and burnout. No direct pathway was found between univariate self-monitoring and (a) emotional exhaustion, (b) cynicism, or (c) professional efficacy (Table 4, row 1). The same results were found for acquisitive (Table 6, row 1) and protective (Table 8, row 1) self-monitoring as well.

Indirect Effects of Univariate Self-Monitoring on Burnout

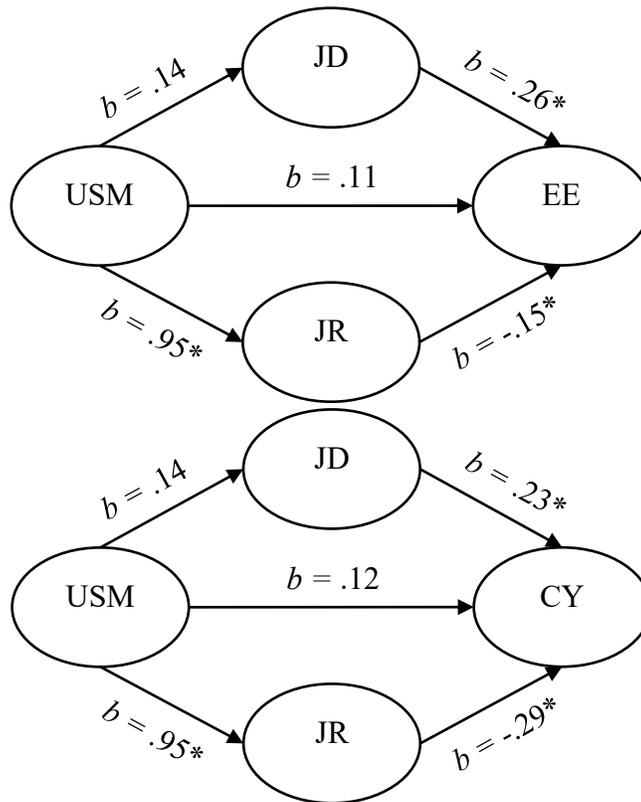
In terms of our second research question, we looked to see if job resources and job demands mediated the connection between self-monitoring and burnout. We used parallel mediation to determine if there were differences between the mediators and if one was a better predictor than the other. Previous researchers suggest that job demands are an antecedent to emotional exhaustion and job resources are an antecedent to cynicism (Bakker & Demerouti, 2016; Demerouti et al., 2001). To date, no researchers have looked at how professional efficacy fits in the Job Demands-Resources model.

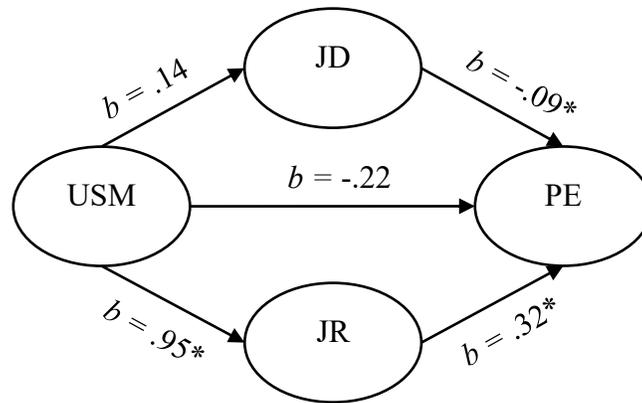
See Figure 1 for mediating effects of job demands/resources on self-monitoring (in its

univariate form) and burnout. As self-monitoring increased, reported levels of job resources increased (Table 3, column 2) and this in turn contributed to less emotional exhaustion (Table 3, upper panel, column 3, row 3), less cynicism (Table 3, middle panel, column 3, row 3), and more feelings of professional efficacy (Table 3, lower panel, column 3, row 3). Self-monitoring was not related to job demands (Table 3, column 1). Although job demands were related to burnout in all three forms (Table 3, column 3), these demands did not mediate the connection between self-monitoring and burnout (Table 4, row 2). Job resources mediated the connection between self-monitoring and (a) emotional exhaustion, (b) cynicism, and (c) professional efficacy (Table 4, row 3).

Figure 1

Mediating Effects of Job Demands/Resources on Univariate Self-Monitoring and Burnout





Note. *b* = Unstandardized Beta Coefficient. * = Statistically Significant. USM = Univariate Self-Monitoring, EE = Emotional Exhaustion, CY = Cynicism, PE = Professional Efficacy, JD = Job Demands, JR = Job Resources.

Table 3

Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors, and Model Summary Information for the Parallel Mediator Models Depicted in Figure 1

Univariate Self-Monitoring

Antecedent	Consequent								
	Job Demands			Job Resources			Emotional Exhaustion		
	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI
SMS	+0.14	.37	-.59,+.88	+0.95	.28	+.39,+1.50	+0.11	.15	-.17,+.41
JD							+0.26	.04	+.19,+.33
JR							-.15	.04	-.24,-.05
	$R^2 = .00$			$R^2 = .10$			$R^2 = .35$		
	$F(1,107) = 0.15, p = .887$			$F(1,107) = 11.62, p < .001$			$F(3,105) = 18.94, p < .001$		

Antecedent	Consequent								
	Job Demands			Job Resources			Cynicism		
	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI
SMS	+0.14	.37	-.59,+.88	+0.95	.28	+.39,+1.50	+0.12	.14	-.16,+.40
JD							+0.23	.04	+.16,+.30
JR							-.29	.05	-.38,-.19
	$R^2 = .00$			$R^2 = .10$			$R^2 = .42$		
	$F(1,107) = 0.15, p = .887$			$F(1,107) = 11.62, p < .001$			$F(3,105) = 24.92, p < .001$		

	Consequent								
	Job Demands			Job Resources			Professional Efficacy		

<u>Antecedent</u>	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI
SMS	+0.14	.37	-.59,+0.88	+0.95	.28	+.39,+1.50	-.22	.13	-.48,+0.03
JD							-.09	.03	-.15,-.03
JR							+.32	.04	+.23,+0.41
	$R^2 = .00$			$R^2 = .10$			$R^2 = .37$		
	$F(1,107) = 0.15, p = .887$			$F(1,107) = 11.62, p < .001$			$F(3,105) = 20.61, p < .001$		

Note. SMS = Self-Monitoring Status, JD = Job Demands, JR = Job Resources.

Table 4

Direct and Indirect Effects of Univariate Self-Monitoring on Burnout

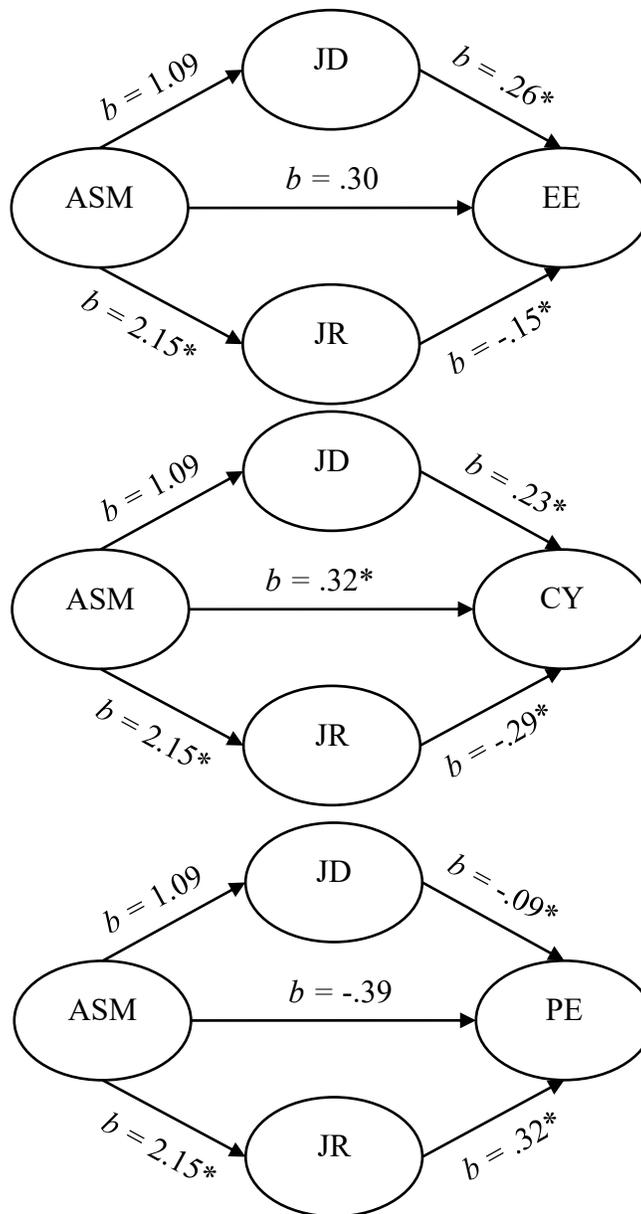
	<u>Emotional Exhaustion</u>			<u>Cynicism</u>			<u>Professional Efficacy</u>		
	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI
<u>Direct</u>	+0.11	.15	-.17,+0.41	+0.12	.14	-.16,+0.40	-.22	.13	-.48,+0.03
<u>Indirect – Job Demands</u>	+0.04	.11	-.15,+0.29	+0.03	.10	-.14,+0.26	-.01	.04	-.10,+0.07
<u>Indirect – Job Resources</u>	-.14	.06	-.29,-0.04	-.27	.10	-.50,-0.11	+.31	.11	+.11,+0.56

Indirect Effects of Acquisitive Self-Monitoring on Burnout

Acquisitive self-monitoring had a similar pattern of results to that of univariate self-monitoring. See Figure 2 for mediating effects of job demands/resources on acquisitive self-monitoring and burnout. As acquisitive self-monitoring increased, reported levels of job resources increased (Table 5, column 2) and this in turn contributed to less emotional exhaustion (Table 5, upper panel, column 3, row 3), less cynicism (Table 5, middle panel, column 3, row 3), and more feelings of professional efficacy (Table 5, lower panel, column 3, row 3). And as was the case with self-monitoring in its univariate form, job demands did not mediate the connection between acquisitive self-monitoring and burnout (Table 6, row 2). Job resources mediated the relationship between acquisitive self-monitoring and (a) emotional exhaustion, (b) cynicism, and (c) professional efficacy (Table 6, row 3).

Figure 2

Mediating Effects of Job Demands/Resources on Acquisitive Self-Monitoring and Burnout



Note. b = Unstandardized Beta Coefficient. * = Statistically Significant. ASM = Acquisitive Self-Monitoring, EE = Emotional Exhaustion, CY = Cynicism, PE = Professional Efficacy, JD = Job Demands, JR = Job Resources.

Table 5

Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors, and Model Summary Information for the Parallel Mediator Models Depicted in Figure 2

Acquisitive Self-Monitoring

Consequent									
<u>Antecedent</u>	<u>Job Demands</u>			<u>Job Resources</u>			<u>Emotional Exhaustion</u>		
	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI
SMS	+1.09	.89	-.67,+2.85	+2.15	.67	+.82,+3.49	+.30	.36	-.40,+1.01
JD							+.26	.04	+.19,+33
JR							-.15	.04	-.24,-.05
	$R^2 = .01$			$R^2 = .09$			$R^2 = .35$		
	$F(1,107) = 1.50, p = .223$			$F(1,107) = 10.35, p=.002$			$F(3,105) = 19.00, p<.001$		

Consequent									
<u>Antecedent</u>	<u>Job Demands</u>			<u>Job Resources</u>			<u>Cynicism</u>		
	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI
SMS	+1.09	.89	-.67,+2.85	+2.15	.67	+.82,+3.49	+.32	.34	-.35,+1.00
JD							+.23	.04	+.16,+30
JR							-.29	.05	-.38,-.19
	$R^2 = .01$			$R^2 = .09$			$R^2 = .42$		
	$F(1,107) = 1.50, p = .223$			$F(1,107) = 10.35, p=.002$			$F(3,105) = 25.05, p<.001$		

Consequent									
<u>Antecedent</u>	<u>Job Demands</u>			<u>Job Resources</u>			<u>Professional Efficacy</u>		
	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI
SMS	+1.09	.89	-.67,+2.85	+2.15	.67	+.82,+3.49	-.39	.31	-1.01,+23
JD							-.09	.03	-.15,-.03
JR							+.32	.04	+.23,+41
	$R^2 = .01$			$R^2 = .09$			$R^2 = .36$		
	$F(1,107) = 1.50, p = .223$			$F(1,107) = 10.35, p=.002$			$F(3,105) = 19.87, p<.001$		

Note. SMS = Self-Monitoring Status, JD = Job Demands, JR = Job Resources.

Table 6

Direct and Indirect Effects of Acquisitive Self-Monitoring on Burnout

	<u>Emotional Exhaustion</u>			<u>Cynicism</u>			<u>Professional Efficacy</u>		
	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI
<u>Direct</u>	+.30	.36	-.40,+1.01	+.32	.34	-.35,+1.01	-.39	.31	-1.01,+23
<u>Indirect – Job Demands</u>	+.29	.26	-.17,+85	+.25	.22	-.14,+73	-.10	.09	-.31,+05
<u>Indirect – Job Resources</u>	-.32	.15	-.70,-.09	-.63	.24	-1.20,-.19	+.68	.27	+.21,+1.28

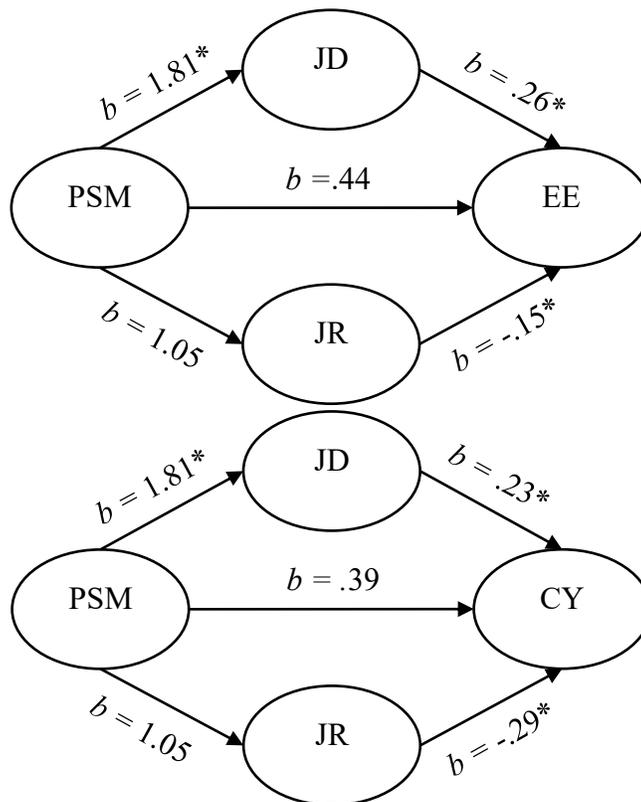
Indirect Effects of Protective Self-Monitoring on Burnout

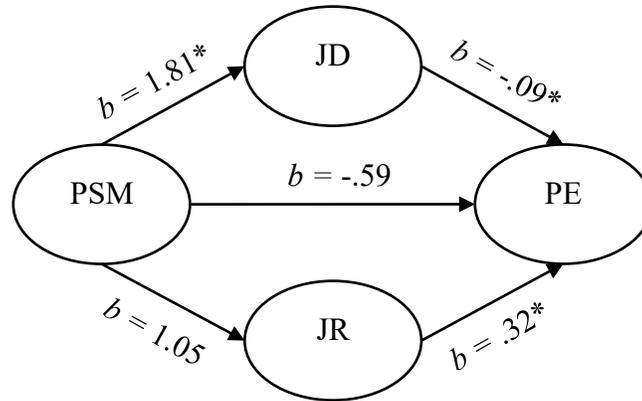
Interestingly, protective self-monitoring had a different pattern of results compared to univariate self-monitoring and acquisitive self-monitoring. See Figure 3 for mediating effects of

job demands/resources on protective self-monitoring and burnout. As protective self-monitoring increased, reported levels of job demands increased (Table 7, column 1) and this in turn contributed to greater emotional exhaustion (Table 7, upper panel, column 3, row 2), greater cynicism (Table 7, middle panel B, column 3, row 2), and less feelings of professional efficacy (Table 7, lower panel C, column 3, row 2). In this case, job demands (and not job resources) mediated the relationship between protective self-monitoring and (a) emotional exhaustion, (b) cynicism, and (c) professional efficacy (Table 8, row 2). In contrast to the results with univariate and acquisitive forms of self-monitoring, job resources did not mediate the connection between protective self-monitoring and burnout (Table 8, row 3).

Figure 3

Mediating Effects of Job Demands/Resources on Protective Self-Monitoring and Burnout





Note. *b* = Unstandardized Beta Coefficient. * = Statistically Significant. PSM = Protective Self-Monitoring, EE = Emotional Exhaustion, CY = Cynicism, PE = Professional Efficacy, JD = Job Demands, JR = Job Resources.

Table 7

Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors, and Model Summary Information for the Parallel Mediator Models Depicted in Figure 3

Protective Self-Monitoring									
Consequent									
Antecedent	Job Demands			Job Resources			Emotional Exhaustion		
	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI
SMS	+1.81	.85	+.13,+3.84	+1.05	.67	-.28,+2.38	+.44	.34	-.22,+1.11
JD							+.26	.04	+.19,+3.3
JR							-.15	.04	-.24,-.05
	$R^2 = .04$			$R^2 = .02$			$R^2 = .36$		
	$F(1,107) = 4.57, p = .035$			$F(1,107) = 2.45, p = .120$			$F(3,105) = 19.51, p < .001$		

Consequent									
Antecedent	Job Demands			Job Resources			Cynicism		
	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI
SMS	+1.81	.85	+.13,+3.84	+1.05	.67	-.28,+2.38	+.39	.32	-.24,+1.04
JD							+.23	.04	+.16,+3.0
JR							-.29	.05	-.38,-.19
	$R^2 = .04$			$R^2 = .02$			$R^2 = .42$		
	$F(1,107) = 4.57, p = .035$			$F(1,107) = 2.45, p = .120$			$F(3,105) = 25.39, p < .001$		

Consequent									
Antecedent	Job Demands			Job Resources			Professional Efficacy		
	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI

SMS	+1.81	.85	+1.13,+3.84	+1.05	.67	-.28,+2.38	-.59	.29	-1.13,+0.02
JD							-.09	.03	-.15,-.03
JR							+.32	.04	+.23,+.41
	$R^2 = .04$			$R^2 = .02$			$R^2 = .37$		
	$F(1,107) = 4.57, p = .035$			$F(1,107) = 2.45, p = .120$			$F(3,105) = 20.95, p < .001$		

Note. SMS = Self-Monitoring Status, JD = Job Demands, JR = Job Resources

Table 8

Direct and Indirect Effects of Protective Self-Monitoring on Burnout

	<u>Emotional Exhaustion</u>			<u>Cynicism</u>			<u>Professional Efficacy</u>		
	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI
<u>Direct</u>	+0.44	.34	-.22,+1.11	+0.39	.32	-.24,+1.04	-.56	.29	-1.14,+0.02
<u>Indirect – Job Demands</u>	+0.46	.25	+.02,+1.00	+0.41	.22	+.02,+0.90	-.15	.09	-.38,-.02
<u>Indirect – Job Resources</u>	-.15	.11	-.42,+0.03	-.30	.21	-.75,+0.08	+.32	.23	-.09,+0.80

Exploratory Analyses

Age as a Controlled Variable

Given the small but reliable correlation between age and protective self-monitoring scores, we conducted another series of parallel mediation analyses with age as a control variable. Controlling for age had no impact on the analyses for univariate self-monitoring and acquisitive self-monitoring. However, age diminished the mediating effects of job demands on the relationship between protective self-monitoring and emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and professional efficacy (see Table 9). After controlling for age, there were no longer reliable mediation effects for protective self-monitoring on burnout through job demands.

Table 9

Direct and Indirect Effects of Protective Self-Monitoring on Burnout with Age as a Control Variable

	<u>Emotional Efficacy</u>			<u>Cynicism</u>			<u>Professional Efficacy</u>		
	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI

<u>Direct</u>	+ .41	.35	-.29, +1.10	+ .35	.34	-.32, +1.01	-.37	.29	-.95, +.22
<u>Indirect – Job Demands</u>	+ .31	.26	-.14, +.87	+ .27	.22	-.10, +.78	-.08	.07	-.29, +.02
<u>Indirect – Job Resources</u>	-.18	.12	-.49, +.01	-.35	.22	-.80, +.06	+ .37	.23	-.06, +.86

Different Types of Burnout: Copenhagen Burnout Inventory

In order to establish convergent validity and to expand the nomological network of both self-monitoring and burnout, we also explored the relationship between self-monitoring and other dimensions of burnout such as personal and work burnout. Before beginning our analysis, we assessed multicollinearity between our variables. See Table 2 for zero-order correlations. As with previous research (Kristensen et al., 2005; Winwood & Winefield, 2004), scores on the personal and work burnout subscales were positively correlated with scores on emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and negatively with scores on professional efficacy. The Job Demands-Resource Model has not been previously assessed using the Copenhagen Burnout Inventory. We seek to expand the nomological network for this model as well. Job demands scores were not correlated with personal burnout scores, but they were correlated with work burnout scores. Job resources scores were correlated with both personal burnout scores and work burnout scores. As expected (Kristensen et al., 2005), personal burnout scores and work burnout scores were correlated.

Parallel mediation was assessed using Model 4 of Hayes' PROCESS program (Hayes, 2013). Our predictor variables were univariate self-monitoring, acquisitive self-monitoring, and protective self-monitoring. Our mediators were job demands and job resources. Our outcome variables were personal burnout and work burnout. Age was included as a control variable for all mediation analyses.

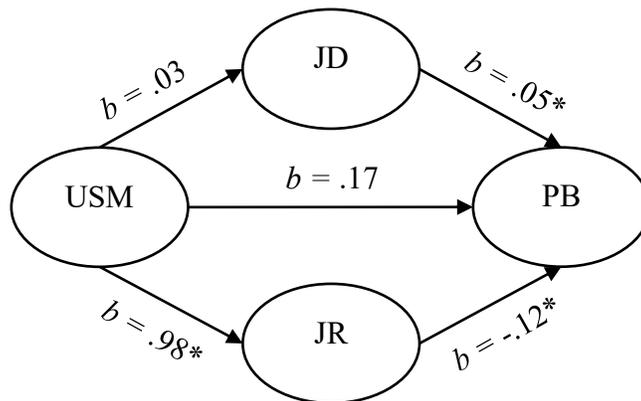
No direct pathway was found between univariate self-monitoring and (a) personal burnout

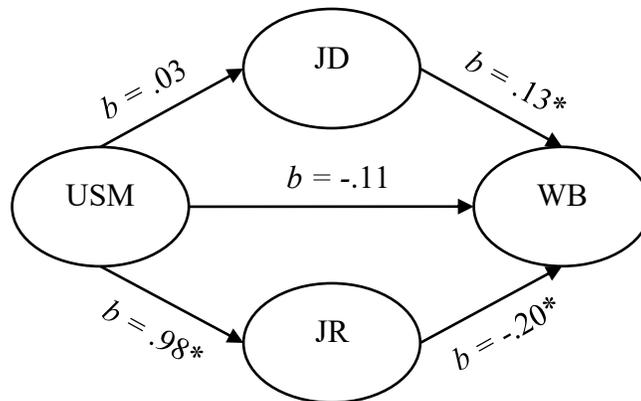
and (b) work burnout (Table 11, row 1). The same results were found for acquisitive (Table 13, row 1) and protective (Table 15, row 1) self-monitoring as well.

See Figure 4 for mediating effects of job demands/resources on self-monitoring (in its univariate form) and burnout. As self-monitoring increased, reported levels of job resources increased (Table 10, column 2) and this in turn contributed to less personal burnout (Table 10, upper panel, column 3, row 3), and less work burnout (Table 10, lower panel, column 3, row 3). Although job demands were related to work burnout (Table 10, lower panel, column 3, row 3), they were not related to personal burnout (Table 10, upper panel, column 3, row 3). Job resources mediated the connection between self-monitoring and (a) personal burnout and (b) work burnout (Table 11, row 3). Further, these demands did not mediate the connection between self-monitoring and any form of burnout (Table 11, row 2).

Figure 4

Mediating Effects of Job Demands/Resources on Univariate Self-Monitoring and Burnout





Note. *b* = Unstandardized Beta Coefficient. * = Statistically Significant. USM = Univariate Self-Monitoring, PB = Personal Burnout, WB= Work Burnout, JD = Job Demands, JR = Job Resources.

Table 10

Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors, and Model Summary Information for the Parallel Mediator Models Depicted in Figure 4

Univariate Self-Monitoring (Controlling for Age)										
Antecedent	Consequent									
	Job Demands			Job Resources			Personal Burnout			
	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	
SMS	+.03	.37	-0.70,+0.75	+.98	.28	+0.42,+1.54	-.17	.10	-.38,+0.03	
JD							+.05	.04	-.00,+0.10	
JR							-.12	.03	-.17,-0.06	
	$R^2 = .07$			$R^2 = .10$			$R^2 = .22$			
	$F(2,106) = 3.90, p = .023$			$F(2,106) = 6.20, p = .003$			$F(4,104) = 7.53, p < .001$			

Univariate Self-Monitoring (Controlling for Age)										
Antecedent	Consequent									
	Job Demands			Job Resources			Work Burnout			
	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	
SMS	+.03	.37	-0.70,+0.75	+.98	.28	+0.42,+1.54	-.11	.11	-.34,+0.12	
JD							+.13	.03	+.07,+0.18	
JR							-.20	.04	-.28,-0.13	
	$R^2 = .07$			$R^2 = .10$			$R^2 = .38$			
	$F(2,106) = 3.90, p = .023$			$F(2,106) = 6.20, p = .003$			$F(4,104) = 15.18, p < .001$			

Note. SMS = Self-Monitoring Status, JD = Job Demands, JR = Job Resources.

Table 11

Direct and Indirect Effects of Univariate Self-Monitoring on Burnout with Age as a Control

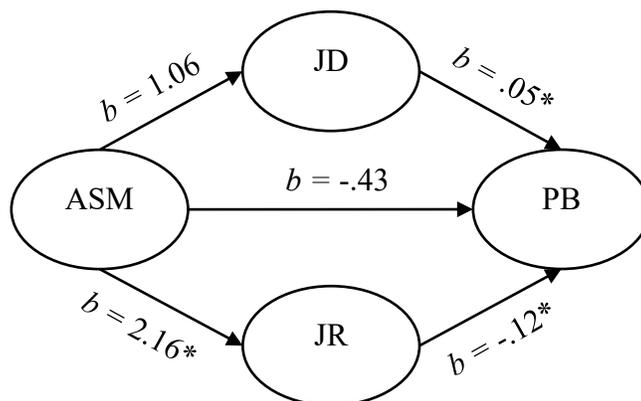
Variable

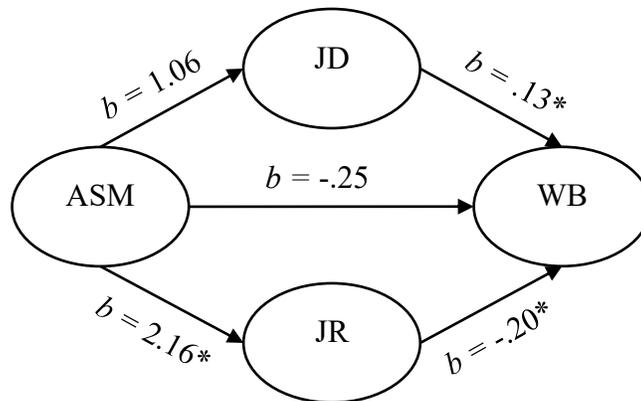
	<u>Personal Burnout</u>			<u>Work Burnout</u>		
	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI
<u>Direct</u>	-0.17	.10	-.28, +.03	-0.11	.11	-.34,+.12
<u>Indirect – Job Demands</u>	+0.00	.02	-.04, +.05	+0.00	.05	-.09,+.12
<u>Indirect – Job Resources</u>	-0.13	.05	-.26, -.05	-0.20	.08	-.38,-.07

A similar pattern of results was found for acquisitive self-monitoring (Figure 5). As self-monitoring increased, reported levels of job resources increased (Table 12, column 2) and this in turn contributed to less personal burnout (Table 12, upper panel, column 3, row 3), and less work burnout (Table 12, lower panel, column 3, row 3). Job resources mediated the connection between self-monitoring and (a) personal burnout and (b) work burnout (Table 13, row 3). As with the univariate form of self-monitoring, job demands did not mediate the connection between acquisitive self-monitoring and burnout (Table 13, row 2).

Figure 5

Mediating Effects of Job Demands/Resources on Acquisitive Self-Monitoring and Burnout





Note. *b* = Unstandardized Beta Coefficient. * = Statistically Significant. ASM = Acquisitive Self-Monitoring, PB = Personal Burnout, WB= Work Burnout, JD = Job Demands, JR = Job Resources.

Table 12

Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors, and Model Summary Information for the Parallel Mediator Models Depicted in Figure 5

Acquisitive Self-Monitoring (Controlling for Age)

Antecedent	Consequent								
	Job Demands			Job Resources			Personal Burnout		
	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI
SMS	+1.06	.86	-0.65,+2.77	+2.16	.67	+.83,+3.50	-.43	.24	-.91,+0.06
JD							+.05	.04	-.00,+1.10
JR							-.12	.03	-.17,-.06
	$R^2 = .08$			$R^2 = .09$			$R^2 = .23$		
	$F(2,106) = 4.17, p = .011$			$F(2,106) = 5.29, p = .007$			$F(4,104) = 7.61, p < .001$		

Antecedent	Consequent								
	Job Demands			Job Resources			Work Burnout		
	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI
SMS	+1.06	.86	-0.65,+2.77	+2.16	.67	+.83,+3.50	-.25	.27	-.78,+.28
JD							+.13	.03	+.07,+1.18
JR							-.20	.04	-.28,-.13
	$R^2 = .08$			$R^2 = .09$			$R^2 = .37$		
	$F(2,106) = 4.17, p = .011$			$F(2,106) = 5.29, p = .007$			$F(4,104) = 15.16, p < .001$		

Note. SMS = Self-Monitoring Status, JD = Job Demands, JR = Job Resources.

Table 13

Direct and Indirect Effects of Acquisitive Self-Monitoring on Burnout with Age as a Control

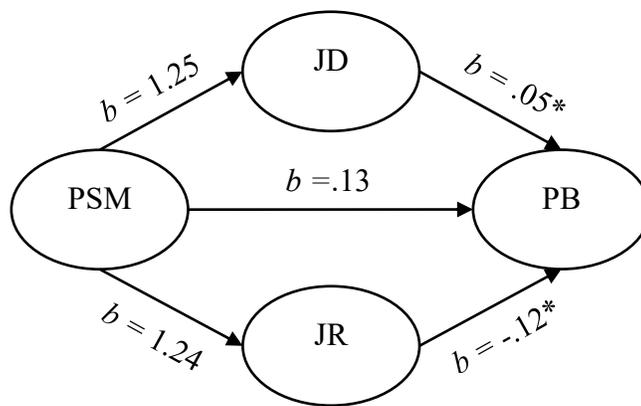
Variable

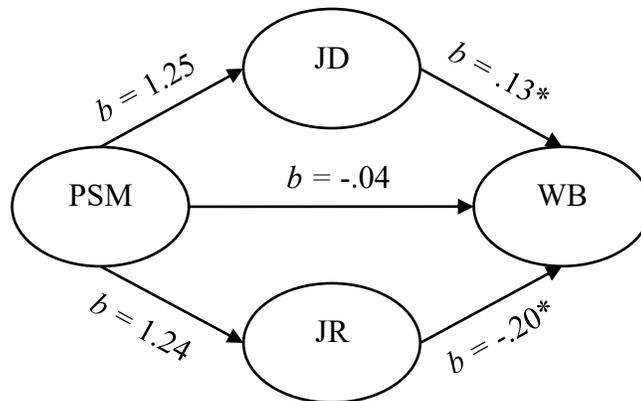
	<u>Personal Burnout</u>			<u>Work Burnout</u>		
	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI
<u>Direct</u>	-.43	.24	-.91,+06	-.25	.27	-.79,+28
<u>Indirect – Job Demands</u>	+.06	.06	-.02,+25	+.14	.13	-.09,+43
<u>Indirect – Job Resources</u>	-.28	.14	-.64,-.08	-.44	.19	-.89,-.12

Interestingly, protective self-monitoring had a different pattern of results compared to univariate self-monitoring and acquisitive self-monitoring. See Figure 6 for mediating effects of job demands/resources on protective self-monitoring and burnout. In this case, no evidence of an indirect connection was found. The connection between protective self-monitoring and (a) personal burnout and (b) work burnout was not mediated by (a) job demands (Table 15, row 2) or (b) job resources (Table 15, row 3).

Figure 6

Mediating Effects of Job Demands/Resources on Protective Self-Monitoring and Burnout





Note. *b* = Unstandardized Beta Coefficient. * = Statistically Significant. PSM = Protective Self-Monitoring, PB = Personal Burnout, WB= Work Burnout, JD = Job Demands, JR = Job Resources.

Table 14

Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors, and Model Summary Information for the Parallel Mediator Models Depicted in Figure 6

Protective Self-Monitoring (Controlling for Age)

Antecedent	Consequent								
	Job Demands			Job Resources			Personal Burnout		
	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI
SMS	+1.25	.86	-.47,+2.96	+1.24	.70	-.15,+2.62	+1.13	.24	-.36,+.61
JD							+0.05	.04	-.00,+0.10
JR							-.12	.03	-.17,-.06
	$R^2 = .09$			$R^2 = .03$			$R^2 = .21$		
	$F(2,106) = 5.01, p = .008$			$F(2,106) = 1.69, p = .189$			$F(4,104) = 6.74, p < .001$		

Antecedent	Consequent								
	Job Demands			Job Resources			Work Burnout		
	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI
SMS	+1.25	.86	-.47,+2.96	+1.24	.70	-.15,+2.62	-.04	.26	-.57,+4.8
JD							+0.13	.03	+0.07,+0.18
JR							-.20	.04	-.28,-.13
	$R^2 = .09$			$R^2 = .03$			$R^2 = .06$		
	$F(2,106) = 5.01, p = .008$			$F(2,106) = 1.69, p = .189$			$F(4,104) = 3.16, p = .047$		

Note. SMS = Self-Monitoring Status, JD = Job Demands, JR = Job Resources.

Table 15

*Direct and Indirect Effects of Protective Self-Monitoring on Burnout with Age as a Control**Variable*

	<u>Personal Burnout</u>			<u>Work Burnout</u>		
	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI	<i>b</i>	SE	95% CI
<u>Direct</u>	+ .13	.24	-.36,+.61	-.04	.26	-.57,+.48
<u>Indirect – Job Demands</u>	+ .06	.06	-.02,+.23	+ .16	.13	-.06,+.47
<u>Indirect – Job Resources</u>	-.19	.12	-.45,+.01	-.26	.16	-.60,+.03

Discussion**Summary and Interpretation of the Results**

The present study contained three research questions concerning the direct and indirect effects of self-monitoring on burnout as well as the differences between the univariate and bivariate models of burnout. An exploratory research question concerning the differences between the Maslach Burnout Inventory and the Copenhagen Burnout Inventory was also assessed. Our first research question was whether or not a direct relationship existed between self-monitoring and burnout. In our findings, there was not a direct connection between self-monitoring and burnout. This lack of direct connection occurred regardless of the way self-monitoring (univariate, acquisitive, and protective) or burnout (Maslach Burnout Inventory: emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and lack of professional efficacy and Copenhagen Burnout Inventory: personal burnout and work burnout) were assessed.

Our second research question involved the indirect connections between self-monitoring and burnout through job demands and resources. Whereas past research has looked at workplace correlates of self-monitoring, such as role conflict and job performance (Day et al., 2002; Day & Schleicher, 2006), our study is the first to look at job demands and job resources as potential correlates of self-monitoring. An indirect relationship through job resources only was found

between univariate self-monitoring and (a) emotional exhaustion, (b) cynicism, and (c) professional efficacy. Given that high self-monitors are interested in gaining status (Snyder, 1974; Wilmot et al., 2016) it is reasonable to assume that they, compared to low self-monitors, may be more interested in and seek out workplace resources to be the right person for their job and meet their job demands. High self-monitors may also be able to elicit more resources from their workplace by adapting to necessary situations. If these high self-monitors can obtain the proper resources, they would experience lower emotional exhaustion, lower cynicism, and greater personal efficacy.

Our final research question concerned the potential differences between univariate self-monitoring, acquisitive self-monitoring, and protective self-monitoring. Univariate self-monitoring and acquisitive self-monitoring had similar patterns of results. That is, the relationship between acquisitive self-monitoring and burnout (all three indices) was mediated by job resources. Conversely, the relationship between protective self-monitoring and burnout (all three indices) was mediated by job demands.

Acquisitive self-monitors are interested in gaining status (Wilmot et al., 2016) and therefore should be concerned with the resources associated with their job and how those resources might benefit them in earning rewards such as promotions and bonuses. Acquisitive self-monitoring is also linked to extroversion (Wilmot et al., 2016, 2017), meaning that acquisitive self-monitors are more sociable and more likely to engage with individuals who may provide necessary resources. If acquisitive self-monitors have enough resources, then they would experience less emotional exhaustion, less cynicism, and increased professional efficacy.

Protective self-monitors are interested in avoiding status loss (Wilmot et al., 2016) and therefore should be concerned with the demands associated with their job and how those

demands might adversely impact their ability to complete their jobs. Protective self-monitoring is also linked to neuroticism and attachment anxiety (Fuglestad et al., 2020; Wilmot et al., 2016), meaning that protective self-monitors are more sensitive to negativity and more likely to become anxious in the face of too many demands. If high protective self-monitors are overwhelmed by their demands, they should experience greater emotional exhaustion, greater cynicism, and reduced professional efficacy. However, it is important to note that age was confounded with protective self-monitoring in our sample. When we controlled for age, this mediation through job demands of protective self-monitoring on burnout disappeared. Therefore, we cannot definitively say that this relationship exists.

Applications and Implications

Self-Monitoring

The findings of this study represent an extension of the self-monitoring in the workplace literature to the phenomenon of burnout. Although self-monitoring was not directly related to burnout, there were indirect pathways that explained the relationship between these two constructs. Self-monitoring status was differentially related to job demands and resources. Scores on univariate and acquisitive self-monitoring were related to scores on job resources, whereas scores on protective self-monitoring were related to scores on job demands. One implication of these findings is employers should take employee self-monitoring status into account when considering things such as person-job fit, job requirements, and team cohesion (Brandstätter et al., 2016). The application of self-monitoring status as an indicator for certain jobs or team placement may help employees increase team cohesion, employee productivity, and employee well-being in general (Brandstätter et al., 2016; Xu & Payne, 2019).

The self-monitoring literature is further expanded by these findings regarding the debate over the univariate versus bivariate models of self-monitoring. There has been debate over whether self-monitoring is a single, dichotomous trait (univariate self-monitoring) or two, continuous traits (bivariate self-monitoring) (Lennox, 1988; Wilmot, 2015; Wilmot et al., 2017; Leone, 2006). Our findings support the existence of two separate self-monitoring traits. We found different patterns of results between acquisitive and protective self-monitoring. Acquisitive self-monitoring was related to amount of job resources, whereas protective self-monitoring was related to job demands. Therefore, these patterns of results provide evidence that acquisitive and protective self-monitoring are two distinct phenomena.

Burnout

By demonstrating that self-monitoring is a predictor of emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and professional efficacy, the results of the study also expand the literature on burnout in the workplace. There has been debate over whether personality is a direct or indirect antecedent of burnout (Alessandri et al., 2018; Bakker & Demerouti, 2016; Lee & Ashforth, 1996). In the present study, self-monitoring was found to have an indirect influence on the experience of burnout in the workplace. One implication of these findings is that employers should look at personality variables when considering potential employee turnover as well as how those personality variables interact with workplace phenomena such as job demands and job resources. It is not enough for an employer to know an employee's self-monitoring status. Employers must also be aware of and consider workplace stressors unique to their employees' personalities.

Our results for our second research question also dovetail with previous findings regarding the Job Demands/Resources Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2016; Boyd et al., 2011). High levels of job demands, rather than low levels of job resources, more often led to emotional

exhaustion. Conversely, low levels of job resources, rather than high levels of job demands, more often led to cynicism. These pattern of results are similar to those found by previous researchers (Bakker & Demerouti, 2016; Gan & Gan, 2014).

We also looked at the connection between professional efficacy and (a) job demands as well as (b) job resources because other studies have not explored this relationship (Bakker & Demerouti, 2016; Gan & Gan, 2014; Scanlan & Still, 2019). Interestingly, levels of professional efficacy were more related to levels of job resources than job demands. This connection between professional efficacy and job resources may be because levels of professional efficacy are linked to personal, internal feelings of accomplishment (Harry, 2017; C. Maslach et al., 2001). Job resources are partially internal and related to an employee's personality (Bakker & Demerouti, 2016; Xu & Payne, 2019).

Finally, in our exploratory analysis, we looked at the usefulness of the Copenhagen Burnout Inventory as an alternative to the Maslach Burnout Inventory. The pattern of results for the Copenhagen was like that of the Maslach. The key difference was that job demands were not related to personal burnout. However, job resources were related to personal burnout. This difference in connections between personal burnout and job demands and job resources may be because job demands are typically only present at work, while job resources are partially based around cognitive load and depletion of resources as work carries over to the home (Demerouti et al., 2012; Reichl et al., 2014; Xu & Payne, 2019). In further work on work/family conflict, the Copenhagen may be more useful as it allows for differentiation between issues at home and issues at work (Reichl et al., 2014; Simha et al., 2014).

Limitations

This study was a correlational (non-experimental) design. Given that all variables in this

study were measured and not manipulated, two main limitations need to be addressed. That is, issues of temporal precedence and third variables should be taken into account (Shaddish et al., 2005). In addition, low statistical power should also be taken into account (Hayes, 2009)

Temporal precedence cannot be established because all data were collected at one point in time. Although self-monitoring status is apparent in children as young as first grade (Graziano et al., 1987), there is also evidence that self-monitoring status fluctuates across the lifespan with older adults being lower in self-monitoring than younger adults (Novak & Mather, 2007) (although without a longitudinal design, it is impossible to tell if this a developmental effect or a cohort effect). Without being able to establish temporal precedence, it is unknown if self-monitoring behaviors caused an experience of burnout or if an experience of burnout caused self-monitoring behaviors. Individuals experiencing high levels of emotional exhaustion or cynicism may become less aware of external, environmental cues and therefore act in a way similar to that of low self-monitors (acting in an internally consistent manner rather than adapting to the situation) which in turn may cause them to perceive themselves as being low self-monitors.

This study also lacked experimental manipulation and no causal inferences can be drawn from our data. A possible third variable is self-consciousness which is known to be related to univariate self-monitoring (Fenigstein et al., 1975; Turner et al., 1978). High levels of self-consciousness are also known to lead to increased levels of workplace bullying, discrimination, and objectification of coworkers and also increased self-objectification (Auzoult & Personnaz, 2016; Parkins et al., 2006) which could lead to burnout . Workplace negativity in the forms of bullying and physical aggression lead to symptoms of stress (Hensel et al., 2015), a known antecedent to burnout (Marchand et al., 2014). Whereas self-objectification may be theoretically related to lack of professional efficacy (Harry, 2017; Maslach et al., 2001). Therefore, although

we assessed self-monitoring in our study and found significant results, our self-monitoring effects may have actually been differences in levels of self-consciousness.

Other possible third variables could be extroversion and neuroticism (Wilmot et al., 2016). Extroversion is known to be correlated with acquisitive self-monitoring, while neuroticism is known to be correlated with protective self-monitoring (Wilmot et al., 2016). Individuals high in neuroticism are also more likely to experience increased job demands which leads to burnout and extroverts are more likely to have increased job resources which leads to workplace engagement (Bakker et al., 2010; Maslach & Leiter, 2008).

Finally, the overall sample size for this study was only 109 participants. Power was calculated using the online Monte Carlo Power Analysis for Indirect Effects parallel mediation model with 10,000 replications at a 95% confidence interval (Schoemann et al., 2017). Power was around .10 for all mediation models using job demands as the mediator and around .30 for all mediation models using job resources as a mediator. These are well below the recommended .80 level (Fritz & Mackinnon, 2010; Hayes, 2009; Schoemann et al., 2017) which may explain the lack of indirect effects for job demands on (1)univariate and (2)acquisitive self-monitoring and burnout, as well as, the lack of indirect effects for job resources on protective self-monitoring and burnout. Based on the recommendations of Schoemann et al. (2017) and Fritz and Mackinnon (2010), future researchers should aim for a sample size of around 400 in order to reach a power level of .80. A larger sample size (and therefore higher power) may allow for the identification of smaller but significant indirect effects.

Future Directions

Future research on self-monitoring and burnout in the workplace would benefit from a longitudinal design (Shadish et al., 2005). In the future, a cross-lagged panel design (M. Leary &

Hoyle, 2010) could be used to assess participants at regular time intervals on their levels of self-monitoring, burnout, job demands, and job resources. A longitudinal design would allow for reciprocal, causal relationships among those variables to be studied as well as supply information on the development and continuity of each variable. As noted by Leary and Hoyle (2010), statistical control of third variables will still be necessary and would be included in all measurements.

The process model of the Job Demands and Resources Theory (see, Bakker & Demerouti, 2016, for a review of the literature) could be adapted to future studies to assess systematic relationships between self-monitoring, burnout, and job demands and resources. Within the Process Model of the Job Demands-Resources Framework (Bakker & Demerouti, 2016), employees' job demands deplete their personal and job resources which in turn depletes their ability to engage in job crafting (proactive employee behavior which allows for influence over job tasks and environment). Decreased job crafting abilities lead to lowered motivation which in turn leads to decreased job performance (Bakker, 2018). Together, decreased job performance and lowered motivation lead to job strain (also known as emotional exhaustion) which leads to self-sabotage (actively working against oneself to complete job tasks) (Ângelo & Chambel, 2015; Bakker & Demerouti, 2016; Bakker, 2018). Self-sabotage often then leads to increased job demands which perpetuates this cycle (Bakker & Demerouti, 2016). This cycle of resources and demands on motivation, stress, and job performance is known as a loss spiral for negative outcomes or a gain spiral for positive outcomes.

This transactional model of job demands/resources lacks a personality component. Future research could seek to expand the model by incorporating personality into the causal portion of the model. Personality may act as a buffer between job demands and job strain through the

ability to gain more resources. Increased resources are known to moderate the effect of job demands to job strain (Bakker & Demerouti, 2016; Xu & Payne, 2019). Extroverts and acquisitive self-monitors are better able to gain resources (Bakker et al., 2006; Wilmot et al., 2016). Therefore, the effects of job demands may be less for extroverts and acquisitive self-monitors due to their abilities to get along with others and gain workplace resources. Personality differences may also indicate why some people continue their downward, loss spiral while others can break the pattern without intervention from their company. For instance, acquisitive self-monitors are interested in status gain and may be able to recognize the detrimental effects of their behaviors and actively remove themselves from their loss spiral. Whereas protective self-monitors are more socially anxious and may be more likely to engage in self-undermining and therefore continually draw themselves into a loss spiral.

Future investigations on burnout and self-monitoring should also explore potential third variables as well as other predictors. In particular, future research should include measures of self-consciousness, extroversion, and neuroticism to address possible third variable problems. Self-consciousness is related to self-monitoring and also to experiences of workplace distress in the forms of self-objectification (Auzoult & Personnaz, 2016; Fenigstein et al., 1975; Parkins et al., 2006; Turner et al., 1978). Extroversion is related to acquisitive self-monitoring and increased workplace resources (Bakker et al., 2010; Wilmot et al., 2016). Finally, neuroticism is related to protective self-consciousness and increased negative impact of job demands (Bakker et al., 2010; Wilmot et al., 2016). Extroversion and neuroticism should be considered for potential predictor variables as well (Bakker et al., 2006, 2010; Bono & Vey, 2007). In the workplace, extroverts are known to possess greater abilities to acquire job resources (Bakker et al., 2010) which often predicts lower levels of burnout (Bakker & Demerouti, 2016; Rautenbach &

Rothmann, 2017). Whereas those high in neuroticism are more impacted by their job demands (Bakker et al., 2010) and therefore more likely to experience burnout (Bakker & Demerouti, 2016). Taking the job demands/resources model and the connection of introversion and extroversion with the bivariate form of self-monitoring, we should expect to see extroversion follow a similar pattern to acquisitive self-monitoring and neuroticism a similar pattern to protective self-monitoring.

Other variables that could also be considered for possible mediating effects are areas of work-life (workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values), role conflict and ambiguity, and work/family conflict (Demerouti et al., 2012; Maslach & Leiter, 2008; Reichl et al., 2014; Simha et al., 2014). All of these variables are antecedents to burnout and are considered workplace stressors.

The different areas of work-life relate to burnout in different ways. Increased workload, low control, low reward, low community, low fairness, and low value-fit all lead to increased burnout for employees (Jimenez & Dunkl, 2017; Maslach & Leiter, 2008). More specifically, increased workload (a concept similar to demands) leads to increased emotional exhaustion and decreased rewards (similar to resources) leads to increased cynicism. The effects of other areas of work-life (control, community, fairness, and values) are mediated by the availability of workplace resources (Jimenez & Dunkl, 2017). Although little research has been done on the personality differences associated with the areas of work-life specifically, the fact that self-monitoring is related to other workplace correlates (such as job satisfaction and workplace commitment, see Day & Schleicher, 2006) suggests that the areas of work-life may provide a mediating relationship between self-monitoring and burnout.

Role conflict, role ambiguity, and work/family conflict all lead to increased levels of

burnout (Reichl et al., 2014; Simha et al., 2014; Zahhly & Tosi, 1989). Increased role conflict and ambiguity limit the availability of resources and impact the ability to meet job demands which leads to burnout (Reichl et al., 2014). Further, role conflict and ambiguity are already known to be related to self-monitoring status (Day et al., 2002). Both pathways of work/family conflict (work-to-family and family-to-work) are related to increased levels of emotional exhaustion and cynicism (Simha et al., 2014). Self-monitoring status is also a known predictor of work/family conflict (Zahhly & Tosi, 1989). Therefore role ambiguity, role conflict, and work/family conflict should mediate the relationship between high self-monitoring and burnout (Day & Schleicher, 2006; Zahhly & Tosi, 1989). Further research will be necessary to predict how these phenomena interact with the bivariate form of self-monitoring.

Another interesting approach would be to take a lifespan perspective to address the confound of age and protective self-monitoring. Researchers have looked at job demands through a developmental lens and suggest that age may be a moderator between job demands and workplace burnout (Brewer & Shapard, 2004; Demerouti et al., 2012; Ramos et al., 2016; Reichl et al., 2014). Before we controlled for age, protective self-monitoring had a connection with demands, but this connection disappeared after we controlled for age. Future research should explore the moderating effect of age on the relationship between protective self-monitoring and job demands.

In addition to looking specifically at the connection between protective self-monitoring and job demands, future research should also take a more general developmental approach to burnout and self-monitoring. Self-monitoring status tends to decrease slightly with age (meaning that older individuals are more cross-situationally consistent in their behaviors) (Novak & Mather, 2007). Burnout is known to increase and decrease across the lifespan in response to

normative age-graded life events (such as marriage, buying a house, having a child, and/or moving up in the career path) as well as to non-normative events (such as a sudden family illness or death) (Brewer & Shapard, 2004; Demerouti et al., 2012). However, in general, burnout is experienced the most by younger employees and those with fewer years of experience in a particular job (see Brewer & Shapard, 2004, for a meta-analysis).

Other connections of age to the workplace come in the form of role conflict (experienced more by younger workers), role ambiguity (experienced more by older workers) (Demerouti et al., 2012; Ramos et al., 2016). As previously established, self-monitoring is also related to levels of role conflict/ambiguity (Day & Schleicher, 2006). Therefore, younger workers (compared to older workers) who are high self-monitors should experience higher levels of role conflict (because they lack the experience to be the right person for the situation) and therefore higher levels of burnout. Whereas older workers (compared to younger workers) who are low self-monitors will experience higher levels of role ambiguity in the form of changing job demands (Ramos et al., 2016) and therefore will experience more burnout.

Conclusion

Although the main focus of this study was finding patterns between self-monitoring, job demands/resources, and burnout, this study also provides further evidence for the importance of understanding individual differences in the workplace. We believe that individual differences in personality should be taken into account when attempting to reduce job turnover and increase employee well-being. Workers who suffer from burnout are more likely to have increased rates of absenteeism, leave their company, and suffer from stress-related health problems compared to workers who do not experience burnout (Brandstätter et al., 2016; Hamidi et al., 2018; Marchand, Durand, et al., 2014; Marchand, Juster, et al., 2014; Scanlan & Still, 2019). Chronic

absenteeism results in decreased productivity and therefore impacts the output and earnings for a company. Further, the cost to replace burned-out workers can be up to double the yearly salaries of the burned-out workers (Tarallo, 2019).

Personality not only contributes to the experience of burnout but also the influence of job demands and resources. Employers should assess their levels of demands and resources often and enact interventions when demands become too high or resources too low (Xu & Payne, 2019). No single intervention technique will be enough to satisfy all instances of high demands and low resources. These interventions should be tailored to the different personalities of different employees. There are also implications for training strategies during employee orientation which may help newer employees learn to cope with potential job stressors (Harry, 2017; Ramos et al., 2016; Scanlan & Still, 2019). Again, employee training should be tailored to employees and their personalities. Taken together, employers need to be aware of how employees' personalities impact employees' workplace experiences and employees need to be aware of how the workplace can interact with their personalities to create unique situations.

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