Abstract

Purpose: Research suggests that supervisor expectations regarding the need to respond quickly to work-related messages (SE) tend to be positively related to employees’ levels of emotional exhaustion. In the present research paper, we examine the indirect –through emotional exhaustion– effects of these expectations on employees’ levels of family satisfaction, life satisfaction and sleep quality. We also explore whether and how these associations differ between employees working onsite (n = 158) or remotely (n = 284).

Design/methodology/approach: A total of 442 employees completed an online survey that covered measures on SE, emotional exhaustion, family and life satisfaction, and sleep quality.

Findings: As hypothesized, our results revealed that the indirect effects of SE on family satisfaction, life satisfaction, and sleep quality were significantly mediated by emotional exhaustion. Finally, the relations between SE and the mediator (emotional exhaustion) were stronger among employees working onsite than among employees working remotely.

Practical implications: SE prevention could be encouraged to decrease employees’ emotional exhaustion, in turn increasing their sleep quality, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction.

Originality: These results revealed that working remotely helped buffer the undesirable effects of SE on emotional exhaustion.

Keywords: Supervisor pressure; communication technologies; burnout; satisfaction; sleep; mediation; moderation; remote working
Modern communication technologies can help to increase the speed and efficiency of work-related communications, to strengthen employees’ work connectivity, and even allow to support the emergence of stronger social bonds between employees and their supervisors and colleagues (Brauermann et al., 2018). Yet, these advantages can blur the boundaries between the work and family domains (Park et al., 2020; Wan et al., 2019) and reduce employees’ recovery and well-being (Barber and Santuzzi, 2015). Indeed, an increasing number of supervisors are now able to stay connected to their work at any time and place, and as a result may come to expect their employees to respond to work-related messages during their free time (Day et al., 2012). Research has shown that high expectations regarding the need to remain connected at all time or to quickly respond to work-related messages had a significant impact on the way employees manage their family role and recover from work, as well as on their psychological well-being (Barber et al., 2019; Derks et al., 2015). Indeed, employees exposed to such expectations from their supervisor may end up having to tap more into their personal resources as a way to properly cope with their work life, leaving them with fewer resources and thus increasing their risk of emotional exhaustion (Hobfoll, 2011).

Employees who perceive high expectations from their supervisor to be connected to their work at all time may also be more or less vulnerable to the undesirable effects of these expectations depending on their specific work context. For instance, these undesirable effects may be less pronounced for employees working remotely, as they are protected by clearer physical boundaries between the work and family areas, allowing them to emancipate themselves from these distal expectations (Kniffin et al., 2021), relative to their peers working onsite, who could fear the direct and daily consequences of not conforming to their supervisors’ expectations. In the context of the COVID-19 pandemic, which has forced many onsite employees to work remotely, the previously mainly ignored reality of remote employees has suddenly come to the forefront of organizational considerations regarding how best to support and increase the psychological functioning of these employees. For instance, recent reports suggest that employees who work remotely tend to experience higher levels of emotional exhaustion (Charalampous et al., 2019), resulting in less adaptive functioning in their professional and personal lives (Gillett et al., 2021).

This study was designed to address these two critically important issues related to: (a) the possible deleterious effects of supervisor expectations regarding the need to follow up quickly on work-related messages (hereafter referred to as SE), and (b) how these effects differ between employees working remotely and onsite. To better address these questions, we consider the role of emotional exhaustion (feeling emotionally overextended and exhausted at work; Schaufeli et al., 1996), an important facet of the process via which work might interfere with employees’ personal and professional functioning (Gillett et al., 2021). We also focus on family and life satisfaction, two facets of individuals’ psychological well-being known to share associations with a variety of desirable outcomes for individuals and organizations (e.g., more balanced work-family interactions, work performance; Kumar et al., 2021). Finally, we focus on sleep quality, which has found to be associated with emotional exhaustion (e.g., Gillett et al., 2020) and various maladaptive outcomes (e.g., work injuries; Wong et al., 2021). In sum, the present study examines the: (1) indirect effects of SE on family satisfaction, life satisfaction, and sleep quality as mediated through emotional exhaustion; and (2) how the associations between SE and emotional exhaustion differ between employees working onsite and remotely.

**Theoretical Background**

**SE and Emotional Exhaustion**

Employees pressured to be constantly available for work (such as that emerging from SE) may allocate more of their personal resources to ensure this availability, leading them to display a stronger connection to their work role, which then may become a greater part of their identity (Derks et al., 2015; Kreiner, 2006). As such, SE can be considered as a job demand (Day et al.,
2012) associated with sustained mental and emotional effort (Bakker et al., 2010) that can interfere with employees’ psychological well-being (Gillet et al., 2015). Moreover, because they are driven to work beyond the boundaries of their work role as a result of external sources of pressure (Gillet et al., 2016), employees exposed to SE also tend to experience frustration, annoyance, and anxiety (Page et al., 2021). Supporting these assertions, research has shown that the urge to respond quickly to work-related messages during their off-time tends to be associated with lower levels of well-being (Barber and Santuzzi, 2015; Derks et al., 2015) and with higher levels of emotional exhaustion (Page et al., 2021).

Hypothesis 1. SE will be positively related to emotional exhaustion.

The Undesirable Effects of Emotional Exhaustion

Numerous studies (e.g., Gillet et al., 2021) have documented the undesirable effects of emotional exhaustion on various facets of employees’ personal life (e.g., lower levels of family and life satisfaction) and psychological well-being (e.g., poorer sleep quality). These effects can be attributed to the fact that emotional exhaustion drives up negative emotions (e.g., sadness, disappointment, frustration) that can undermine employees’ psychological resources and coping abilities (Hobfoll, 2011). As a result, emotional exhaustion may make it much harder for employees to successfully navigate the dual requirements of their personal and professional lives. Exhausted employees thus often feel worried and stressed, and display an increased tendency to think about work-related problems during off-job time (Sonnentag and Fritz, 2015), which increases their likelihood of being in a state of over-activation and of experiencing sleep difficulties (Yan et al., 2018). More generally, emotional exhaustion also contributes to focus workers’ attention on the negative aspects of their life, making them less psychologically available to fully engage in their family role (Brenning et al., 2021). As a result, we can expect emotional exhaustion to be negatively related to employees’ levels of life and family satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2. Emotional exhaustion will be related negatively to sleep quality, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction.

The relations considered in the present study describe a mediation pathway according to which: (1) SE positively predict emotional exhaustion (Hypothesis 1); and (2) emotional exhaustion negatively predicts sleep quality, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction (Hypothesis 2). This is consistent with the health impairment process (Bakker et al., 2010) whereby job demands are linked to adverse outcomes through the depletion of energy (i.e., emotional exhaustion). More specifically, when employees’ job demands come to exceed their personal and job-related resources, they present a higher risk of becoming emotionally exhausted by their work, which in turn are likely to negatively impact various components of the psychological health and well-being outside of their work setting (Gillet et al., 2020). Empirically, this proposition was supported by Baka (2015), who demonstrated that job demands had direct and indirect effects (as mediated by emotional exhaustion) on depression and physical symptoms. Similar associations between job demands and employees’ levels of job satisfaction, ill-health, and turnover intentions (Huyn et al., 2014; Koon and Pun, 2018) have been found to be mediated by their levels of emotional exhaustion. Thus, and in line with previous studies demonstrating similar indirect effects of workplace connectivity on the work-family interface and well-being (Barber et al., 2019; Page et al., 2021), we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 3. Emotional exhaustion will mediate the associations between SE and sleep quality, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction.

The Moderating Role of Working Onsite Versus Remotely

Based on the person-environment interaction model (Oh et al., 2014), the strength of the associations between SE and emotional exhaustion can be expected to be contingent on contextual variables, such as working onsite or remotely. Indeed, each employee has their own preferences when it comes to managing the boundaries between their work and family domains.
These preferences range from integration (i.e., having no physical, temporal, and behavioral distinction between their work and personal roles) to segmentation (i.e., separating their work role from their family role through the creation of impermeable physical, temporal, and behavioral boundaries). Despite these preferences, by blurring the boundaries between work and the family life, working remotely facilitates the integration of both roles (Lapierre et al., 2016). This phenomenon may explain the inconsistent findings reported by prior research, regarding the effects of working remotely. Indeed, whereas some studies have demonstrated desirable effects of working remotely on various facets of employees’ recovery and on personal and professional well-being (Biron and van Veldhoven, 2016; Charalampous et al., 2019), others have shown that working remotely could also be linked to higher levels of guilt and overcommitment due to employees’ desire to reciprocate for the increased flexibility offered by their organization (Hughes and Silver, 2020). These diverging results may suggest that working remotely versus onsite could moderate the effects of SE on emotional exhaustion, rather than play a direct role. More specifically, we expect working remotely to reduce (or buffer) the undesirable effects of SE on emotional exhaustion.

Indeed, the undesirable effects of SE on emotional exhaustion may be reduced when work is accomplished in a (i.e., remote) setting that makes the work role less salient (Wang et al., 2021). Working remotely provides employees with higher levels of autonomy and flexibility in relation to the accomplishment of their work activities (Biron and van Veldhoven, 2016). For instance, employees who perceive a strong pressure to stay connected and who work remotely may feel more in control of when and how they transition between their work and family roles (Park et al., 2020), making it easier for them to allocate their resources across domains (Wan et al., 2019). Moreover, social psychologists have long demonstrated that individuals were less likely to conform to the influence of a powerful source (e.g., one’s supervisor) when this source is at a greater distance (Haslam et al., 2014). As a result, it might be easier for these employees (relative to those working onsite) to reduce the negative pressures from their work present in the family domain (Kreiner, 2006; Windeler et al., 2017), allowing them to better restore their resources (Sonntentag and Fritz, 2015), making them less prone to emotional exhaustion. Likewise, because employees exposed to SE experience depletion of their personal resources in an effort to conform to these expectations, they may come to adopt defensive strategies to protect their remaining resources (Hobfoll, 2011). Their remote work setting could make such coping strategies easier (e.g., psychological disengagement from work), thus reducing their risk of emotional exhaustion.

In contrast, the detrimental effects of SE on emotional exhaustion might be exacerbated among onsite employees where this form of pressure may be more salient (Charalampous et al., 2019). Indeed, when working onsite, employees tend to have a stronger connection with their supervisor, which makes it easier for their supervisor to put pressure on them (e.g., setting deadlines). In such powerful situations, where the source of influence is at closer distance, it may be more difficult for exposed employees to emancipate themselves from these norms (Haslam et al., 2014) and to switch-off from work requirements (Sonntentag and Fritz, 2015), in turn increasing their risk of emotional exhaustion (Fouquerea et al., 2019).

**Hypothesis 4.** The undesirable effects of SE on emotional exhaustion will be stronger among employees working onsite and weaker among those working remotely.

**Method**

**Participants and Procedure**

Participants were invited to complete an online questionnaire via the Prolific Academic crowdsourcing platform. Before completing the questionnaire, participants were provided information on the objectives of the research and were informed that participation was voluntary and confidential and that they could freely withdraw from the survey at any time. Recruitment was limited to participants who spoke English as a first language and who were
employed by an organization (rather than self-employed). The survey included two questions assessing participants’ attention (e.g., “It is important that you pay attention to our survey, please tick strongly disagree”), and one final question verifying “for scientific reasons”, if they really worked in an organization. Only respondents who successfully completed all verifications were included in the study, leading to 442 participants (56.6% of women). Of those participants, 158 reported working onsite, and 284 mentioned working remotely. Participants lived and worked in the British Isles (81.0%) or the USA (19.0%), and 94.1% held a bachelor degree. They had a mean age of 39.52 years (SD = 10.38) and a mean tenure in their position of 6.89 years (SD = 6.03). A majority of the participants held a permanent (95.5%) full-time (89.6%) position and worked in the private sector (57.9%).

**Measures**

**Supervisor’s expectations regarding work-related messages (SE).** SE were assessed using a four-item scale (e.g., “My supervisor expects me to respond to work-related messages during my free time after work.”; α = .90) developed by Derks et al. (2015). All items were rated on a five-point response scale ranging from “Strongly Disagree” to “Strongly Agree”.

**Emotional exhaustion.** Emotional exhaustion was assessed with five items (e.g., “Working all day is really a strain for me”; α = .95) from the Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (Schaufeli et al., 1996). All items were rated on a seven-point scale ranging from “Never” to “Every Day”.

**Family and life satisfaction.** Family and life satisfaction were both measured with a single item (Shimazu et al., 2015) asking workers to report the extent to which they were satisfied with their family and with their life in general. For both items, responses were provided on a four-point scale ranging from “Dissatisfied” to “Satisfied”.

**Sleep quality.** Sleep quality was measured with a single item (Dietch et al., 2019) asking workers to report the extent to which their sleep quality was satisfactory. Responses were made on a five-point scale ranging from “Very Poor” to “Very Good”.

**Analyses**

We relied on Mplus 8.6’s (Muthén and Muthén, 2021) maximum likelihood robust (MLR) estimator for all analyses. Due to our online data collection platform, there were no missing data. First, we estimated a confirmatory factor analytic (CFA) model encompassing all multi-item constructs considered in the present study, together with participants observed scores reflecting family and life satisfaction, sleep quality, and work setting (coded 0 for working onsite and 1 for working remotely) which were simply allowed to correlate with one another and with the factors. In this model, all multi-item constructs were defined as latent factors from their a priori indicators and allowed to correlate with one another. No cross-loading or correlated uniqueness was included.

Second, this model was converted to our a priori predictive structural equation model (SEM) in which SE were specified as having a direct effect on emotional exhaustion, sleep quality, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction. In turn, emotional exhaustion was specified as having a direct effect on sleep quality, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction. As a result, SE (the predictor) were also assumed to have an indirect effect on family satisfaction, life satisfaction, and sleep quality (the outcomes) through emotional exhaustion (the mediator). Due to the later testing of latent interactions involving the work context, this variable was allowed to predict the mediator and the outcomes.

To verify the adequacy of our CFA and SEM solutions, we relied on goodness-of-fit indices, where values > .90 and .95 on the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) and the comparative fit index (CFI), and values lower than .08 and .06 on the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) were respectively taken to reflect acceptable and excellent levels of fit (Marsh et al., 2005). In addition, the statistical significance of the indirect effects (IE) of SE on the outcomes was calculated using bias-corrected bootstrap (10000 bootstrap samples) confidence intervals.
Finally, to test the extent to which the associations between SE and the mediator (i.e., emotional exhaustion) differed (i.e., were moderated) between employees working onsite or remotely, latent interactions between work context (0: Onsite; 1: Remote) and SE were estimated with the latent moderated SEM approach (LMS; Klein and Moosbrugger, 2000) and allowed to predict the mediator. Significant interactions were then plotted following simple slope analyses conducted by simply recoding the work context variable (1: Onsite; 0: Remote) (Marsh et al., 2013).

Results

The goodness of fit of the CFA ($\chi^2 = 198.482, df = 54; CFI = .955; TLI = .936; and RMSEA = .078 [.066; .090]$) and SEM ($\chi^2 = 202.424, df = 55; CFI = .954; TLI = .935; and RMSEA = .078 [.067; .090]$) solutions was satisfactory, supporting their ability to provide an accurate representation of the data. However, results from the SEM model revealed a lack of direct associations between the predictors (SE and work context) and the outcomes (i.e., sleep quality, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction). As a result, a full mediation model was estimated, excluding these direct effects. The goodness of fit of this model was higher than that of the initial SEM model of partial mediation ($\chi^2 = 210.922, df = 61; CFI = .954; TLI = .941; and RMSEA = .075 [.064; .086]$). This model of full mediation was thus retained for further analyses.

Parameter estimates from the CFA solution are reported in Tables 1 (factor loadings and uniquenesses) and 2 (latent correlations). These results revealed well-defined, reliable, and related but well-differentiated constructs. The parameter estimates related to the predictive part of the final SEM solution of full mediation, as well as those from the subsequent model including latent interactions, are reported in Table 3. These results indicated that SE were associated with higher levels of emotional exhaustion, thus supporting Hypothesis 1. Emotional exhaustion was in turn associated with lower levels of sleep quality, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction, thus supporting Hypothesis 2. When considered on its own, the work context was not associated with emotional exhaustion. Our analyses also showed that the indirect effects of SE on sleep quality (IE = -.119; CI = -.164 to -.074), family satisfaction (IE = -.061; CI = -.092 to -.030), and life satisfaction (IE = -.097; CI = -.136 to -.058) were significantly mediated by emotional exhaustion. These results support Hypothesis 3.

Our results finally indicated that SE and work context interacted in the prediction of emotional exhaustion. Although this interaction only resulted in a minimal increase in the proportion of explained variance (3%), this increase is aligned with the explanatory power of interaction effects typically observed in the social sciences (Marsh et al., 2013). Simple slope analyses are reported in the bottom section of Table 3, and graphically represented in Figure 1. These analyses revealed that the positive effects of SE on emotional exhaustion were stronger among employees working onsite than among those working remotely, thus supporting Hypothesis 4.

Discussion

This study was designed to investigate the indirect (as mediated by emotional exhaustion) role played by SE in relation to employees’ levels of sleep quality, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction. Furthermore, we also considered how the associations between SE and the mediator (emotional exhaustion) differed between employees working remotely or onsite. Our results first supported the presence of a direct association between SE and higher levels of emotional exhaustion, in turn leading to lower levels of sleep quality, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction. Second, our results indicated that these indirect associations between SE and employees’ levels of sleep quality, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction were all mediated by emotional exhaustion. Third, the association between SE and emotional exhaustion was stronger among employees working onsite rather than remotely.
Theoretical Implications

Prior research has emphasized the need to better document the range of consequences associated with SE, already known to be accompanied by a variety of detrimental (e.g., low work engagement, high work-family conflict) outcomes (Derks et al., 2015), and to better understand the mechanisms involved in these associations. By revealing that higher levels of SE were associated with higher levels of emotional exhaustion, our results contributed to enrich our understanding of the range of undesirable consequences associated with SE. This association can be explained by the fact that employees who feel pressured to quickly respond to work-related messages at any time are more likely to succumb to that pressure. This, in turn, forces them to make personal sacrifices to enhance their work functioning, leading to poor recovery and the depletion of their resources (Braukmann et al., 2018; Sonnentag and Fritz, 2015). In other words, employees exposed to high levels of SE tend to direct more of their arguably limited (Hobfoll, 2011) resources to the work domain, leaving them with fewer resources and increasing their risk of exhaustion.

In turn, emotional exhaustion was found to be associated with lower levels of sleep quality, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction, thus forming a set of indirect pathways (all mediated by emotional exhaustion) between SE and these outcomes. These associations are consistent with the observation that emotional exhaustion tends to be associated with the experience of negative affect and with a lack of psychological detachment (Sonnentag and Fritz, 2015). This tendency to think about work during off-job time is itself associated with a constant state of activation, which results in lower levels of sleep quality (Junker et al., 2021). Likewise, exhausted employees are less mentally present for their family members and less engaged in their family role, leading to lower levels of family satisfaction (Brenning et al., 2021). Finally, exhausted employees also have fewer personal resources to support their different roles, increasing their likelihood of experiencing difficulties in their life in general (Hobfoll, 2011). This downward spiral of resource depletion is likely to interfere with their ability to meet the demands of their life, leading to lower levels of life satisfaction (Huyghebaert et al., 2018).

These indirect associations between SE and all the outcomes considered in this study (sleep quality, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction) via emotional exhaustion are consistent with prior research (Gillet et al., 2021). These findings lend additional support to the health impairment process (Bakker et al., 2010). Whereas most prior studies have focused on task-level demands (e.g., role overload), our results invite to further examine the contribution of interpersonal demands such as too high expectations, not only of the supervisor, but of other key agents (e.g., colleagues). In addition, it would be interesting for future research to devote more attention to unpacking the mechanisms underlying the effects of SE, while considering a broader range of outcomes and measures (e.g., work-family conflict, spouses’ ratings of marital satisfaction) and additional explanatory mechanisms (e.g., motivation, overcommitment; Huyghebaert et al., 2018).

Finally, our results revealed that the effects of SE on emotional exhaustion were substantially more pronounced among employees working onsite than among those working remotely. Indeed, working remotely may help employees exposed to high levels of SE to reduce the negative spillover effects of their work into the family domain, resulting in smaller associations between SE and emotional exhaustion (Windeler et al., 2017). Notably, remote workers have higher levels of autonomy and flexibility in the accomplishment of their work activities (Biron and van Veldhoven, 2016). This makes it easier for them to redistribute their resources (e.g., time, energy, emotional availability) across the work and family domains (Wan et al., 2019) in a way that is more efficient and makes it possible to assign time to follow up on work-related message at various moments. Conversely, when employees exposed to high levels of SE work onsite, their work role becomes more salient (Charalampous et al., 2019), thus increasing their tendency to devote a lot of time and energy to their work even when at home (resulting from
the need to follow up immediately on work-related messages). This in turn increases the negative spillover of work into the personal domain in the form of emotional exhaustion (Hobfoll, 2011). This is because onsite workers are more directly connected with their supervisor (with whom they have frequent face-to-face interactions at work), which makes it easier for their supervisor to continuously and directly pressure them to be constantly connected to the job (Derks et al., 2015). More generally, this result provides support for research on norms and obedience, in the work domain, by showing that employees are more likely to suffer from obedience to a powerful source of influence (i.e., their supervisor), when this source of influence is at a closer rather than a greater distance (Haslam et al., 2014). Remote work may thus constitute an interesting buffer against some detrimental effects of social influence. Altogether, these observations highlight a contingency perspective that helps unpack several pathways through which SE may influence employees’ work and family lives. In this regard, working remotely may facilitate the segmentation between the work and family domains by limiting the undesirable effects of SE on emotional exhaustion.

Limitations and Research Perspectives

When considering our results, some limitations have to be considered. First, although shared method biases are unlikely to play a role in multivariate analyses (Siemsen et al., 2010), the fact that this study relied solely on self-report measures increases the risk of other forms of social desirability and self-report biases (Spector, 2019). However, preliminary analyses showed that the measures had sufficient discriminant validity. As a result, we are confident that common method bias cannot completely explain our findings. To alleviate these concerns, it would be interesting for future studies to consider the incorporation of objective measures (e.g., organizational data on work performance, biological measures of psychophysiological activation) and informant ratings of employees’ functioning (e.g., colleagues, supervisors, spouse). Second, although variables were considered as predictor (i.e., SE), mediator (i.e., emotional exhaustion), or outcomes (i.e., family satisfaction, life satisfaction, and sleep quality) based on theoretical grounds (Bakker et al., 2010; Page et al., 2021), our cross-sectional design makes it impossible to confirm the directionality of these associations. It would be fruitful for future studies to explore the issue of directionality through longitudinal research designs. Third, the present study was conducted solely among employees who lived and worked in the British Isles or the USA. Further research is thus needed to generalize the current results in different countries, languages, and cultures. Finally, SE were the only job demand of interest in our research. Yet, it would be interesting to examine how other hindrance (e.g., role ambiguity, role conflict) and challenge (e.g., job responsibility, job complexity) demands, as well as job (e.g., organizational justice, transformational leadership) and personal resources (e.g., optimism, resilience) relate to employees’ functioning, and their interplay with work settings (i.e., remote and onsite working).

Practical Implications

Modern societies, organizations, and some individuals tend to value heavy work investment (Huyghebaert et al., 2018). Yet, our findings highlight the need to consider reducing SE to decrease employees’ likelihood of experiencing emotional exhaustion, which may in turn reduce their likelihood of experiencing poor sleep quality, and low levels of family and life satisfaction. Possible interventions include changes designed to reduce workload sustainably, which might help decrease SE in the long run. Among possible ways to achieve this goal, SE prevention could be encouraged at the organizational level (e.g., stating clear segmentation norms and encouraging balanced and healthier lifestyles; Kreiner, 2006). Such formal policies also need to be backed up by informal embodiment of these healthier expectations, through supervisors’ modeling. Supervisors could thus attend seminars aiming to raise awareness on the fact that such expectations from them may jeopardize their subordinates' psychological functioning (and in turn their performance). They could then be trained on some key best practices to respect the temporal,
behavioral, and physical boundaries between their subordinates’ work and non-work lives. In more extreme cases, SE prevention could also be tackled at the individual level (e.g., supervisors seeking counseling to develop new habits and replace their old malfunctioning behaviors; Van Gordon et al., 2017).

Finally, it is noteworthy that SE had stronger effects on emotional exhaustion among employees working onsite relative to those working remotely. These results suggest that decreasing SE for employees working onsite may help prevent emotional exhaustion, in turn increasing sleep quality, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction. For instance, recent findings suggest that management practices should improve equity, that positive employee-manager relationships should be nurtured, and that equitable access to resources and professional development should be promoted (Onnis, 2019). Managers are also encouraged to understand and openly discuss the struggles and hopes of each employee, and demonstrate confidence that workers’ goals can be achieved (Antonakis et al., 2016). More generally, as recently suggested, organizations and managers should rethink work and propose different interventions to better support onsite and remote workers (Kniffin et al., 2021).

References
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effects with the LMS method”, *Psychometrika*, Vol. 65 No. 4, pp.457-474. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02296338


Figure 1
Simple Slope Analysis of the Effects of Supervisors’ Expectations Regarding Work-Related Messages on Emotional Exhaustion among Onsite and Remote Workers

![Graph showing the effects of supervisor expectations on emotional exhaustion for onsite and remote workers.](image)

Table 1
Standardized Factor Loadings ($\lambda$) and Uniquenesses (δ) from the CFA Solution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Supervisor expectations $\lambda$</th>
<th>Emotional exhaustion $\lambda$</th>
<th>δ</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Item 1</td>
<td>.909</td>
<td>.174</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 2</td>
<td>.824</td>
<td>.321</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 3</td>
<td>.873</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 4</td>
<td>.754</td>
<td>.431</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\omega$</td>
<td>.907</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
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<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Supervisor expectations</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.324**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Emotional exhaustion</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-.101</td>
<td>-.231**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Family satisfaction</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-.193**</td>
<td>-.354**</td>
<td>.729**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Life satisfaction</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-.192**</td>
<td>-.401**</td>
<td>.284**</td>
<td>.396**</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Sleep quality</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-.098*</td>
<td>-.015</td>
<td>-.029</td>
<td>-.049</td>
<td>-.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Work context (onsite vs. remote)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
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Note. * p < .05, ** p < .01.
### Table 3

**Predictive Results**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>Emotional exhaustion</th>
<th>Family satisfaction</th>
<th>Life satisfaction</th>
<th>Sleep quality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b (s.e.)</td>
<td>β</td>
<td>b (s.e.)</td>
<td>β</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic predictive model</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisor expectations</td>
<td>.347 (.055)**</td>
<td>.327</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work context</td>
<td>.035 (.102)</td>
<td>.016</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional exhaustion</td>
<td></td>
<td>- .177 (.038)**</td>
<td>- .232</td>
<td>- .356</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- .280 (.037)**</td>
<td></td>
<td>- .345 (.041)**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²</td>
<td>.108 (.031)**</td>
<td>.054 (.022)*</td>
<td>.126 (.031)**</td>
<td>.162 (.034)**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Predictive model with latent interactions</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Supervisor expectations</td>
<td>.861 (.121)**</td>
<td>.533</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work context</td>
<td>.082 (.155)</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional exhaustion</td>
<td></td>
<td>- .116 (.025)**</td>
<td>- .232</td>
<td>- .356</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expectations x Context</td>
<td></td>
<td>- .184 (.024)**</td>
<td></td>
<td>- .226 (.026)**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²</td>
<td>.134 (.032)**</td>
<td>.054 (.022)*</td>
<td>.127 (.031)**</td>
<td>.162 (.034)**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a</td>
<td>b (s.e.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Onsite workers</td>
<td>3.919</td>
<td>.861 (.121)**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remote workers</td>
<td>4.001</td>
<td>.359 (.097)**</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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**Note.** Work context: 0 = Onsite workers and 1 = Remote workers; R²: Squared multiple correlation (reflecting the proportion of explained variance); a: Regression intercept (used in drawing the simple slope graphs); b: Unstandardized coefficient; s.e.: Standard error of the coefficient; β: Standardized coefficient; * p < .05, ** p < .01.