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RESEARCH ARTICLE

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Activated at home but deactivated at work: How daily mobile work leads to next-day psychological withdrawal behavior

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Summary

Drawing from the effort-recovery model and the work–home resources model, we investigate the linking mechanisms between daily mobile work and next-day psychological withdrawal behavior. Using a recovery lens, we propose that an employee's mobile work negatively relates to state resilience via psychological detachment from work on a daily basis. In light of a work-to-home process, we suggest that the focal employee's daily mobile work negatively relates to the spouse's relationship satisfaction via spouse perception of the employee's psychological detachment. In light of a home-to-work process, we also focus on state resilience as a mediator that translates diminished recovery and home outcomes into psychological withdrawal behavior. We tested our hypotheses using experience sampling data from 106 couples for 15 consecutive workdays. Results showed that the focal employee's mobile work was negatively associated with state resilience through decreased psychological detachment. On days when the employee engaged in mobile work more frequently, the spouse perceived the employees' psychological detachment as being weaker; moreover, the spouse experienced lower relationship satisfaction. Overall, the employee's daily mobile work was positively and indirectly associated with next-day psychological withdrawal behavior via psychological detachment and state resilience. The spouse's relationship satisfaction did not relate to the employee's state resilience.

KEYWORDS
mobile work, psychological detachment from work, psychological withdrawal behavior, relationship satisfaction, state resilience

1 | INTRODUCTION

Recent technological developments are challenging traditional work norms, which affect how, when, and where employees work across the globe (Cascio & Montealegre, 2016). For example, the US Bureau of Labor Statistics (2019) reported that 24% of employees in the United States did some or all of their work at home. According to a study conducted by the Korea Labor Institute (2016), South Korean workers used mobile devices for work (e.g., instant messages, emails, phone calls, and video conferences) for 1.44 h after official working hours every day or 11.3 h a week. Also, a report by the University of Limerick (2019) showed that a quarter of Irish workers in the financial sector felt pressured to answer calls or emails from their employers outside office hours. Due to mobile work, even at home, contemporary workers are frequently in "absent presence," which means they are physically present but simultaneously absorbed elsewhere (Gergen, 2002).

Mobile work in this study refers to the use of mobile devices to perform work tasks outside working hours at home (Ferguson et al., 2016). Given that the use of mobile devices may encompass a wide range of information and communication technology used for various purposes, we identify the scope of mobile work in terms of

the time, location, and purpose. With regard to time, mobile work occurs during evening hours after work; however, it does not entail telecommuting or remote work during work hours (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). Mobile work also captures engagement in work tasks by using mobile devices only at home. In this sense, mobile work is distinct from the extensive notion of connectivity to work outside the office (e.g., Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007; Büchler et al., 2020; Diaz et al., 2012) despite their conceptual overlap. Unlike mobile work, constant connectivity (i.e., 24/7 availability to work) is not restricted to the home domain (e.g., during the commute or at the gym); it may occur through other channels (e.g., PC) rather than mobile devices (Büchler et al., 2020; Mazmanian, 2013; Wajcman & Rose, 2011). Finally, mobile work involves the use of mobile devices only for work purposes; therefore, it deliberately excludes using mobile devices for nonwork activities such as small talk with coworkers on social media and evening cyber leisure (Liu et al., 2020).

Recent research has shown that mobile work can yield negative individual and family outcomes (e.g., Derks et al., 2014; Gadeyne et al., 2018; Piszczek, 2017; Schlachter et al., 2018). Despite burgeoning evidence regarding the consequences of mobile work, the current literature is limited for at least two reasons. First, it remains unclear whether and how daily mobile work translates to subsequent work behaviors. To date, typical outcomes in prior research on mobile work have been employee well-being such as emotional exhaustion (Derks & Bakker, 2014; Lanaj et al., 2014), sleep quality (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015; Braukmann et al., 2018), and affective states (Hunter et al., 2019). Beyond employee well-being, however, relatively little is known about the complex process entailing both home and work outcomes. This lack of attention is somewhat surprising, given the spiral-like potential in which daily mobile work influences an individual's home resources and eventually results in changes in next-day work outcomes (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). Second, the vast majority of research on mobile work has focused on the mobile user alone, neglecting the role of other family members (see Ferguson et al., 2016, for a notable exception). Research illustrates that the work–home interface drawn from mobile work is determined, either directly or indirectly, by multiple agents (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). In particular, the spouse is an important border-keeper who negotiates what constitutes the home domain and where the work–home border lies (Clark, 2000). Therefore, a multisource perspective that incorporates the spouse's role is needed to offer a more thorough account of the home and work outcomes of mobile work.

The aim of this study is to systematically address the implications of mobile work for both the home and work domains, going beyond the recovery perspective with a focus on the employee. Integrating the effort-recovery model (Meijman & Mulder, 1998) and the work–home resources model (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012), we develop a serial mediation model linking daily mobile work to next-day work behavior. Whereas past research on mobile work has focused on well-being outcomes mainly through the recovery lens, we extend this line of work with the work–home resources model because it helps us better examine how the focal employee's mobile work influences a home outcome (i.e., the spouse's relationship satisfaction) through a work-to-home process and, ultimately, a work outcome (i.e., psychological withdrawal behavior) through a home-to-work process.

Specifically, the effort-recovery model holds that prolonged exposure to effortful demands without recovery leads to negative load effects such as psychological distress and health impairment (Craig & Cooper, 1992; Meijman & Mulder, 1998). Drawing from this recovery perspective, we propose that the focal employee's daily mobile work may hinder *psychological detachment from work*, defined as a "sense of being away from the work situation" (Etzion et al., 1998, p. 597) and in turn reduce *state resilience*, defined as "the capability of individuals to cope successfully in the face of change, adversity, and risk" (Stewart et al., 1997, p. 22). Further building on the work–home resources model, we examine how this incomplete recovery influences family and work outcomes. The work–home resources model outlines the underlying mechanism in which demands and resources in one domain promote or inhibit functioning in the other domain (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). In light of a work-to-home process, we argue that the focal employee's daily mobile work can worsen the spouse's *relationship satisfaction*, referring to the subjective evaluation of experiences within romantic relationships (Rusbult et al., 1998) through *spouse perception of the employee's psychological detachment from work*, which we define as the extent to which the spouse perceives the focal employee as being away from the work situation. In light of a home-to-work process, we suggest that failure to recover at home leads to next-day *psychological withdrawal behavior*, referring to a set of actual behaviors allowing employees to mentally escape from work (Hulin et al., 1985), through a reduction in state resilience. Psychological withdrawal behavior is an important marker of daily work outcomes, as it is not infrequent nor of little consequence. Employees' psychological withdrawal behaviors—compared with other forms of counterproductive behaviors (e.g., theft, violence)—are less overt and thus less identifiable (Kidwell & Bennett, 1993; Motowidlo & Kell, 2013); however, such comparatively minor withdrawal behaviors (e.g., taking lengthy breaks and putting little effort into work) could impact group and organizational functioning (Koslowsky, 2009). Figure 1 depicts our conceptual model.

This research makes several contributions. First, we contribute to the mobile work literature by combining a recovery lens and work–home processes that are triggered by employees' mobile work. In this study, we investigate not only how daily mobile work relates to employee recovery at home but also whether the effects of mobile work can go beyond home outcomes and influence next-day work behavior. Importantly, we suggest that state resilience serves as a core mechanism to substantiate how the work-to-home process is inextricably linked to the home-to-work process. That is, the utility of state resilience is not limited to the recovery context; rather, it extends to the work context by transmitting the consequences of mobile work to workplace behavior. This role of state resilience as a key mediator helps us unpack the sequential processes through which daily mobile work impacts home resources and ultimately leads to changes in work behavior for the upcoming workday. We also complement and

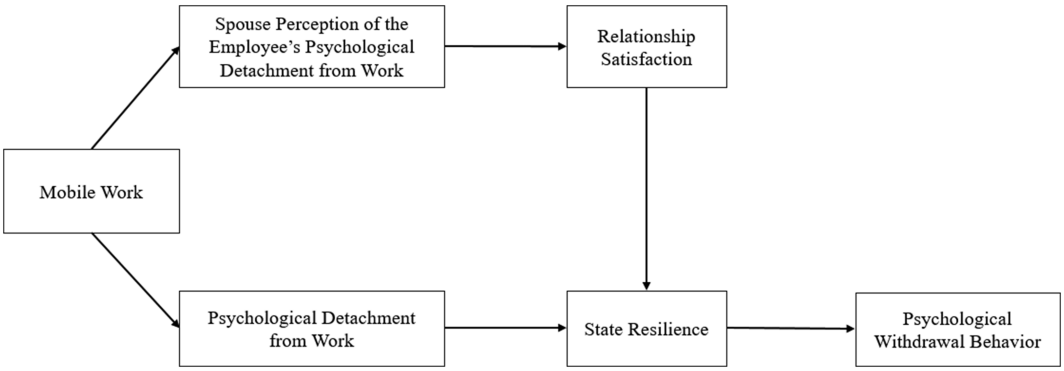

FIGURE 1 Hypothesized research model

broaden the recovery literature by examining psychological withdrawal behavior as a work outcome. By shifting the focus in research from well-being outcomes to workplace behaviors, this study expands the nomological network of mobile work in recovery contexts. Research has shown that withdrawal can be seen as a defensive action in response to resource deficiencies, in that individuals are inclined to conserve a pool of sustaining resources and avoid additional resource losses (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll et al., 2018). We posit that employees who fail to replenish their resource reservoirs due to mobile work on a given day may exhibit psychological withdrawal behavior the following workday.

Second, we facilitate a more comprehensive understanding of the work-to-home process by taking into account the spousal perspective. As noted above, we cannot reach a fuller or more balanced account of the mobile work phenomenon and its home-specific consequences without considering the important role that spouses play. We argue that on days when a focal employee frequently engages in mobile work, the spouse is more likely to experience reduced relationship satisfaction, as the spouse perceives that the employee is insufficiently detached from work. The viewpoint of the spouse is useful because how the spouse perceives the employee's day-to-day home experiences is an essential basis for the couple's functioning (Finkel et al., 2017). By addressing the spouse's perception and reaction to the focal employee's mobile work, we seek to overcome the prevailing one-sided view of how mobile work shapes home outcomes on a daily basis. We further assert that the spouse's relationship satisfaction will be reintegrated into the employee's state resilience.

Third, we contribute to the work–family literature by testing our research model with a multisource experience sampling method (ESM). Whereas much attention has been directed toward intra-individual phenomena in recent organizational research (Podsakoff et al., 2019), most studies on the work–family interface still tend to take a static, between-individual approach (Lin et al., 2020). Given the plausibility that there is a substantial amount of within-individual variance in mobile work and family interactions (e.g., Derks et al., 2016; Hunter et al., 2019; Lanaj et al., 2018), a static viewpoint tied to individual differences may not adequately cover the range of mobile work or subsequent outcomes that vary over time. Using ESM, we attempt to uncover meaningful intra-individual associations explained by the focal employee's mobile work on a given day. This approach aligns with McCormick and colleagues' notion that "within-person research offers promise as a means to facilitate contributions that enhance temporal precision, elucidate dynamic phenomena, and provide novel insights about constructs and their relationships with one another that are not possible with a between-person perspective" (McCormick et al., 2020, pp. 322–323). In addition to the general advantage of ESM in terms of increasing ecological validity, we take further advantage of dual-source (the focal employee and the spouse) data and reduce potential concerns over the same source bias related to relying on self-reports (Beal, 2015; Gabriel et al., 2019). With a multisource ESM, we incorporate the spouse's own responses, which cannot be captured accurately by the focal employee's self-reports alone, and thus provide a more complete picture of daily work–home experiences in the context of mobile work.

2 | THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

2.1 | Mobile work, psychological detachment, and state resilience: A recovery perspective

Mobile work is a boundary-crossing activity that possesses several key attributes (Ashforth et al., 2000). First, mobile work allows the flexibility of work–home boundaries, as it does not abide by a rigid schema of when and where work- or home-relevant behavior begins and ends (Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007; Day et al., 2019). Second, mobile work contains voluntary and/or involuntary work interruptions (Kossek & Lautsch, 2012; Puranik et al., 2020). For example, an interruption can be self-initiated by the compulsive tendency of employees to continually check their mobile devices and monitor the communication flow within their teams or organizations in an attempt to be constantly accessible (Mazmanian et al., 2013; Wajcman & Rose, 2011). An interruption can also take the form of unpredictable intrusion from work domain members (e.g., supervisors or clients) into the home domain, over which employees may have little control (Bulger et al., 2007; Rosen et al., 2019). Third, employees may experience notable daily variance in mobile work (Derks et al., 2014; Lanaj et al., 2014). For example, before a work deadline, some employees

may urgently answer cross-realm phone calls or messages; at other times, they may consciously put their mobile devices away from sight after work.

We argue that the focal employee's daily mobile work, characterized as boundary-crossing, is likely to impair his or her psychological detachment from work. According to the effort-recovery model, recovery is a process through which individuals' physiological and psychological systems return to a specific baseline level within a short period after exposure to work demands (Craig & Cooper, 1992; Meijman & Mulder, 1998). It is thus crucial to sustain resource reservoirs that individuals possess through an unwinding process from work (Meijman & Mulder, 1998). With its flexible and intrusive nature, mobile work involves domain-independent work demands that may occur under unpredictable conditions. Thus, mobile work may induce the repeated activation of work-related effort while the employee is at home and may hinder employee recovery as a result (Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005). What is essential for effective recovery is cognitively disengaging from work during off-job time, and simply being physically away from the work situation is not sufficient (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007, 2015). Psychological detachment, or refraining from work-related thoughts, allows employees to disconnect from work without prolonging activation (Geurts & Sonnentag, 2006). Mobile work on a given day, however, leaves employees exposed to sustained work demands, preventing them from psychologically distancing themselves from work and thus impeding recovery at home. In line with this argument, research has found that job stressors during nonwork time are negatively related to psychological detachment from work (e.g., Braukmann et al., 2018; Büchler et al., 2020; Park et al., 2011; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015; Van Laethem et al., 2018).

State resilience is a form of recovery outcome representing the desired state that individuals should achieve through maintaining homeostasis (Reich et al., 2010). Employee recovery while at home provides opportunities to replenish resource reserves that are drained out at work during the day (Mojza et al., 2011; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). State resilience manifests how well the employee has re-established a daily homeostatic balance as a result of the recovery process. It is distinct from the state of being recovered (or the recovery level), which is often used as a proxy for a successful return to normal functioning (e.g., Binnewies et al., 2009; Oerlemans & Bakker, 2014; Sonnentag et al., 2012). Whereas the state of being recovered mainly involves affective states such as feeling recharged with energy (Binnewies et al., 2009; Steed et al., 2019), state resilience encompasses cognitive capacity or how people believe they can use their resources to confront threats, as well as affective capacity (Coutu, 2002; Kossek & Perrigino, 2016).

We suggest that, intra-individually, mobile work is negatively related to state resilience through a lack of psychological detachment because the reoccurrence of stress-related load reactions without sufficient recovery results in adverse load effects (Geurts & Sonnentag, 2006; Meijman & Mulder, 1998). An employee who fails to stop thinking about work while at home is likely to fail to recharge his or her important resource reservoir, which is key to stabilizing the system equilibration (Craig & Cooper, 1992; Muraven & Baumeister, 2000). Accordingly, low psychological detachment reduces the state resilience needed to handle challenges at work the following workday. Supporting these theoretical considerations, empirical studies have shown that detachment from work during off-duty hours is positively associated with the restoration of individual resources (e.g., vigor and positive affect) and negatively associated with strain levels (e.g., Bennett et al., 2018; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015; Wendsche & Lohmann-Haislah, 2017). In summary, we propose the following:

> **Hypothesis 1.** Within individuals, mobile work has a negative indirect relationship with state resilience through decreased psychological detachment from work.

2.2 | Spousal perception and response to mobile work: Work-to-home process

In addition to the focal employee's standpoint, we propose a work-to-home process reflecting the view of the employee's spouse. The work–home resources model posits that continuous work demands make it difficult to fulfill home demands, thus diminishing home outcomes (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). Although the spouse plays an influential role in building home outcomes (Clark, 2000), research to date has predominantly focused on the employee's assessments, without considering how the employee's behavior is perceived by the spouse in the home domain (e.g., Hunter et al., 2019; Spieler et al., 2017). Indeed, the work–home resources model assumes that individuals' microsystems (work and home) are interrelated and that their mesosystems (work–family interface) are also intermingled with the mesosystems of multiple related agents (Bronfenbrenner, 1994; ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). In this vein, the work demands and resources of one partner could impact how the other partner views, interacts with, and responds to the partner.

We expect the focal employee's mobile work to be negatively related to the spouse's perception of the employee's psychological detachment from work. According to person-perception theorists (e.g., Brunswik, 1956; Funder, 1995), a perceiver utilizes a set of observable cues when making judgments about a target person. In particular, couples likely have day-to-day interactions with each other and try to decipher the partner's motives, thoughts, feelings, and behaviors (Gagné & Lydon, 2004; LaBuda et al., 2019). Although such inferences in intimate relationships may contain both bias and accuracy (Fletcher & Kerr, 2010), it is important to note that partners tend to rely on cues available in a daily setting as a source of interpersonal judgment. Applying this logic, we suggest that the focal employee's work-related mobile device use at home can be identified as a behavioral cue that indicates the work role's intrusion into the home domain. Then, the spouse would make use of this observation in judging how much the partner mentally switches off from work. Thus, as the employee frequently engages in mobile work, the spouse is likely to perceive the employee as being insufficiently detached from work.

People engaging in more (vs. less) mobile work likely have fewer opportunities to deepen their intimacy through shared activities, which might warrant relationship commitment in the first place. However, it is their perceptions that function as a route by which certain circumstances (e.g., external events and the behavior of others) prompt individuals to enact emotional and behavioral responses (Bargh & Chartrand, 1999). We suggest that the spouse's perception of the employee's psychological detachment helps explain the relationship between the employee's mobile work and relationship satisfaction. In other words, the focal employee's mobile work may cross over to negatively affect the spouse's relationship satisfaction through the spouse's perception of the employee's home experience. Close relationship researchers have argued that the partner perceptions of each other's state or behavior have considerable predictive utility for relationship evaluations (e.g., Finkel et al., 2017; Gagné & Lydon, 2004; Muise et al., 2016). Aligning with this idea, we anticipate that the spouse who perceives the partner as being insufficiently detached from work will feel less satisfied with their relationship. That is, when the spouse recognizes that the partner is mentally involved in work matters during conversations at home, this feeling of distraction may hinder their shared time from being meaningful. The focal employee's poor detachment in the eyes of the spouse may signal that the employee is not fully committed to the relationship, which likely erodes relational well-being. In a similar vein, research has shown that everyday interruptions in a couple's interactions due to technology use may provoke conflict and negative perceptions of the couple's relationship quality (Dwyer et al., 2018; McDaniel & Coyne, 2016; Wang et al., 2017). We therefore propose the following:

> **Hypothesis 2.** Within individuals, mobile work has a negative indirect relationship with the spouse's relationship satisfaction through a decrease in spouse perception of the employee's psychological detachment from work.

We further argue that the focal employee's state resilience is influenced not only by their own recovery experience but also by significant others. Specifically, spousal relationship satisfaction will be reintegrated into the focal employee's personal resource in the form of state resilience. As the work–home resources model posits, contextual resources that exist in the individual's social realm contribute to developing personal resources, which are "proximate to the self and include personal traits and energies" (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012, p. 548). Close relationships within the family have been positioned as a protective factor for resilience, which increases the likelihood of successful adaptation (Masten & Reed, 2002). Conversely, a decline in relational well-being likely operates as a risk factor that hampers employees' replenishment at home (Reich et al., 2010). In this respect, a decrease in the spouse's relationship satisfaction can pose a threat to the employee's resource acquisition. When the spouse feels less satisfied with the relationship, this negative emotional outcome may be internalized in the focal employee's psychological state (Aron et al., 2013; Gardner et al., 2002), weakening the employee's important resource reservoirs. The spouse's relationship satisfaction is therefore expected to affect the employee's state resilience, and we propose the following:

> **Hypothesis 3.** Within individuals, mobile work has a negative indirect relationship with state resilience through decreases in spouse perception of the employee's psychological detachment from work and relationship satisfaction.

2.3 | State resilience as a mediator: Home-to-work process

We propose that state resilience will serve as a central mechanism that translates daily home experiences (i.e., psychological detachment and the spouse's relationship satisfaction) into next-day work outcomes. State resilience concerns one's capability to cope with challenges and difficulties in ordinary life (Masten, 2001; Stewart et al., 1997). Employees with high state resilience are better able to adapt to change in novel situations and manage risk by implementing relevant strategies (Luthans et al., 2007; Masten & Reed, 2002). On the contrary, those with low state resilience are more likely to have difficulty in dealing with new demands and stressors in the workplace. As such, the functions of the focal employee's state resilience are not restricted to regaining equilibrium (Reich et al., 2010). Rather, state resilience resulting from recovery can act as a key conduit for the home-to-work process that transmits home resources to work outcomes. In fact, the work–home resources model identifies resilience as an example of personal resources that function as "the linking pins between the work and home domains" (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012, p. 549). Among a wide range of personal resources including time, mood, optimism, and self-efficacy (Hobfoll, 2002; ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012), state resilience is relatively distinctive, especially in that it enables sustainable resources to be restored and developed for future use at work (Avey et al., 2009; Chen & Lim, 2012). Thus, state resilience is an important personal resource that is not only highly relevant in our context of recovery but also capable of yielding a substantial influence on next-day work behavior.

Guided by the work–home resources model, we theorize that a lack of state resilience derived from reductions in psychological detachment and the spouse's relationship satisfaction may result in negative work outcomes on a daily basis. The model suggests that a gain in personal resources enables individuals to improve their home and work outcomes, whereas a loss in personal resources engenders detrimental outcomes (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). We focus on psychological withdrawal behavior as a work outcome. Psychological withdrawal behavior reflects a defensive action in the face of a reduced resource pool (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll et al., 2018), and its examples include daydreaming during work hours, chatting about nonwork matters, and shirking job responsibilities (Lehman & Simpson, 1992). Psychological withdrawal behavior has been interpreted as a coping strategy that employees use to psychologically

distance themselves from stressful encounters and return to a baseline state (Perrewé & Zellars, 1999; Scott & Barnes, 2011). Given that coping strategies are determined by people's available resources and the constraints that inhibit resource use (Latack et al., 1995; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), people with low state resilience likely have difficulty coping with daily setbacks at work and thus engage in psychological withdrawal behavior as an alternative solution for adaptive coping to reduce disequilibrium. Therefore, on days when the focal employee fails to regain state resilience while at home, he or she may implement modified coping strategies in order to strike a homeostatic balance by engaging in psychological withdrawal behavior while at work. Providing indirect support for this argument, surface acting, as a daily stressful experience, was found to bolster daily work withdrawal through negative affect (Scott & Barnes, 2011). Similarly, recent research has shown that employees experiencing emotional and physical strain tend to exhibit withdrawal behaviors as a resource-replenishing approach (Cho & Kim, 2021).

Integrating our arguments above, we expect that psychological detachment and state resilience will serially mediate the relationship between daily mobile work and next-day psychological withdrawal behavior. We also predict that the focal employee's daily mobile work will relate to next-day psychological withdrawal behavior via the spouse's perception and response and the employee's subsequent state resilience. Specifically, on days when the focal employee engages in mobile work more than usual, he or she may experience poorer psychological detachment, and the spouse may be less satisfied with the relationship because the spouse perceives the employee as being insufficiently detached from work. In turn, the employee's low psychological detachment and the spouse's low relationship satisfaction should weaken the employee's state resilience and consequently strengthen the employee's psychological withdrawal behavior the following workday.

Hypothesis 4. Within individuals, mobile work is positively and indirectly related to psychological withdrawal behavior through psychological detachment from work and state resilience.

Hypothesis 5. Within individuals, mobile work is positively and indirectly related to psychological withdrawal behavior through spouse perception of the employee's psychological detachment from work, relationship satisfaction, and employee state resilience.

3 | METHOD

3.1 | Sample and procedure

Our sample comprised 106 Korean employee-spouse dyads. Following recent diary studies (e.g., Ng & Yam, 2019; Oerlemans & Bakker, 2018), we recruited married couples in which at least one partner was employed full time in 2019 through word of mouth, online communities, and social media.[1] To be eligible to participate as a focal employee in this study, one needed to be living with a spouse and routinely use mobile devices (smartphones, tablet PCs, or laptops). A total of 138 employees and their spouses consented to participate in the study. We sent separate survey links to each partner with a unique code. To ensure confidentiality, all participants were instructed to complete the survey independently, and they were not allowed to see their partners' responses. Initially, participants completed a baseline survey, including demographic information. A week later, we collected daily data for 15 workdays (i.e., Monday through Friday for three consecutive weeks). The focal employees were instructed to complete two daily surveys (morning and afternoon surveys), and their spouses were asked to respond to one daily survey (a morning survey). All surveys were administered using an online survey platform, and the survey link was sent to participants via e-mail and mobile messages. Before the beginning of the daily surveys, all participants voluntarily chose fixed time schedules for their responses. The focal employees were asked to select two fixed time points: one for the morning survey between 6 a.m. and 11 a.m. and the other for the afternoon survey between 4 p.m. and midnight. The spouses were asked to choose one fixed time point for the morning survey between 6 a.m. and noon. The participants were informed that each survey link would expire after that time window.

We matched employee and spouse surveys across measurement occasions. We removed unmatched data and any employee-spouse paired data with missing responses through listwise deletion. Each morning, the focal employees reported the prior day's psychological detachment from work while at home; therefore, we excluded data on Mondays from the analysis to assess the employees' psychological detachment from work on workdays. The final sample consisted of 106 couples with 961 daily matched observations (out of a possible 1272), for a response rate of 76%. The focal employees in the sample were 69.8% female, had an average age of 34.3 ($SD = 5.74$), and had an average tenure in their current organization of 6 years ($SD = 5.55$). All focal employees worked full time in mixed industries, including manufacturing (26.4%), education (24.5%), public administration (13.2%), retail (9.4%), health care (6.6%), information technology (7.5%), professional services (4.7%), and finance (2.8%). The average age of the spouses was 35.4 years ($SD = 5.71$), and 88 spouses (83.0%) were employed. The couples had been married for an average of 4.8 years ($SD = 5.54$), and 58 couples (54.7%) had at least one child living in their household. Each couple was paid $30 for their participation.

3.2 | Measures from focal employees

All measures were originally written in English. The items and instructions were provided in Korean following the conventional translation-back translation procedures (Brislin, 1980). Unless otherwise noted, all responses were measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 5 = *strongly agree*).

3.2.1 | Mobile work

We measured mobile work in the morning survey with a three-item scale used in Ferguson et al. (2016). The focal employees were asked to recall and indicate the extent to which they engaged in mobile work during the prior day after work. An example item was the following: "How frequently did you use a mobile device to perform your job during family time last night?" Participants answered the items using a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*a lot*). The average coefficient alpha across days was .97.

3.2.2 | Psychological detachment from work

We measured prior day psychological detachment from work in the morning survey with the three-item scale used in Sonnentag and Bayer (2005). An example item was the following: "I forgot completely about my work while I was at home last night." The average coefficient alpha across days was .87.

3.2.3 | State resilience

State resilience was measured in the afternoon survey using a modified version of the three-item scale developed by Luthans et al. (2007) to assess daily scores. The focal employees were instructed to focus their answers on their experiences at work that day. An example item was the following: "Today, I could get through difficulty at work." The average coefficient alpha across days was .88.

3.2.4 | Psychological withdrawal behavior

To capture the focal employee's psychological withdrawal behavior, we used the 6-item scale from Woolum et al. (2017). In the afternoon survey, the focal employees were asked to rate their agreement with the given statements on a daily basis. An example item was the following: "Today at work, I put less effort into the job than I should have." The average coefficient alpha across days was .77.

3.3 | Measures from spouses

3.3.1 | Spouse perception of the employee's psychological detachment from work

To capture the spouse's daily perception of the focal employee's psychological detachment from work, we changed the referent in Sonnentag and Bayer's (2005) three-item scale from "I" to "my spouse" or "he/she." Each morning, the spouses were asked to indicate each of the given statements describing the focal employee's psychological detachment from work during the prior day after work. An example item was the following: "My spouse switched off completely while he/she was at home last night." The average coefficient alpha across days was .95.

3.3.2 | Relationship satisfaction

We assessed relationship satisfaction using the three-item scale from Reis et al. (2014). We asked the spouses to indicate their relationship satisfaction on a daily basis. An example item was the following: "I felt close and connected to my partner last night." The average coefficient alpha across days was .87.

3.4 | Control variables

At the within-individual level, we controlled for momentary negative affect throughout our model due to its possible impact on the participants' perceptions and appraisals (Gabriel et al., 2019). We measured the focal employee's momentary negative affect, both in the morning and afternoon surveys, using five items from the short form of the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (Mackinnon et al., 1999). We also assessed the spouse's momentary negative affect with the same five-item scale. All participants reported the extent to which they felt at that moment: "afraid," "upset," "nervous," "scared," and "distressed." The average coefficient alphas across days were .93 and .91 for the focal employees' morning and afternoon negative affect, respectively. The average coefficient alpha across days was .93 for the spouse's morning negative affect. We also controlled for the previous workday's working hours, state resilience, and psychological withdrawal behavior. However, including these control variables did not affect the significance or patterns of our findings; thus, we did not report them in the results of our analyses for presentational parsimony.

3.5 | Analytic strategy

Considering the nested data structure (i.e., days nested within individuals), we conducted a multilevel path analysis with Mplus 8.4 to test all hypotheses simultaneously. We also tested the mediation hypotheses using Monte Carlo simulation procedures in the open-source software R (available at http://www.quantpsy.org). This approach is effective in accounting for the nonnormal sampling distribution of the indirect effect (Preacher et al., 2010). All of the predictors were person-mean centered (i.e., group-mean centered) to remove between-individual variance in estimating the hypothesized relationships in our model (Enders & Tofighi, 2007). We covaried the residuals of the focal employee's psychological detachment from work and spouse perception of the employee's psychological detachment from work.

4 | RESULTS

Before testing the hypotheses, it was necessary to examine whether there was substantial variance in the study variables at the within-individual level. We first partitioned the amount of within- and between-individual variance in our study variables. Indeed, a substantial portion of the variance existed at the within-individual level for mobile work (58%), psychological detachment from work (58%), spouse perception of the employee's psychological detachment from work (48%), relationship satisfaction (41%), state resilience (51%), and psychological withdrawal behavior (35%), thereby supporting our multilevel modeling approach.

Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics and correlations among the focal variables. Within-individual correlations are reported below the diagonal, and between-individual correlations are reported above the diagonal. Coefficient alphas are reported on the diagonal. Next, we conducted a multilevel confirmatory factor analysis to assess the proposed six-factor structure of the study variables (i.e., mobile work, psychological detachment from work, spouse perception of the employee's psychological detachment from work, relationship satisfaction, state resilience, and psychological withdrawal behavior). The model fit was evaluated based on the comparative fit index (CFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR). The proposed six-factor model showed a reasonable fit to the data ($x^2_{(351)} = 768.54$, CFI = .95, RMSEA = .04, SRMR = .04). We compared this model to three alternative models: (1) a model where items of the focal employee's psychological detachment and spouse perception of the employee's psychological detachment loaded on a single factor and the remaining items loaded on their respective constructs, (2) a model where items of the intervening variables (the employee's psychological detachment and state resilience) loaded on a single factor and the remaining items loaded on their respective constructs, and (3) a model where home and work outcomes (relationship satisfaction and psychological withdrawal behavior) loaded on a single factor and the remaining items loaded on their respective constructs. The results indicated that our proposed model fit the data significantly better than these alternative models (Satorra–Bentler $\Delta x^2_{(10)} = 1036.37$, $p < .01$, Satorra–Bentler $\Delta x^2_{(10)} = 1639.89$, $p < .01$, and Satorra–Bentler $\Delta x^2_{(10)} = 989.27$, $p < .01$, for the comparison with each of the alternative models, respectively). Taken together, these results support the discriminant validity of our focal constructs.

4.1 | Test of hypotheses

The results of the path analysis testing the hypotheses are presented in Figure 2. To calculate the effect sizes for predicting the outcomes, we computed the *pseudo-R^2* at the within-individual level (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). The predictors included in the model accounted for the within-individual variance, with 9% in relationship satisfaction, 15% in state resilience, and 11% in psychological withdrawal behavior. Hypothesis 1 predicted that the focal employee's mobile work would have a negative indirect relationship with state resilience through psychological detachment from work. Mobile work was significantly and negatively associated with psychological detachment from work ($\gamma = -.70$, $SE = .08$, $p < .01$), and psychological detachment was significantly associated with state resilience ($\gamma = .07$, $SE = .03$, $p < .05$). To more appropriately test the mediating role of psychological detachment from work in the relationship between mobile work and state resilience, we estimated the indirect effect via a Monte Carlo simulation with 20,000 replications to obtain a 95% confidence interval (CI) around the indirect effect. As reported in Table 2, the 95% CI for the negative indirect effect did not contain zero (indirect effect = −.050, 95% CI [−.087, −.010]). Thus, Hypothesis 1 was supported.

Hypothesis 2 proposed a negative indirect relationship between the focal employee's mobile work and the spouse's relationship

TABLE 1 Correlations and descriptive statistics

Variables	*M*	SD_w	SD_b	Correlations 1	2	3	4	5	6
Focal employee response									
1. Mobile work	1.39	.73	.53	(.97)	−.69**	−.36**	.04	−.31**	−.20*
2. Psychological detachment from work	3.65	1.13	.82	−.57**	(.87)	.46**	−.24*	.32**	.14
3. State resilience	3.93	.74	.55	−.15**	.29**	(.88)	−.55**	.17	.20*
4. Psychological withdrawal behavior	2.59	.74	.62	.02	−.14**	−.44**	(.77)	.02	−.05
Spouse response									
5. Spouse perception of the employee's psychological detachment from work	3.76	1.24	.94	−.20**	.22**	.10**	.03	(.95)	.26**
6. Relationship satisfaction	3.86	.90	.74	−.15**	.11**	.13**	−.05	.21**	(.87)

Note: Level 1 $N = 961$ (within-individual level); Level 2 $N = 106$ (between-individual level). Within-individual level and between-individual level correlations are below and above the diagonal, respectively. Coefficient alphas are shown in parentheses along the diagonal. SD_w and *SD*b refer to the *SD*s for within-individual level and between-individual level data, respectively.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

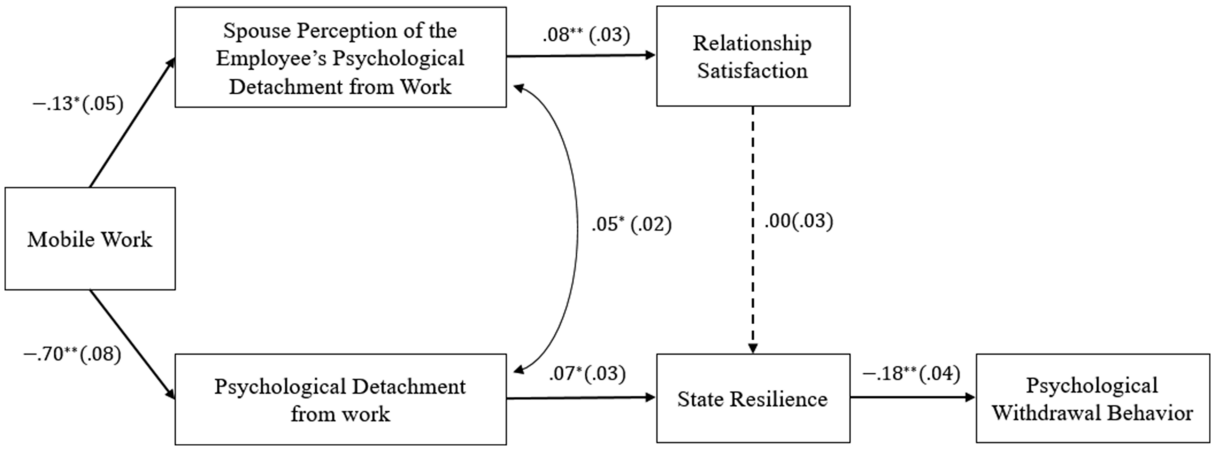

FIGURE 2 Within-individual model results with unstandardized coefficient estimates and standard errors in parentheses. *Note*. Solid lines indicate significant paths, whereas dashed lines indicate nonsignificant paths. A double-headed arrow represents a residual covariance for psychological detachment from work and spouse perception of the employee's psychological detachment from work. The control variables (the employee's and the spouse's morning negative affect, the employee's afternoon negative affect, and the previous workday's working hours, state resilience, and psychological withdrawal behavior) are not displayed. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

TABLE 2 Indirect effects for hypothesis testing

Path	Estimate	95% CI	
		Low	High
Mobile work → psychological detachment from work → state resilience	−.050*	−.087	−.010
Mobile work → spouse perception of the employee's psychological detachment from work → relationship satisfaction	−.011*	−.024	−.002
Psychological detachment from work → state resilience → psychological withdrawal behavior	−.013*	−.023	−.003
Mobile work → psychological detachment from work → state resilience → psychological withdrawal behavior	.009*	.002	.016

Note: Confidence intervals (CIs) were calculated using the Monte Carlo method.
*$p < .05$.

satisfaction through spouse perception of the employee's psychological detachment from work. Mobile work was significantly associated with spouse perception of the employee's psychological detachment from work ($\gamma = -.13$, $SE = .05$, $p < .05$), and spouse perception of the employee's psychological detachment was significantly associated with the spouse's relationship satisfaction ($\gamma = .08$, $SE = .03$, $p < .01$). The indirect effect of mobile work on the spouse's relationship satisfaction was significant and negative (indirect effect = −.011, 95% CI [−.024, −.002]), thereby supporting Hypothesis 2. Hypothesis 3 predicted that the employee's mobile work would have a negative indirect relation with state resilience through spouse perception of the employee's psychological detachment and the spouse's relationship satisfaction. Hypothesis 3 was not supported, as the spouse's relationship satisfaction was not significantly related to the employee's state resilience ($\gamma = .00$, $SE = .03$, *ns*).

Hypothesis 4 predicted that mobile work would have a positive indirect relation with psychological withdrawal behavior through psychological detachment and state resilience. In support of Hypothesis 4, results showed that state resilience was significantly related to psychological withdrawal behavior ($\gamma = -.18$, $SE = .04$, $p < .01$), and the serial mediation was positive and significant (indirect effect = .009, 95% CI [.002, .016]). Hypothesis 5 predicted that mobile work would have a positive indirect relation with psychological withdrawal behavior through spouse perception of the employee's psychological detachment from work, relationship satisfaction, and the employee's state resilience. Hypothesis 5 was not supported, however, as the spouse's relationship satisfaction was not significantly related to the employee's state resilience ($\gamma = .00$, $SE = .03$, *ns*).

5 | DISCUSSION

In this research, we aimed to uncover the within-individual process underpinning the relationship between employees' mobile work and

their home and work outcomes. Integrating the effort-recovery model and the work–home resources model, this study delineates the specific processes through which daily mobile work translates into next-day psychological withdrawal behavior. From a recovery perspective, we found support for the negative relationship between mobile work and state resilience via decreased psychological detachment from work. In light of the work-to-home process, we found that the focal employee's daily mobile work was negatively related to the spouse's relationship satisfaction through spouse perception of the employee's psychological detachment from work. In light of the home-to-work process, we found a positive indirect relationship between daily mobile work and next-day psychological withdrawal behavior through psychological detachment and state resilience.

However, the spouse's relationship satisfaction did not relate to the focal employee's state resilience on a daily basis. One explanation for this is that the integration of the spouse's relationship satisfaction into the employee's state resilience does not manifest immediately within a short timeframe (i.e., day-level). Instead, it may be the case that this crossover process requires longer timeframes (e.g., weeks, months, and years). Previous research has revealed the indirect effect of partner "phubbing" (i.e., distraction by phone use during shared time together) on depression via relationship satisfaction only among those couples in long-term marriages (Wang et al., 2017). Additionally, daily mobile work inherently implies that the focal employee may spend less time around the spouse on specific days, and the employee may thus become less influenced by the relationship quality that the spouse experiences. In a similar vein, Bakker and Xanthopoulou (2009) identified the crossover effect of daily work engagement within coworker dyads only when they communicated more frequently than usual.

5.1 | Theoretical implications

Our work has multiple implications for theory. First, we advance the mobile work literature by investigating the underlying process through which mobile work relates to home and work outcomes on a daily basis. While past research has focused chiefly on the individual well-being outcomes of mobile work, our study elucidates how mobile work may impact recovery and home outcomes, and ultimately increase undesirable work outcomes. Combining insights from the effort-recovery model (Meijman & Mulder, 1998) and the work–home resources model (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012), our research helps explain how the focal employee's mobile work on a given day is associated with next-day psychological withdrawal behavior. In the home-to-work process prompted by daily mobile work, we focused on the role of state resilience built through the employee's successful recovery while at home. In doing so, this study also extends the recovery literature by highlighting state resilience as a desired outcome of recovery and adds to the work–home resources model by identifying it as a critical personal resource linking home resources and work outcomes.

Second, we contribute to the resilience literature by exploring daily adverse experiences in the home domain that threaten employees' state resilience. Prior work has had a limited view, assuming that significant losses or traumatic experiences are prerequisites to resilience (Fisher et al., 2019; Reich et al., 2010; Vanhove et al., 2016). Our findings indicate that daily work interruptions in employee home life pose substantial challenges to state resilience through impaired recovery. Given the emerging perspective that individuals should develop resilience to cope with different types of challenges in times of uncertainty and turmoil (Kossek & Perrigino, 2016), this finding pinpoints the need to take a more holistic view of resilience by addressing broader contextual influences, including mundane stressors occurring during the day. Furthermore, we unraveled the intra-individual fluctuations in state resilience and its mediating mechanism in bridging the work and home domains, which have typically been neglected in previous between-individual studies (Fisher et al., 2019).

Third, our work sheds light on the spousal role in the focal employee's daily work-to-home process. To date, many studies have treated work–home interfaces, especially for couples, as static phenomena that vary from individual to individual (Allen et al., 2014; Lin et al., 2020). Whereas a static perspective focuses on individual characteristics such as parental status and spousal employment (e.g., Dumas & Stanko, 2017; Ferguson et al., 2016), the within-individual approach of this study enables us to examine daily mobile work and its downstream effects on couples' home experiences. Using a multisource ESM, we demonstrate that on days when the focal employee frequently engages in mobile work, the spouse may perceive the employee's psychological detachment from work as low, which eventually deteriorates daily relationship satisfaction. Rather than capturing the spouse's general attitudes toward the focal employee's work, which might confound other issues related to the employee's working conditions (e.g., payment, a supervisor) (Carlson et al., 2018; Ferguson et al., 2015, 2016), our research speaks to how the spouse responds to the employee's mobile work and how the spouse experiences different levels of relational well-being from 1 day to another. By doing so, we provide a more accurate and in-depth understanding of how the two distinct but interdependent agents in the home domain (i.e., the focal employee and the spouse) shape the daily contours of work–family experiences derived from the employee's mobile work.

Finally, by considering psychological withdrawal behavior as an outcome variable, we respond to calls in the recovery literature to go beyond well-being outcomes and explore workplace behaviors (Sonnentag et al., 2017). As noted earlier, past research has tended to focus on employees' well-being as a result of recovery, such as psychological and physiological well-being, life satisfaction, and positive affect (Ganster & Rosen, 2013; Sonnentag et al., 2010; Steed et al., 2019). However, scholars have paid less attention to whether and how workplace behaviors are influenced by successful or unsuccessful recovery during nonwork hours (Chawla et al., 2020; Sonnentag et al., 2017). Our findings show that the focal employee's

low psychological detachment from work and ensuing low state resilience may translate into greater psychological withdrawal behavior the next day. This result implies that unless employees disconnect from work while at home, they may end up attempting to replenish their resource reserves by mentally disconnecting from work while at work. Future research may continue to explore whether a lack of state resilience is associated with additional sets of work behaviors, such as unethical conduct.

5.2 | Limitations and future directions

First, there are threats of common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2012) and reverse causality because the participants in our study simultaneously reported some of the focal variables: mobile work and detachment, resilience and psychological withdrawal behavior, and spousal responses. For instance, the spouse who feels higher relationship satisfaction might perceive the employee's psychological detachment as more sufficient because happier couples could have positive biases based on relational judgments (Fletcher & Kerr, 2010). It is also possible that individuals in unhappy relationships use mobile devices at home more frequently to seek relief (Halpern & Katz, 2017). To alleviate concerns about common method bias, we followed several strategies utilized in ESM studies (Gabriel et al., 2019). We collected data from different sources (i.e., the focal employee and the spouse) and separated morning and afternoon surveys. We also person-mean centered our within-individual predictors to eliminate between-individual variance. In addition, we controlled for prior day influences and the respondent's momentary negative affect in our model. Despite these efforts, our approach is not free from threats to making causal inferences, especially in testing the proposed serial mediation model from mobile work to psychological withdrawal behavior. We encourage future researchers to use more objective measures (e.g., the amount of time for mobile work) and separately assess each variable to further establish the causal order.

Second, we measured mobile work and psychological detachment in the focal employees' morning surveys after the experiences happened. Although scholars studying work interruptions such as mobile work suggest that "the act of capturing the subjective experience of participants can itself become an interruption" (Puranik et al., 2020, p. 13), the ex-post evaluations of home experiences are vulnerable to recall bias. Congruent with prior studies (e.g., Lanaj et al., 2014; Spieler et al., 2017), we took care to design the time window of the morning surveys that expired before lunchtime to reduce possible retrospective biases. Moreover, in the spouses' morning surveys, we asked the spouses to answer how they perceived the previous day's detachment for the focal employees. Research suggests that the risk of recall bias could be minimized in the responses pertaining to others (vs. the self) (Hill & Betz, 2005; Oltmanns et al., 2020). Nevertheless, we encourage future studies to mitigate possible biases by measuring the variables when the very phenomena to be assessed take place (Scollon et al., 2009).

Third, we sampled respondents from various job industries. Employee resilience and work–family experiences can be influenced by occupational contexts (Kossek & Perrigino, 2016; Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2006). Indeed, the evidence demonstrates that the association between work demands and the need for recovery depends on the working conditions (Van der Hulst et al., 2006). Future researchers could re-examine our models by sampling specific occupations to minimize issues that may arise due to different work requirements. For example, accountants have a challenge related to their unique working cycle based on the year-end close, which may affect occupational resilience (Kossek & Perrigino, 2016). Also, service workers may perceive technology use as gaining control over their work, while knowledge workers may deem such technology use as a threat to their self-control (Ticona, 2015). Thus, we should take a closer look at how our findings unfold across occupations. Future research could also reflect new work trends, such as the gig economy, addressing a recent call for studies to explore gig workers' work–family boundary management (Ollier-Malaterre et al., 2019).

Fourth, our work was limited to married couples residing in South Korea. South Korea has the third longest working hours among OECD countries (OECD, 2019). Assuming that different national or cultural backgrounds likely impact individuals' work–home interface (Allen et al., 2019), the work culture of South Korea might influence how an individual manages, interprets, and responds to the mobile work of his or her own and partner. For example, the downsides of mobile work may be underestimated among South Korean couples because they might be relatively insensitive to overtime work. Also, our sample was constrained to a narrow range of couples in heterosexual marriages, although the conceptual model that we proposed does not need to be restricted to married couples in its applicability. As heterosexual marriage is most prevalent type of relationship among couples in South Korea, our sample did not include cohabitation or same-sex relationships, which have become more widely accepted in Western countries (Sassler & Lichter, 2020). Future research could supplement our findings by incorporating various national or cultural contexts.

Fifth, our effect sizes, especially the strength of the serial mediation effect of daily mobile work on next-day psychological withdrawal behavior, are relatively small. This is not uncommon in organizational studies based on ESM, most of which largely focus on examining day-to-day, within-individual variations (e.g., Koopman et al., 2020; Lanaj & Jennings, 2020; Lin et al., 2020; Sheridan & Ambrose, 2020). In addition, the mean value for mobile work and the variances or standard deviations for mobile work, state resilience, and psychological withdrawal behavior in this study are somewhat low, which may also have contributed to the small indirect effects that we reported. Nonetheless, small effect sizes are still important theoretically and practically (Abelson, 1985; Prentice & Miller, 1992), inasmuch as mobile work has a significant influence on the focal employees' and the spouses' outcomes. We invite future researchers to replicate and extend our findings to enhance the robustness of our model.

Lastly, there may be unspecified factors in our model that exercise significant confounding effects in the work–home processes

linking mobile work and psychological withdrawal behavior. Candidates include the demands (e.g., workload) and resources (e.g., coworker support) of the employees, both at work and at home, for their potential to facilitate or impede resource accumulation across domains (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). Our work is also limited in that we only examined the within-individual process, without considering the role of cross-level moderator variables. A potentially critical variable at the individual level is job status. Research suggests that the availability of technology control is dependent on the amount of power and status that workers have (Nippert-Eng, 2010). Also, job status differences between husbands and wives may affect their relationship quality (Byrne & Barling, 2017). Future studies could include additional demands/resources and individual differences to deepen our understanding of employees' mobile work and work–home experiences.

5.3 | Practical implications

From a managerial perspective, organizations need to be aware that employees' prolonged work through mobile devices may lead to undesirable work outcomes the following workday. Specifically, our findings imply that the key to preventing employees from psychologically withdrawing from work is to enable them to withdraw from work while at home. Managers might endeavor to exercise caution when permitting or even encouraging employees to take work home during off-duty hours. Also, because an employee alone cannot break the cycle of constant work connection, it is vital to create an organizational culture that gives employees control over work interruptions. For instance, organizations could benefit from establishing so-called "predictable time off" or "no-technology days" (Perlow, 2012) to leverage the advantages of technology intelligently. Furthermore, to the extent that the COVID-19 pandemic has recently eroded the spatial boundaries between the work and home domains (Malhotra, 2021), organizations may attend to the growing challenges of separating work and family roles.

Our findings also have practical implications for employee recovery. Policymakers could develop training programs aimed at fostering successful recovery from work. Organizations may seek out ways to improve employee resilience, given its critical role as a pool of sustainable resources preserved for future efforts. Our findings reveal that the potential setbacks to retaining state resilience include insufficient psychological detachment from work within the home domain. This is consistent with a broader view of resilience, emphasizing the notion that seemingly minor stressors may threaten state resilience substantially on a daily basis (Fisher et al., 2019; Kossek & Perrigino, 2016). We recommend that organizations devise a more comprehensive plan to cultivate employee resilience across work and home domains. In sum, our research implies that organizations need to be keenly aware of the possible downsides of daily mobile work. It would be worthwhile for both employees and managers to understand the underlying processes of daily mobile work in order to mitigate its deleterious outcomes, both at home and work.

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DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

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ENDNOTE

[1] We collected our data in 2019 before the COVID-19 pandemic.

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