5-2023

BURNING OUT OF TIME: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FUTURE TIME PERSPECTIVE, WORKAHOLISM, PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL, EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, AND BURNOUT

Hira Ikram
California State University - San Bernardino

BURNING OUT OF TIME: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FUTURE TIME PERSPECTIVE, WORKAHOLISM, PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL, EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, AND BURNOUT

A Thesis

Presented to the

Faculty of

California State University,

San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Science

in

Industrial/Organizational Psychology

---

by

Hira Ikram

May 2023

BURNING OUT OF TIME: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FUTURE TIME PERSPECTIVE, WORKAHOLISM, PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL, EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, AND BURNOUT

A Thesis

Presented to the

Faculty of

California State University,

San Bernardino

---

by

Hira Ikram

May 2023

Approved by:

Ismael Diaz, Committee Chair, Psychology

Kenneth Shultz, Committee Member

Janet Kottke, Committee Member

ABSTRACT

Time perspective refers to an individual's perception of the passage of and remaining time in their life. The way individuals view their past, present, and future influences their behaviors and actions. Future time perspective (FTP) is one's perception of time they have left in life. A short FTP refers to the perception that there is little time remaining in life, while a long FTP refers to the perception of a lot of time remaining in life. The current literature has found that unbalanced time perspective can lead to negative consequences, such as burnout and workaholism. Additionally, factors such as psychological capital and emotional intelligence can reduce these negative effects when an unbalanced time perspective exists. The present study aimed to investigate how FTP influences workaholism behaviors and burnout symptoms, and how psychological capital and emotional intelligence moderate the relationship between FTP and burnout. The sample consisted of 286 individuals who were at least 18 years old. SPSS 28 and Hayes' PROCESS Command were used to determine descriptives, correlations, and mediation and moderation effects. Results indicated that FTP and workaholism predict burnout, and that psychological capital mediates the relationship between FTP and burnout. However, neither workaholism nor emotional intelligence mediated the relationship between FTP and burnout. Additionally, psychological capital and emotional intelligence did not moderate the relationship between FTP and burnout. Implications, limitations, and directions for future research are discussed.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Burnout has been a topic of increasing concern among organizational scholars, especially following the COVID-19 pandemic. In early 2020, most of the concern around burnout was centered around healthcare professionals, but throughout the pandemic, it has expanded to all areas of work. In the midst of trying to contain a global emergency, much of the workforce was asked to work from home. This was a monumental shift for the American workforce, as only 16% of the workforce worked remotely in 2018 (Rudolph et al., 2021). This sudden change led many to realize that their jobs could easily be completed without the addition of stressors that had been normalized since the industrial revolution, such as commuting. Employees working from home report better outcomes than their in-office counterparts, with high levels of job satisfaction, performance, and lower levels of turnover intention and stress (Rudolph et al., 2021). The pandemic was devastating, but it did bring a much needed change to the workplace. Employees have learned the importance of taking care of themselves and have started to demand that their organizations do the same. Creating a focus on burnout for industrial/organizational psychologists and human resources professionals as they learned to deal with a rapidly changing workforce, work environments, and employees.

The pandemic highlighted the external contributors to burnout in employees, there are still internal factors to consider. One factor is workaholism, as working long and strenuous hours leads to the depletion of personal resources, which in the long term results in burnout (Cheung et al., 2018). One predictor of an individual engaging in workaholic behaviors is their time perspective, more specifically their future time perspective. An individual who believes they have a lot of time remaining in their life may be more achievement oriented, which can ultimately lead to workaholism and neglect in other areas of their life (Kooij et al., 2018). Workaholism leads to positive outcomes professionally in the short term (Ng et al., 2007), individuals engaging in workaholism are sacrificing their health and well-being to do so, resulting in burnout.

Fortunately, individuals are complex, and their time perspective is not the only factor contributing to their behavior. Factors such as psychological capital and emotional intelligence can buffer against burnout. An individual who is heavily focused on their future but has high psychological capital will understand that while it is important to work hard, it is important to not sacrifice their psychological health to do so (Hur et al., 2016). Likewise, an individual with high emotional intelligence will be able to develop stronger boundaries between work goals, as they are better equipped to adapt and regulate their thoughts and actions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Burnout

Burnout is the emotional and physical exhaustion felt by an individual after dealing with chronic workplace stress. When an individual does not or is unable to properly address and manage their workplace stressors they become burnt out (Bianchi et al., 2015; Cheung et al., 2018). Burnout develops in the three dimensions of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and a diminished sense of personal accomplishment (Maslach, 1982). Emotional exhaustion is conceptualized as the loss of energy and feelings of fatigue or being depleted. Depersonalization refers to feelings of cynicism, detachment from work, and no longer feeling like oneself. A diminished sense of personal accomplishment captures the feeling of ineffectiveness as well as lower productivity (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). Many previous studies only focus on the first dimension of burnout, emotional exhaustion, as it usually has stronger correlations to variables of interest in comparison to the other two dimensions (Koeske & Koeske 1989; Maslach 1993). Additionally, burnout has been found to predict negative physical consequences such as alcoholism, sleep disorders, and obesity (Salvagioni et al., 2017). Given the negative consequences burnout has, prevention is essential. The first step in prevention is understanding and controlling the predictors.

Resource Depletion

One predictor of burnout is resource depletion, which is when personal resources are exhausted faster than they can be replaced. Considering the three

dimensions of burnout, emotional exhaustion develops first as a response to an excessive amount of job demands that outnumber the number of resources one has to fulfill them, overloading an individual. Job demands refer to the physical and emotional stressors of a job, and the resources are the physical, social, and organizational factors that are used to fulfill those demands (Hur et al., 2016). There are two models that explain this concept, the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model and the Conservation of Resources (COR) model (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). The JD-R model explains that burnout occurs when an individual is given too many jobs demands and does not have enough resources to reduce them, while the COR model explains that burnout occurs when an individual loses their resources or even perceives a threat to their resources (Maslach & Leiter, 2016).

The COR model consists of four principles: the primacy of loss principle, resource investment principle, gain paradox principle, and desperation principle (Hobfoll, 1989). The primacy of loss principle states that losing resources is more impactful than gaining resources. The resource investment principle states that individuals must invest resources to recover from loss and to gain resources. The gain paradox principle states that when it is likely resources will be lost, gaining resources becomes more important. Finally, the desperation principle explains that when an individual's resources are exhausted, they enter a defensive mode to preserve the self (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Following these principles, when an individual is constantly consuming resources and unable to replenish them, they

will experience burnout (Otto et al., 2021). It is important to understand and consider the conservation of resources model when examining burnout, as it helps us to understand how individuals got to the point of being burnt out. Resource depletion occurs due to excessive job demands, workaholism is important to consider as working incessantly depletes one's resources while giving little to no opportunities to replenish them.

Workaholism

Workaholism was first defined as a compulsion or uncontrollable need to work incessantly (Oates, 1971). Scott and colleagues completed a meta-analysis on workaholism in 1997 and found three main elements that capture the personal variables that contribute to workaholism. The first element is discretionary time spent on work activities, which refers to when an individual spends a great deal of time on work when given the discretion to do so, and therefore neglects social and recreational activities. The second element, thinking about work when not at work, refers to the constantly looming thoughts of work even when one is not working. The third element is working beyond organizational or economic requirements, which is when one works beyond job requirements or economic needs (Scott et al., 1997). These personal variables lead to workaholic behaviors, workaholism develops in three phases. The first phase begins with one taking on more work than they can handle, resulting in constantly being busy. Next, the now constantly busy individual begins distancing themselves from personal relationships and experiences as their work consumes the majority

of their time and energy. The third phase consists of the individual facing physical, emotional, and other negative consequences due to their over-commitment to work (Sussman, 2012).

Workaholism measures usually examine constructs such as attitudes, behaviors, compulsion, obsession, and addiction. Most measures are multidimensional (Andreassen et al., 2016). Some individuals are more prone to workaholism than others, and there are three types of antecedents to consider when predicting the manifestation of workaholism. First, there are dispositional factors, which are the characteristics of an individual that influence their behavior and actions. Self-esteem, which is the extent one likes and values themselves, is a predictor of workaholism. Individuals with low self-esteem tend to engage in addictive behaviors as it helps in numbing and avoiding their pain from their self-evaluations. Since workaholism is a form of addiction, an individual with low self-esteem is likely to become a workaholic (Ng et al., 2007). Socio-cultural factors are another antecedent of workaholism. Individuals who have experienced childhood trauma are more likely to engage in addictive behaviors, including workaholism. In addition, workaholism can be the product of vicarious learning at home or work, so one may begin taking on workaholic traits after watching someone at home, or a supervisor at work display those traits. Behavioral reinforcements serve as another antecedent. In most careers, workaholic behaviors will be rewarded, which encourages the individual to continue

engaging in those behaviors. In addition, when one's achievements are acknowledged it helps build their self-efficacy (Ng et al., 2007).

Once workaholism has developed, there are three dimensions; affective, cognitive, and behavioral (Ng et al., 2007). The affective dimension refers to the positive affect an individual experiences while working as well as the decline in emotions when not working. The cognitive dimension refers to the compulsion and obsession an individual feels when it comes to working, which makes it hard for them to stop working. Lastly, the behavioral dimension includes behaviors such as working long hours and the excessive intrusion of work in one's personal life. The negative consequences of workaholism are seen more in the long term rather than the short term. In the short term, individuals may receive praise and other desirable outcomes at work for their extensive efforts and time, which is why workaholism is positively related to job satisfaction (Ng et al., 2007). However, while building themselves at work, individuals dealing with workaholism neglect other areas of their life, such as their mental and physical health and social relationships.

Workaholism and Burnout. Many previous studies have found that workaholism is positively related to burnout (Clark et al., 2016). This relationship makes sense as workaholics tend to work longer hours than their coworkers, giving them little time to invest time in themselves and replenish lost personal resources (Cheung et al., 2018). Additionally, just like any other type of addiction, workaholics struggle to truly separate themselves from work when they're away.

They are constantly thinking and worrying about work, which further contributes to the likelihood of becoming burnt out (Bakker et al., 2013). With thoughts of work looming over one's head, personal resources are not replenished adequately. Given the prior evidence of a positive relationship between workaholism and burnout, I predict that a similar relationship will emerge in the present study. Individuals with high workaholism will have high burnout as well.

Hypothesis 1: *Workaholism will positively relate to burnout. High workaholism will relate to high burnout.*

Future Time Perspective

Time perspective may serve as another predictor of workaholism. The way an individual perceives the passage of time in their life impacts their cognitive processes and actions, especially in investing resources and time into their career. Time perspective refers to an individual's view of their psychological future and psychological past, existing at a given time (Lewin, 1951, p.75). Time perspective theory explains that the view an individual has of their past, present, and future influences their emotions, perceptions, and actions (Stolarski et al., 2011). The sectioning of personal experiences into time categories is a robust response that becomes part of an individual's personality. Having negative or positive views of certain periods in life impacts the way one feels and acts throughout their life. Individuals need to maintain a balanced time perspective, by having an ideal interlocking of one's psychological past, present, and future; as this allows for adaptive functioning and increased well-being (Boniwell &

Zimbardo, 2004; Kim et al., 2020). Individuals with an unbalanced time perspective focus too much on one dimension of time perspective, which ultimately leads to negative life outcomes. Zimbardo and Boyd (1999) distinguished five dimensions of time perspective, two dimensions for the past, two for the present, and one for the future. Past-Positive refers to a nostalgic, sentimental, positive attitude towards one's past. Past-Negative is a negative, pessimistic attitude towards the past. Present-Hedonistic refers to an impulsive, risk-taking, pleasure-orientated attitude towards life, focused on maximizing present enjoyment with little regard to future consequences. Present-Fatalistic refers to a fatalistic, hopeless, and helpless attitude towards present and future life. The last dimension, Future, refers to a general future orientation, dominated by behaviors that strive for goals and rewards in the future (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999). To add to Zimbardo and Boyd's research, Carstensen defined future time perspective (FTP) as an individual's perception of their future as being time-limited, or their perception of time remaining in their life (Carstensen, 2006). Short FTP refers to a short time span, while long FTP refers to an expansive time span in regarding the future. Additionally, the construct of occupational future time perspective has been developed as well and is considered future time perspective in the context of work and aims to measure workers' perceptions of remaining time and opportunities in their career (Zacher & Frese, 2009). These individual perceptions are important to measure, as they help predict attitudes and behaviors.

Motivational research has referred to future time perspective as an individual's present anticipation of future goals. Individuals with a short FTP are more likely to set goals for the near future, while individuals with a long FTP are more inclined to set goals in the distant future (Simons et al., 2004). A few factors influence differences in FTP orientation, two of which are age and socioeconomic status. As one ages, the time remaining in life decreases, as a result, FTP shortens. Younger individuals tend to be more hopeful, and therefore more ambitious in their goal-setting than older individuals, which is why young people are more likely to hold a long FTP (Ho & Yeung, 2016). Additionally, as one ages, the psychological distance they experience between anticipated goals and accomplishments decreases, due to the increase in life experience.

Socioeconomic status impacts one's FTP orientation as well, mainly because having more control over one's life allows for a more expansive view of the future. Individuals of middle to high socioeconomic status have most, if not all of their basic needs met, and can invest their energy into building their careers and passions, as they have the resources to feel in control of their life, which in turn nurtures long FTP. Meanwhile, individuals of low socioeconomic status often experience lower control of their lives and are unable to invest in their goals and passions as they are occupied trying to meet their basic needs. Their time perspective tends to be focused on the present, resulting in more psychological distance from the future (Schmidt, 1978). Therefore, individuals of low socioeconomic status tend to hold a short FTP.

Workaholism and Future Time Perspective. Individuals with a long FTP are often achievement orientated and are heavily focused on future goals and accomplishments (Kooij et al., 2018). This obsession with the future leads to more psychological distance from the present, resulting in personal neglect. As the future is valued more than the present, gratification is delayed, with this delay of gratification, individuals are more likely to endure negative consequences as long as they feel they are contributing to their future success (Kim et al., 2020; Seijts, 1998). Some of the negative consequences of neglecting the present are less investment in personal indulgences and less engagement in civil and social settings (Boniwell & Zimbardo, 2004). Investing less time in oneself and neglecting social and civil interactions prevents the replenishment of personal resources, tying back to the Conservation of Resources Theory. Over time, the constant failure to replenish resources will result in the depletion of resources, eventually leading to negative outcomes such as burnout. Previous research explains that workaholism does lead to positive outcomes such as salary increases and promotions (Ng et al., 2007); these outcomes are at the expense of the exhaustion of human capital. Given the previous research, I predict that future time perspective will predict workaholism. Individuals with a long future time perspective will be more likely to engage in workaholic behaviors.

Hypothesis 2: *Future time perspective will positively relate to workaholism. Long future time perspective will relate to high workaholism.*

Burnout and Future Time Perspective. When an individual places an excessive emphasis on any time perspective orientation, such as focusing too much on the past or future, it leads to an unbalanced time perspective (Boniwell & Zimbardo, 2004). This imbalance leads to negative outcomes, such as lower well-being. Specifically, when an individual is heavily future orientated, they neglect their past and present. This over-emphasis on the future may lead to obsession over achievement, resulting in workaholism and the neglect of personal interests and socialization. Previous studies have found that engaging in workaholism leads to burnout, as individuals experiencing workaholism continue to invest resources into their work, without taking time to replenish them (Cheung et al., 2018; Clark et al., 2016). According to the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory, when personal resources are not replenished, negative outcomes such as burnout occur.

To prevent negative outcomes such as burnout, it is important to maintain a balanced time perspective. Balanced time perspective has been found to predict lower levels of burnout, while deviations from a balanced time perspective predict burnout (Akirmak & Ayla, 2021). Additionally, balanced time perspective has been linked with subjective well-being, and positive life experiences may spill into one's work, leading to more positive outcomes at work, such as high job satisfaction and low burnout (Akirmak & Ayla, 2021). When an individual is not overly obsessing over one time orientation, they can to value all areas of their life and realize the value of replenishing their personal resources. Given the previous

research, I predict that time perspective will relate to burnout. Individuals with an unbalanced time perspective, specifically a long future time perspective, will experience more burnout in comparison to individuals with a balanced time perspective.

Hypothesis 3: *Future time perspective will positively relate to burnout. Long future time perspective will relate to high burnout.*

Psychological Capital

Psychological capital refers to the internal resources of an individual that aid in the management of stressful situations (Luthans & Youssef, 2007). The four main resources that make up psychological capital are self-efficacy, optimism, hope, and resilience. Self-efficacy is characterized as an individual's perception of their capacity to perform to reach a specific goal or level. An individual with high self-efficacy will be willing to work on challenging tasks, as they are confident in their ability. Optimism refers to one's confidence and hopefulness towards success in the present and future. An optimistic individual will look forward to the future, as they expect success. Hope refers to an individual's expectation and trust of a goal being completed. A hopeful individual will be persistent in their goal pursuits, even if it means realigning and restructuring goals as necessary. Lastly, resilience is the ability to recover from problems or setbacks, with minimal discouragement or loss of motivation. A resilient individual will be persistent in their work and goal pursuit, despite any problems that arise. All of these internal resources enable better coping, positive

perspectives, proactivity, growth, and development in the workplace (Hur et al., 2016). As psychological capital results in better work outcomes, workplaces should strive to help employees build their internal resources.

Support in the workplace can aid in the development of an individual's psychological capital. Work environments that demonstrate that they value their employees through the investment of well-being and development programs have higher levels of psychological capital in their employees (Newman et al., 2014). On the contrary, stressful workplaces lead to lower levels of psychological capital in employees, which makes sense given the job demands-resource model. As a stressful workplace will tend to result in many job-demands, individuals are likely to experience depletion of their personal resources, without being able to replenish them, which will lead to negative outcomes such as burnout. The Conservation of Resources (COR) theory explains that depletion of personal resources results in lowered well-being (Gorgievski & Hobfoll, 2008). COR theory also explains that individuals with higher levels of personal resources, such as psychological capital are less likely to lose resources, but rather gain resources; as they are more motivated to protect and replenish their existing resources (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Therefore, while stressful situations deplete resources, if an individual is highly equipped with personal resources, they are less likely to experience negative outcomes.

In a study examining the relationship between work-family conflict and burnout, it was found that individuals with high psychological capital were better

at handling stress related to experienced work-family conflict and experienced less burnout than individuals with low psychological capital (Wang et al., 2012). Psychological capital acted as a buffer against burnout. As individuals with many personal resources are motivated to protect their resources, they are more likely to engage in effective emotional regulation strategies such as cognitive reappraisal (Hur et al., 2016). Adjusting how one emotionally reacts to a situation helps preserve personal resources, and results in better well-being outcomes. Given the previous research, as well as COR theory, I predict that psychological capital will serve as a buffer in the relationship between future time perspective and burnout. Individuals with high psychological capital will experience less burnout in comparison to individuals with low psychological capital, regardless of time perspective orientation.

Hypothesis 4: *Psychological capital will moderate the relationship between future time perspective and burnout. High psychological capital will relate to low burnout, regardless of future time perspective orientation.*

Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence is defined as the ability to recognize and regulate the emotions of oneself and others around them (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The recognition and regulation of emotions guide an individual's cognitive processes and actions. Emotional intelligence has two main approaches, ability and trait. Ability based emotional intelligence refers to an individual's ability to perceive, appraise, and express their emotions. Trait based emotional intelligence refers to

the behavioral patterns and self-determined capacity of handling the emotions of an individual (Lea et al., 2019). Ability emotional intelligence is usually measured using performance tests, while trait is measured using self-report measures. Individuals with higher levels of emotional intelligence are better equipped to effectively communicate, empathize, and resolve conflict. Previous studies have found that individuals with high emotional intelligence engage in more adaptive responses when faced with stressful situations, in comparison to individuals with low emotional intelligence (Lea et al., 2019). Being able to effectively regulate one's emotions prevents reactive and impulsive responses to stressful situations, leading to better well-being outcomes in the long term, such as a balanced time perspective and lower levels of burnout (Gong et al., 2019; Stolarski, 2011). The ability to reasonably understand and control emotions towards the past, present, and future aids in the development of positive time perspective orientations, which in turn leads to better well-being outcomes such as lower levels of burnout (Gong et al., 2019). Additionally, previous studies have found that emotional intelligence and burnout have an inverse relationship, as emotional intelligence increases, burnout decreases (Newton et al., 2016). With high emotional intelligence, specifically trait, individuals see life in a more positive perspective and perceive stressful situations not as threatening as their low emotional intelligent counterparts, lessening the amount of emotional labor required in daily life. Emotional labor refers to the management of one's emotions to adjust to the situation at hand. Professions such as healthcare require lots of emotional labor,

due to the nature of the work. A study completed by Karimi and colleagues in 2014 investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence levels and the negative effects of performing emotional labor. They found that while performing high levels of emotional labor led to lower levels of well-being and higher levels of job stress, emotional intelligence moderates this relationship. Nurses with higher levels of emotional intelligence experienced higher levels of well-being and less experience of job stress (Karimi et al., 2014). As previous studies have found that emotional intelligence predicts well-being and lower levels of job stress and burnout, I predict that emotional intelligence will moderate the relationship between future time perspective and burnout. Individuals with high emotional intelligence will experience less burnout than individuals with low emotional intelligence.

Hypothesis 5: *Emotional intelligence will moderate the relationship between future time perspective and burnout. High emotional intelligence will relate to low burnout, regardless of future time perspective.*

Present Study

We aim to replicate and extend research about the relationship between time perspective, workaholism, and burnout. Secondly, to extend the research on the moderating relationship of psychological capital and emotional intelligence in the relationship between time perspective and burnout. Burnout refers to the experience of an unbearable amount of stress, resulting in emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and decreased personal accomplishment (Bianchi et al.,

2015). Burnout results in negative outcomes for both personal and professional life, and it is hard to recover once in a burnt-out state. Understanding the predictors of burnout is essential in preventing its occurrence.

Previous studies have found a relationship between workaholism and burnout, there is a gap in the literature regarding the relationship between time perspective and burnout, and the mediating role of workaholism. Additionally, there has not been much research on the moderating roles of psychological capital and emotional intelligence. Therefore, in an effort to extend the current literature, the following hypotheses were developed:

Hypothesis 1: Workaholism will positively relate to burnout. High workaholism will relate to high burnout.

Hypothesis 2: Future time perspective will positively relate to workaholism. Long future time perspective will relate to high workaholism.

Hypothesis 3: Future time perspective will positively relate to burnout. Long future time perspective will relate to high burnout.

Hypothesis 4: Psychological capital will moderate the relationship between future time perspective and burnout. High psychological capital will relate to lower burnout, regardless of future time perspective orientation (see Figure 1).

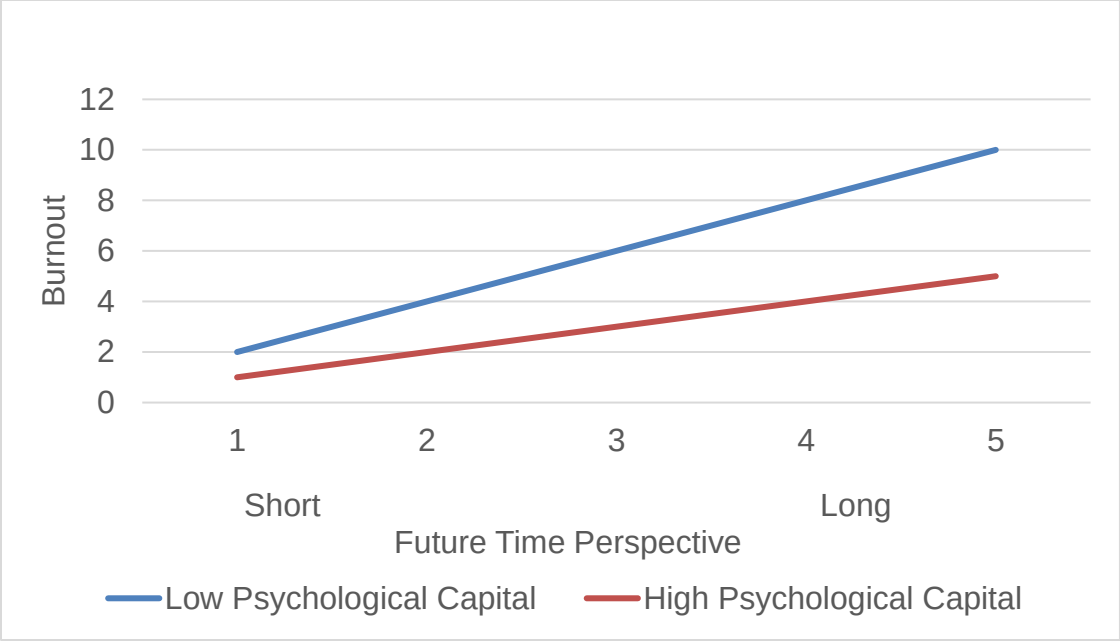

Figure 1: Expected Moderation Effect of Psychological Capital (Hypothesis 4)

Hypothesis 5: Emotional intelligence will moderate the relationship between future time perspective and burnout. High emotional intelligence will relate to low burnout, regardless of future time perspective (see Figure 2).

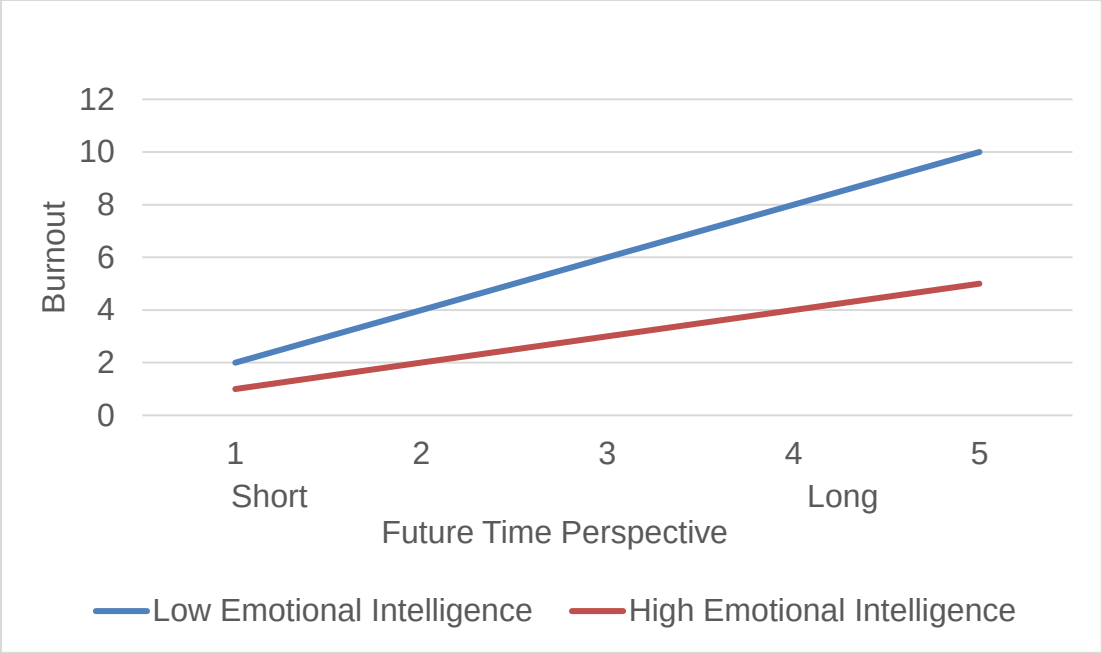

Figure 2: Expected Moderation Effect of Emotional Intelligence (Hypothesis 5)

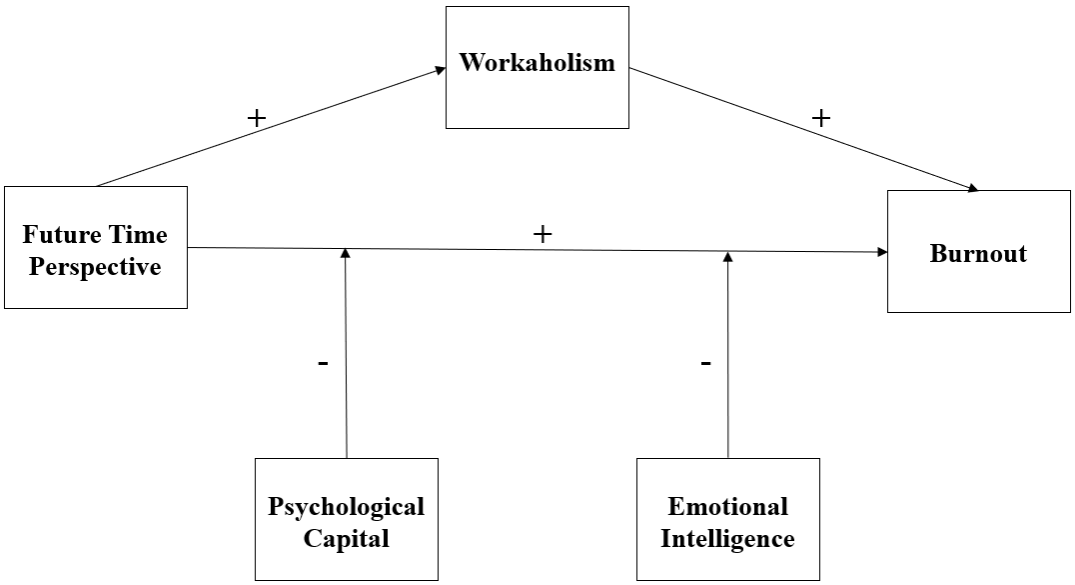

Figure 3: Hypothesized Relationships

CHAPTER TWO

METHOD

Participants

Individuals who were at least 18 years old were eligible to participate in this study. Participants were recruited using convenience sampling, through personal text messaging and social media platforms such as Discord, Reddit, and Instagram. Additionally, some participants were recruited using the Survey sharing website, SurveyCircle. Following the 40 per indicator rule, this study required 200 responses as five constructs were measured. Additionally, similar previous studies that examined burnout used a range of 200 to 500 participants. Therefore, we aimed to collect at least 300 responses, to follow the trend of previous studies, and to account for any possible statistical error. The survey remained live on Qualtrics for two months, collecting 381 responses. Data were cleaned to remove incomplete responses and remove participants who failed at least two out of four attention checks. Following data screening, 286 were useable for analysis.

The majority of participants were between the ages of 18 and 24, with an age range of 18 to 85 years old. The sample consisted of 201 women, 79 men, and 4 non-binary and/or third gender individuals, accounting for 70.3%, 27.6%, and 1.4% of the participants. 68% of participants were employed at least part-time. Table 1a and Table 1b below provide a detailed breakdown of all participant demographic information.

Table 1a. Demographic Variables

Variable	N	%
Ethnicity		
Asian	80	28
Black and/or African American	6	2.1
Hispanic and/or Latino	15	5.2
Native Hawaiian and/or Other Pacific Islander	1	0.3
Two or More Ethnicities	10	3.2
White	154	53.8
Other	13	4.5
Age		
18 - 24	143	50
25 - 34	77	26.9
35 - 44	34	11.9
45 - 54	22	7.7
55 - 64	7	2.4
65 - 74	1	0.3
75 – 84	0	0
85 or older	1	0.3
Gender		
Female	201	70.3
Male	79	27.6
Non-binary/third gender	4	1.4
Education		
Less than a high school diploma	3	1
High school degree or equivalent (e.g., GED)	45	15.7
Some college, no degree	35	12.2

Associate’s degree (e.g., AA, AS)	9	3.1
Bachelor's degree (e.g., BA, BS)	114	39.9
Master's degree (e.g., MA, MS, MEd)	62	21.7
Doctorate (e.g., PhD, EdD)	10	3.5
Professional degree (e.g., MD, DDS, DVM)	5	1.7
Employment Status		
Employed full time (at least 32 hours per week)	104	36.4
Employed part time (up to 32 hours per week)	92	32.2
Unemployed	78	27.3

Table 1b. Demographic Variables Cont.

Variable	N	%
Multiple Jobs		
Yes	44	15.4
No	242	84.6
Multiple Jobs - Full Time?		
Yes	23	52
No	20	45
Household Income		
Less than $20,000	52	18.2
$20,000 to $34,999	38	13.3
$35,000 to $49,999	30	10.5
$50,000 to $74,999	24	8.4
$75,000 to $99,999	27	9.4
$100,000 to $124,999	29	10.1
$125,000 to $149,999	12	4.2

$150,000 or above	38	13.3
Tenure at Current Job		
0 - 2 years	212	74.1
3 - 5 years	43	15
6 - 10 years	11	3.8
10 + years	20	7
Years Working Full-Time		
0 - 2 years	94	32.9
3 - 5 years	21	7.3
6 - 10 years	19	6.6
10 + years	48	16.8
N/A - I do not work full time	104	36.4
Hours Worked Weekly		
Less than 5 hours	67	23.4
5-15 hours	39	13.6
16-25 hours	44	15.3
26-35 hours	27	9.4
36-45 hours	83	29
46-56 hours	17	5.9
56+ hours	9	3.1

Measures

This study used five psychological scales which were taken from existing literature on future time perspective, workaholism, burnout, psychological capital,

and emotional intelligence. Additionally, demographic variables were measured. Participants responded to demographic questions and scale items through a self-report survey administered through Qualtrics. All measures can be found in the Appendix.

Demographic Items

Participants were asked to report their ethnicity, age, gender, education, employment status, household income, current job tenure, full-time tenure, and hours worked weekly (See Appendix for specific item wording).

Careless Response Checks

Careless response check items were incorporated to screen for unusable data, by identifying participants who did not pay sufficient attention to the survey or are responding randomly. The following items were used: “Please select "School" to show you are paying attention to this survey”, “Confirm that you are paying attention by selecting “1 - Very Untrue" for this question”, “Confirm that you are paying attention by selecting "3 - Often" for this question”, and “Select "Somewhat Agree" to show you are paying attention”.

Future Time Perspective

Future time perspective was assessed using the Future Time Perspective (FTP) Scale developed by Carstensen and Lang in 1996. This measure was developed to assess future time perspective as a developmental construct in adults. The scale consists of 10 items and uses a 7-point Likert scale (1 = very untrue, 7 = very true), and includes three reverse-coded items. The scoring of

this scale consists of adjusting the reverse coded items, then calculating the respondent's mean score of all 10 items. There are no defined cutoff points for interpreting future time perspective, the higher the mean score, the more expansive (long) view of the future the respondent holds.

Kooij and colleagues conducted a meta-analysis in 2018 examining measures of future time perspective. With the inclusion of 39 studies that used Carstensen's FTP scale, they found the scale to have a mean Cronbach's alpha of .84, determining that the scale has good reliability (Kooij et al., 2018). The present study had an alpha reliability of .85.

Workaholism

Workaholism was assessed using the Dutch Work Addiction Scale (DUWAS) short form. The Dutch Work Addiction Scale was developed by Taris and colleagues in 2005, and consists of two core components: Working Excessively (WE) and Working Compulsively (WC) (Taris et al., 2005). The short form of the DUWAS was developed by Schaufeli, Shimazu, and Taris in 2009 and consists of 10 items, five of which cover the working excessively component of work addiction, and five that cover the working compulsively component. The scale uses a 4-point Likert scale (1 = (almost) never, 2 = sometimes, 3 = often, 4 = (almost) always). The scoring consists of finding the average of the responses for the working compulsively dimension and the average of the responses for the working excessively dimension, and finally finding the average of all the

responses together. The higher the average score, the higher the degree of work addiction.

The full version Dutch Work Addiction Scale has a Cronbach alpha of .75, meaning that the scale has acceptable reliability (Libano et al., 2010). The short form has an alpha level of .78 (De Beer et al., 2022), which serves as acceptable for use in this study. This present study had an alpha level of .82, providing good reliability.

Burnout

Burnout was assessed using the Burnout Measure, Short Version (BMS). The Burnout Measure (BM) was first developed by Pines and Aronson in 1988 and is currently a widely used self-report measure of burnout. It includes 21 items, rated using a 7-point frequency scale (1 = never, 2 = almost never, 3 = rarely, 4 = sometimes, 5 = often, 6 = very often, 7 = always). Malach-Pines developed a short version of BM in 2005, which consists of 10 items pulled from the BM. The short version (BMS) was used in this study to avoid survey fatigue in participants. The internal consistency of the BMS was evaluated using two samples, which had a combined Cronbach alpha of .86 (Malach-Pines, 2005), which is acceptable for use in this study. The present study provided excellent reliability, with an alpha level of .91.

Psychological Capital

Psychological capital was assessed using the Psychological Capital Questionnaire Self-Rater Short Form (PCQ-12). The PCQ-12 is the short version

of the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24), which measures efficacy, hope, optimism, and resilience (Luthans et al., 2007). Both versions use a six point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = somewhat agree, 5 = agree, 6 = strongly agree). Responses are scored by taking the average of responses for each subscale, and the overall psychological capital score is found by averaging all responses of all items on the scale. The PCQ-24 has a Cronbach's alpha of .85, determining good reliability (Luthans et al., 2007). The PCQ-12 has consistently had a Cronbach's alpha of .68 across different samples (Avey et al., 2011; Luthans et al., 2008), which is still considered acceptable for use in this study. The present study had an alpha level of .89.

Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence was assessed using the Brief Emotional Intelligence Scale (BEIS-10). The BEIS-10 is a shorter version of the Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) developed by Schutte and colleagues in 1998. The EIS was created to measure an individual's perceptions of their abilities to appraise and regulate emotions in the self and others, as well as use emotions for problem-solving (Schutte et al., 1998). The EIS consists of 33 self-report items, broken up by five factors: appraisal of one's emotions, appraisal of others' emotions, regulation of one's emotions, regulation of others' emotions, and utilization of emotions. The BEIS-10 was created by taking two items from each factor of the EIS with the most salient factor loadings (Davies et al., 2010). The

BEIS-10 consists of 10 items, scored using a five-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither disagree nor agree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree). Responses are scored by adding up all the responses, the higher the sum, the higher the respondent's emotional intelligence. Balakrishnan and Saklofske evaluated the internal consistency of the BEIS-10 using a sample of university students in 2015 and determined the scale has a Cronbach alpha of .91, reflecting excellent reliability, making it acceptable for use in this study (Balakrishnan & Saklofske, 2015). The present study had an alpha level of .81, providing good reliability.

Procedure

Participants in this study were recruited using convenience sampling, through personal text messaging and social media platforms such as Discord, Reddit, and Instagram. Additionally, some participants were recruited using the Survey sharing website, SurveyCircle. Participants were instructed to complete the online survey consisting of 12 demographic questions, 4 careless response check questions, and 52 questions from the aforementioned measures.

CHAPTER THREE

RESULTS

Data Screening

Prior to testing the hypotheses, participant responses were screened to delete missing and unusable data. 381 responses were initially collected. In order to be included in analysis, participants were required to correctly answer at least two of four attention check questions. 95 participants did not meet these criteria and were removed from the sample, resulting in a final sample size of 286 participants.

Variables were screened for skew and kurtosis prior to analysis. Violations to normality had minimal impact as this study had a large sample size, and the general linear model and regression are robust to non-normality.

Initial Analyses

Means, standard deviations, Cronbach alpha reliabilities, and Pearson correlations of the scales are displayed in Table 3 below. Higher levels of workaholism were associated with higher levels of burnout (r = .304, p < .001), providing support for Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 2 proposed that future time perspective would have a positive relationship with workaholism. Future time perspective and workaholism were not significantly correlated (r = -.046, p = .447), not providing support for Hypothesis 2. Hypothesis 3 proposed that future time perspective would have a positive relationship with burnout. Higher levels of

future time perspective were associated with lower levels of burnout (r = -.382, p < .001), not supporting Hypothesis 3. Hypotheses 4 and 5 were tested for moderation effects with the use of Hayes' PROCESS command.

Table 2. Correlation Matrix of Predictors and Criteria

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*
1. Future Time Perspective	4.65	1.01	(0.853)				
2. Workaholism	2.55	0.60	-0.046	(0.822)			
3. Burnout	3.44	1.17	-0.382*	0.304*	(0.909)		
4. Psychological Capital	4.30	0.80	0.472*	0.199*	-0.374*	(0.894)	
5. Emotional Intelligence	38.38	5.32	0.329*	0.159*	-0.154*	0.524*	(0.810)

*p < 0.05

Note: values in parentheses represent the Cronbach alpha reliabilities of the various scales.

Future time perspective had a significant positive correlation with psychological capital (r = 0.472, p < 0.05), which may have impacted psychological capital's role as a potential moderator in the relationship between future time perspective and burnout. Future time perspective also had a significant positive correlation with emotional intelligence (r = 0.329, p < 0.05), which may have impacted emotional intelligence's role as a potential moderator in the relationship between future time perspective and burnout. Workaholism and psychological capital had a significant positive correlation (r = 0.199, p < 0.05), as did workaholism and emotional intelligence (r = 0.159, p < 0.05). Burnout had a significant negative correlation with psychological capital (r = -

0.374, $p < 0.05$) and with emotional intelligence ($r = -0.154$, $p < 0.05$). Lastly, psychological capital had a significant positive correlation with emotional intelligence ($r = 0.524$, $p < 0.05$).

The first moderation analysis examined the moderating effect of psychological capital on the relationship between future time perspective and burnout, explained in Hypothesis 4. There was no significant interaction of psychological capital in the relationship between future time perspective and burnout, $b = -0.0118$, 95% CI [-0.1156, 0.0921], $t = -.2234$, $p = 0.8234$, not supporting Hypothesis 4. Figure 4 below shows the simple slope analyses with non-significant moderation effects.

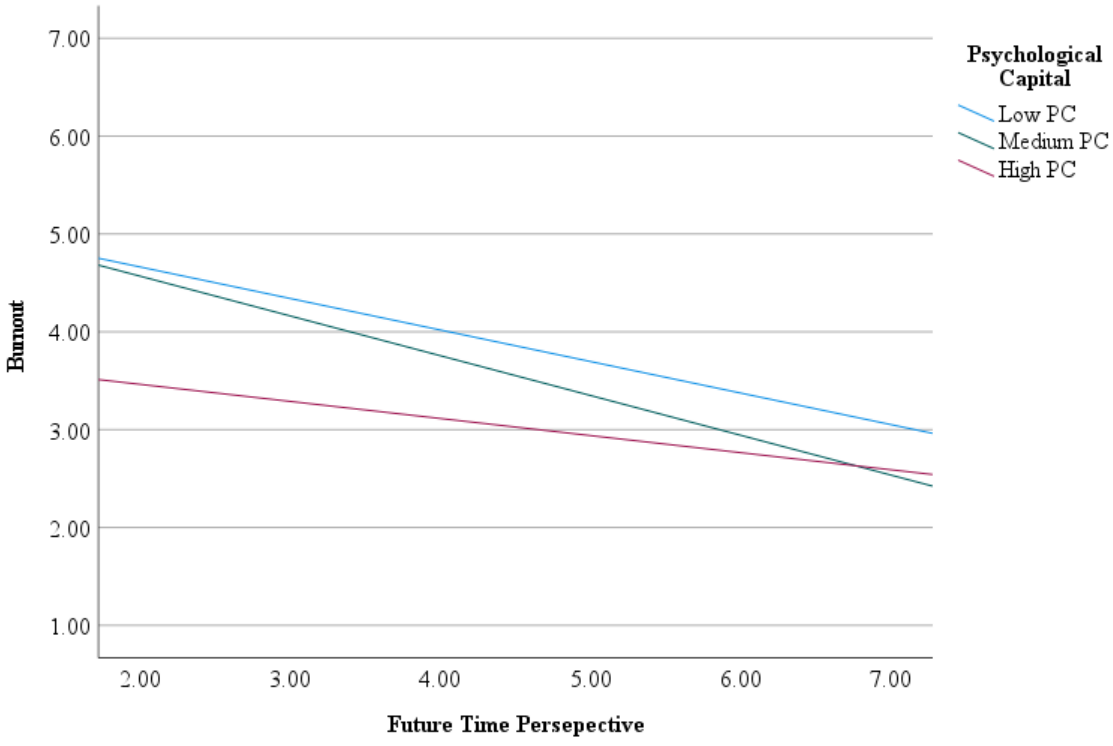

Figure 4. Moderating Effect of Psychological Capital (Hypothesis 4)

The second moderation analysis examined the potential moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the relationship between future time perspective and burnout, explained in Hypothesis 5. There was no significant interaction of emotional intelligence in the relationship between future time perspective and burnout, b = -0.2084, 95% CI [-0.6598, 0.2431], t = 0.9121, p = 0.3632, not supporting Hypothesis 5. Figure 5 below shows the simple slope analyses with non-significant moderation effects.

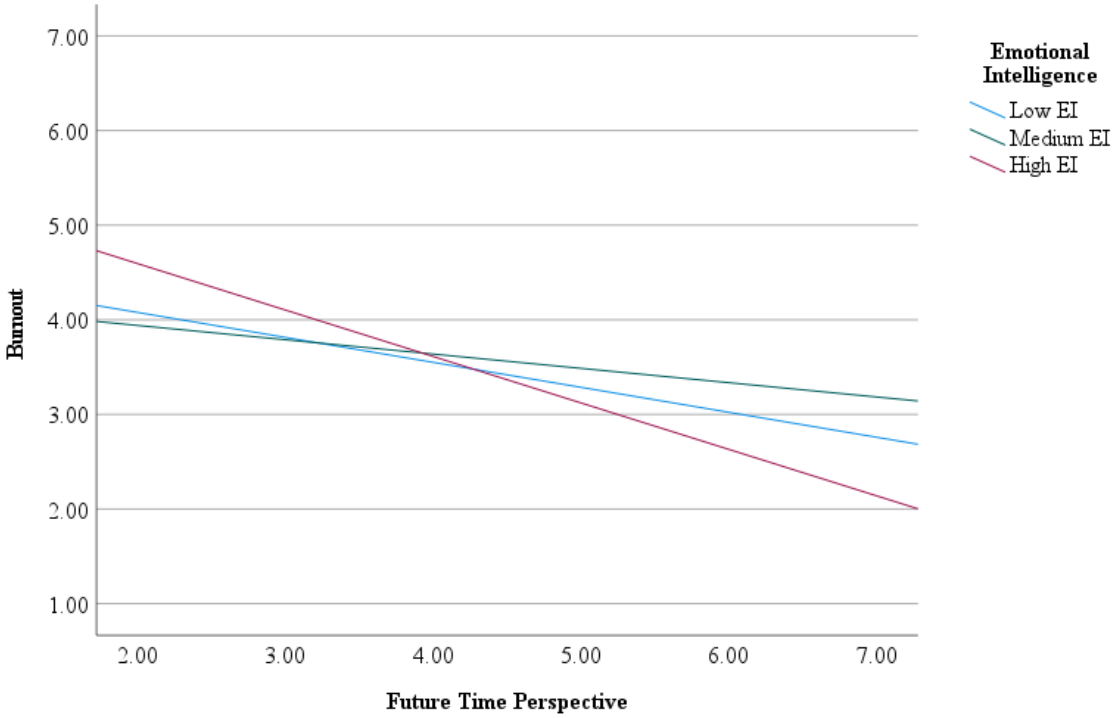

Figure 5. Moderating Effect of Emotional Intelligence (Hypothesis 5)

Supplemental Analyses

As the moderation hypotheses produced nonsignificant results, supplemental analyses were conducted to determine if mediation effects exist rather than the proposed moderation effects with the use of Hayes' PROCESS

command. There were significant results in the mediation analysis for psychological capital in the relationship between future time perspective and burnout. There was a significant indirect effect of future time perspective on burnout through psychological capital, *b* = -0.1206, BCa CI [-0.1949, -0.0450]. Figure 6 below shows the significant mediation effect of this finding.

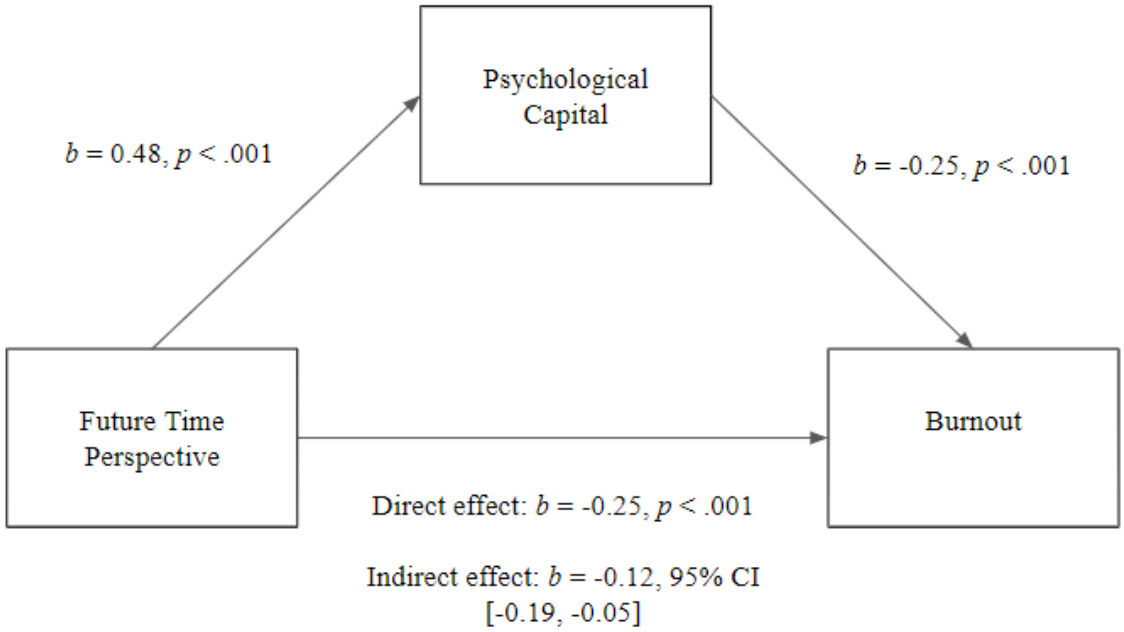

Figure 6. Mediating Effect of Psychological Capital (Burnout)

There were nonsignificant results in the mediation analysis of emotional intelligence in the relationship of future time perspective and burnout. The indirect effect of future time perspective on burnout through emotional intelligence was nonsignificant *b* = 0.0029, BCa CI [-0.0158, 0.0278].

Future time perspective had a significant positive correlation with psychological capital (*r* = 0.472, *p* < 0.05), which may have impacted psychological capital's role as a potential moderator in the relationship between

future time perspective and burnout. Future time perspective also had a significant positive correlation with emotional intelligence ($r = 0.329$, $p < 0.05$), which may have impacted emotional intelligence's role as a potential moderator in the relationship between future time perspective and burnout. Workaholism and psychological capital had a significant positive correlation ($r = 0.199$, $p < 0.05$), as did workaholism and emotional intelligence ($r = 0.159$, $p < 0.05$). Burnout had a significant negative correlation with psychological capital ($r = -0.374$, $p < 0.05$) and with emotional intelligence ($r = -0.154$, $p < 0.05$), which may have impacted the role of both psychological capital and emotional intelligence as moderators in the relationship between future time perspective and burnout. Lastly, psychological capital had a significant positive correlation with emotional intelligence ($r = 0.524$, $p < 0.05$).

CHAPTER FOUR

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to replicate and expand the research about the relationship between future time perspective, workaholism, and burnout. Consistent with the current literature, workaholism had a positive correlation with burnout, as proposed in Hypothesis 1. This relationship ties back to the notion that workaholism is related to negative outcomes such as burnout (Clark et al., 2016). The relationship can be explained by resource depletion, which is explained by the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model and the Conservation of Resources (COR) model (Hur et al., 2016; Maslach & Leiter, 2016). An individual engaging in workaholic behaviors depletes their resources while putting in little to no effort or time to replenish them. As resources are constantly depleted without being replaced, burnout occurs. Future time perspective and workaholism did not have a significant correlation, not supporting Hypothesis 2. This finding was inconsistent with the current literature, which states a unbalanced time perspective leads to negative outcomes such as burnout, as achievement focus leads to neglect of personal indulgences (Boniwell & Zimbardo, 2004; Kim et al., 2020). Additionally, future time perspective had a significant negative correlation with burnout, the opposite of what was proposed in Hypothesis 3, therefore not supporting it. This finding was inconsistent with the current literature, as previous studies have determined that deviation from a balanced time perspective leads to higher levels of burnout (Akirmak & Ayla, 2021).

Further, this study also examined the possible moderating effect of psychological capital on the relationship between future time perspective and burnout. Hypothesis 4 proposed that psychological capital would serve as a buffer against burnout, regardless of future time perspective. This hypothesis was based on Wang and colleagues' 2012 study, which found that individuals with a high level of psychological capital were better equipped to handle stress, therefore less likely to fall victim to negative outcomes such as burnout (Wang et al., 2012). This finding relates to the JD-R model, which states that individuals who have more personal resources such as high psychological capital are better equipped to handle job demands and less likely to experience resource depletion (Hur et al., 2016). These resources serve as a buffer against negative outcomes such as burnout. Inconsistent with the literature, psychological capital did not have a moderating effect in this study, not supporting Hypothesis 4. The possible moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the relationship between future time perspective and burnout was also examined. Hypothesis 5 proposed that emotional intelligence would serve as a buffer against burnout, regardless of future time perspective. This hypothesis was based on the notion that individuals with high emotional intelligence experience less burnout (Newton et al., 2016). As individuals with high emotional intelligence are more equipped to handle and regulate their emotions, emotional intelligence serves as a resource to buffer against job demands and stress (Hur et al., 2016; Karimi et al., 2014).

Inconsistent with the literature, emotional intelligence had no moderating effect, not supporting Hypothesis 5.

Summary of Findings

Pearson correlations were computed among all variables of interest in the study. It was found that future time perspective was significantly negatively correlated with burnout (r = -0.382, p <0.05). Future time perspective was significantly positively correlated with psychological capital (r = 0.472, p < 0.05), and with emotional intelligence (r = 0.329, p < .0.05). Future time perspective had a negative relationship with workaholism, but the correlation was nonsignificant (r = -0.046, p = *ns*). Workaholism had significant positive correlations with burnout (r = 0.304, p < 0.05), psychological capital (r = 0.199, p < 0.05), and with emotional intelligence (r = 0.159, p < 0.05). Additionally, burnout had significant negative correlations with psychological capital (r = -0.374, p < 0.05) and with emotional intelligence (r = -0.154, p < 0.05). Finally, psychological capital had a significant positive correlation with emotional intelligence (r = 0.524, p < 0.05).

Analyses conducted to investigate the potential moderating effects of psychological capital and emotional intelligence did not provide significant results. These results indicate that psychological capital and emotional intelligence do not impact the relationship between future time perspective and burnout. Despite psychological capital and emotional intelligence do not weaken the relationship as hypothesized, previous studies have found that high

psychological capital better equips individuals to handle job stress, decreasing burnout (Wang et al., 2012). Additionally, it is already supported that high emotional intelligence better equips individuals to handle their emotions, preventing burnout (Karimi et al., 2014). This lack of support for moderation effects, the relationship of psychological capital and emotional intelligence in the relationship between future time perspective and burnout may be that the relationship changes through psychological capital or emotional intelligence. Therefore, supplemental analyses were completed to determine if mediation effects were present instead of the initially proposed moderation effects.

The supplemental analyses provided support that psychological capital had a mediating role in the relationship between future time perspective and burnout, while emotional intelligence did not. Additionally, psychological capital had higher correlations with burnout in comparison to emotional intelligence. This finding may indicate that psychological capital may be a greater influence on an individual's burnout than their time perspective orientation. In a study investigating emotional intelligence, psychological capital, and burnout conducted by Gong and colleagues in 2019, it was found that psychological capital can be viewed as a resource that helps individuals regulate their job stress, minimizing burnout. Additionally, the study also discovered that psychological capital has a mediating role in the relationship between emotional intelligence and burnout (Gong et al., 2019).

Practical Implications

Several implications can be made based on the results of this study. Hypothesis 1 was supported, providing further evidence that workaholism is associated with burnout, as previous studies have found (Clark et al., 2016). Both employees and employers should strive to prevent burnout in the workplace, as it leads to negative outcomes for both the employee and the organization. As workaholism serves as a predictor of burnout, organizations should strive to prevent workaholic behaviors in their employees. This can be achieved by investing in resources such as workshops for employees to highlight the importance of taking time to rest and replenishing personal psychological resources. Additionally, organizations should strive to avoid overwhelming employees and instead provide them with support when necessary.

Hypothesis 2 and 3 were not supported, however, it was found that long future time perspective related to lower levels of burnout. This finding may provide support for the implication that long future time perspective is related to higher levels of well-being, which leads to lower levels of burnout, which a few previous studies have suggested. Kooij and colleagues found that individuals with long FTP tend to have high levels of life satisfaction, subjective health, and lower levels of anxiety and depression in their 2018 study. Boniwell and Zimbardo found that future-orientated individuals experience a greater sense of personnel power and control, which aid in the prevention of burnout (Boniwell & Zimbardo, 2004). Lastly, it has been found that individuals who look at the future

positively tend to prioritize positivity, which leads to greater well-being (Burzynska & Stolarski, 2020).

Moderation Hypotheses 4 and 5 were not supported, however, the supplemental analyses provided significant findings, as psychological capital served as a significant mediator in the relationship between future time perspective and burnout. Individuals with higher levels of psychological capital experienced less burnout. Organizations should invest in workshops for their employees to aid in the process of building their personal resources of self-efficacy, optimism, hope, and resilience. When employees have strong emotional resources to depend on, they are less likely to fall victim to burnout, allowing for better work outcomes.

Limitations

This study was limited in regard to sampling method and demographics. Study data were collected using convenience sampling, which does not provide a complete representation of the population of interest. The majority of study participants fell within the age range of 18 to 24 years old, and 68% of the participants were employed at least part-time. Given the variables of interest in this study, it would have been beneficial to have a sample that had an older average age, and more participants who work full time. Given this, a more ideal sampling method would be collecting data from a sample of full-time working professionals.

Data were collected using self-report measures. Due to the nature of self-reported data, there is a possibility of participants providing responses that are either deflated or inflated to better fit societal norms, instead of responding based on actual feelings and perceptions. Additionally, the measures that were used in this study to measure the variables of interest may have introduced limitations as well. Variables were not clearly defined to participants, which may have caused some subjectivity among participants, impacting responses.

Directions for Future Research

An area of future research revolves around emotional intelligence. In the moderation analyses done in this study, it was apparent that high emotional intelligence operated differently than medium or low emotional intelligence as a moderator in the relationship between future time perspective and burnout. Future research may benefit from investigating the differences between the different emotional intelligence thresholds and how they moderate the relationship between future time perspective and burnout.

Hypothesis 3 was not supported in this study, however, the analyses open up an area of future research. In this study, it was found that future time perspective was significantly negatively correlated with burnout (r = -.382, p < .001), as future time perspective increased, burnout decreased. This finding is interesting as it contradicts the current literature, which states that an unbalanced time perspective, such as a long future time perspective leads to higher levels of burnout (Boniwell & Zimbardo, 2004; Akirmak & Ayla, 2021). Future research

should further investigate the relationship between long future time perspective and burnout. It may be beneficial to examine other well-being outcomes and how they predict future time perspective, which ultimately leads to lower levels of burnout.

Additionally, while psychological capital did not moderate the relationship between future time perspective and burnout, not supporting Hypothesis 4; psychological capital did serve as a mediator. In the supplemental mediation analyses completed, future time perspective had a significant direct effect on psychological capital (b = 0.48, p < .001); and psychological capital had a significant direct effect on burnout (b = -0.25, p < .001). Future research should examine how future time perspective reduces burnout through psychological capital, as well as these direct effects.

Researchers should further examine the relationship between socioeconomic status (SES) and time perspective. SES serves as a precursor to the time perspective and burnout relationship examined in our study. Previous studies have found that time perspective differences exist between middle-class individuals and lower-class individuals. Middle-class individuals are more long-term directed than lower-class individuals (Lamm et al., 1976). Lower-class individuals oftentimes have income barriers that prevent them from focusing on future orientated goals. Due to these income barriers, lower-class individuals are more focused on the short term, as they believe their future is controlled by external forces. Middle-class feel more control over their lives, which allows them

to be more long-term oriented (Corral-Verdugo et al., 2006). Since they feel more control, they are more likely to invest in their future, an example of this includes expanding their education.

Further, the relationship between SES and workaholism should be examined. The current literature has found differing outcomes, with some studies indicating that high SES individuals are more likely to engage in workaholism. Other studies have indicated that low SES are more likely to engage in workaholism. Individuals with low SES tend to think about their social environment with a contextualism view, while individuals with high SES have a solipsism view (Kraus et al, 2012). Contextualism is a psychological orientation that is motivated by the need to deal with external constraints and threats in the social environment. Solipsism is a psychological orientation that is motivated by internal states such as one's personal goals or emotions in the social environment (Manstead, 2018). Since individuals with low SES hold this contextualism view, they are more likely to attribute things to external factors outside of their control and prefer situational rather than dispositional attributions (Kraus et al., 2012), meaning that they experience lower levels of perceived control. When an individual has more resources available to them, such as an individual with high SES, they experience a greater sense of perceived control (Kraus et al., 2012). With this greater sense of control, high SES individuals believe that their efforts are responsible for their success, taking on an achievement focus mindset, which leads to workaholism. On the other hand,

feeling a lack of control over one's life, such as low SES individuals feel, serves as a predictor of workaholism. Work provides a sense of control they cannot achieve in their personal life, succeeding at work can help preserve their ego and improve self-esteem (Porter, 1996). Workaholism serves as a strategy to avoid personal problems, personal feelings, and other failures and setbacks in life (Seybold & Salomone, 1994) and therefore take on more responsibilities, work longer hours, and spend more time thinking about work and how to get ahead, to assure positive outcomes (Ng et al., 2007).

Conclusion

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the relationship between future time perspective, workaholism, and burnout; and to investigate the potential moderating relationships of psychological capital and emotional intelligence in the relationship. Even though future time perspective did not predict workaholism or burnout, nor did psychological capital or emotional intelligence moderate the relationship between future time perspective and burnout, there were still meaningful findings from this study. First, we found that workaholism predicts burnout, providing evidence of the negative consequences of engaging in workaholic behaviors. Second, we found that long future time perspective results in lower levels of burnout, suggesting that long future time perspective relates to well-being outcomes, contributing to the limited current literature on this implication. Third, we found that psychological capital mediates the relationship between future time perspective and burnout. The results of this

study add to the limited existing literature on the relationship of future time perspective and burnout.

APPENDIX A

INFORMED CONSENT

CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY
SAN BERNARDINO

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences
Department of Psychology

Informed Consent

This study is designed to measure time perspective and psychological abilities and their effect on workaholism and burnout. This research has been approved by the Institutional Review Board of California State University, San Bernardino.

This study is being conducted by Hira Ikram, Industrial/Organizational M.S. Graduate Student at California State University, San Bernardino.

Purpose: This study aims to further understand the relationship between time perspective, workaholism, and burnout. Secondly, to further understand the moderating effects of psychological abilities on this relationship.

Description of Research: Responses will be collected from participants through a self-report survey. Measuring their perceptions about the future and levels of workaholism, burnout, and other psychological abilities.

Duration: The survey should take 30 minutes to complete.

Risks: This survey presents no more than minimal risk of harm to subjects and involves no procedures for which written consent is normally required outside of the research context.

Benefits: There are no benefits for participation in this study, other than assisting in furthering the research.

Participation: Participation in this survey is completely voluntary, and you are free to omit (skip) questions or completely discontinue your participation at anytime. There are no penalties or negative consequences for individuals who choose not to participate or individuals who chose to discontinue their participation.

Confidentiality: The data collected in this study will be confidential, all records of this study will only be assessed by the primary investigator. Any and all identifying information will be excluded from reports.

Data Storage: Original responses will be stored on a password-protected server via Qualtrics.

Results: A report of final study findings will be presented in a thesis on time perspective, workaholism, and burnout.

Contact: In the case of any questions, concerns, or issues please contact the primary researcher, Hira Ikram (007744484@coyote.csusb.edu).

CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY
SAN BERNARDINO

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences
Department of Psychology

Informed Consent

CONFIRMATION STATEMENT:

I have read the information above and agree to participate in your study.

By selecting the option to continue, I affirm that I understand the above information and that I am taking part in this study voluntarily with the option to end my participation at any time with no penalty or negative consequence for voluntarily ending my participation. I also acknowledge that I am at least 18 years of age.

APPENDIX B

SCALES

Demographic Information

The following 12 questions will ask about your demographic information. Your responses will be kept confidential and anonymous.

Please select "decline to state" for any demographic items you are not comfortable answering.

Your participation in this survey is completely voluntary, and you are free to discontinue your participation at any time. There are no penalties or negative consequences for individuals who choose not to participate or individuals who choose to discontinue their participation.

Age

Please select your age:

18 – 24

25 – 34

35 – 44

45 – 54

55 – 64

65 – 74

75 – 84

85 or older

Decline to State

Gender

Which gender do you most identify with?

Male

Female

Non-binary / third gender

Other

Decline to State

Hispanic or Latino

Are you Hispanic or Latino?

Yes

No

Decline to State

Ethnicity

What is your Ethnicity?

White

Black and/or African American

American Indian and/or Alaska Native

Asian

Native Hawaiian and/or Other Pacific Islander

Hispanic and/or Latino

Other

Decline to State

Education

What is the highest degree or level of school you have completed? (if you are currently enrolled in school, please indicate the highest degree you have received.)

Less than a high school diploma

High school degree or equivalent (e.g., GED)

Some college, no degree

Associate's Degree (e.g., AA, AS)

Bachelor's Degree (e.g., BA, BS)

Master's Degree (e.g., MA, MS, Med)

Professional Degree (e.g., MD, DDS, DVM)

Doctorate (e.g., PhD, EdD)

Decline to State

Employment Status

What is your current employment status?

Employed full time (32 or more hours per week)

Employed part time (up to 32 hours per week)

Unemployed

Decline to State

Multiple Jobs

Are you currently working multiple jobs?

Yes

No

Work Full Time

Do you work the equivalent of full time hours (32 hours or more)?

Yes

No

Decline to State

Household Income

What is your annual household income?

Less than $20,000

$20,000 to $34,999

$35,000 to $49,999

$50,000 to $74,999

$75,000 to $99,999

$100,000 to $124,999

$125,000 to $149,999

$150,000 or above

Decline to State

Current Job Tenure

How many years have you been at your current job?

0 – 2 years

3 – 5 years

6 – 10 years

10 + years

Full Time Tenure

How many years have you been working full-time?

0 – 2 years

3 – 5 years

6 – 10 years

10 + years

N/A – I do not work full time

Hours Worked Weekly

On average, how many hours do you work weekly?

Less than 5 hours

5 – 10 hours

11 – 15 hours

16 – 20 hours

21 – 25 hours

26 – 30 hours

31 – 35 hours

36 – 40 hours

41 – 45 hours

46 – 50 hours

51 – 56 hours

56 – 60 hours

61 + hours

Careless Response Checks

The following items are dispersed throughout the survey to check for careless responses given by participants.

“Please select "School" to show you are paying attention to this survey”.

“Confirm that you are paying attention by selecting “1 - Very Untrue" for this question”.

“Confirm that you are paying attention by selecting "3 - Often" for this question”.

“Select "Somewhat Agree" to show you are paying attention”.

Future Time Perspective Scale

(Carstensen and Lang, 1996)

The following statements aim to capture how you feel about your future. Please read each statement carefully and rate how true it is for you using a scale of 1 - 7.

A rating of "1" is very untrue, while a rating of "7" is very true.

Items

1. Many opportunities await me in the future.
2. I expect that I will set many new goals in the future.
3. My future is filled with possibilities.
4. Most of my life lies ahead of me.
5. My future seems infinite to me.
6. I could do anything I want in the future.
7. There is plenty of time left in my life to make new plans.
8. I have the sense that time is running out. *
9. There are only limited possibilities in my future. *
10. As I get older, I begin to experience time as limited. *

* reverse-scored items.

Dutch Work Addiction Scale (DUWAS) Short Form

(Schaufeli, Shimazu, & Taris, 2009)

The following statements aim to capture how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and select how often you ever feel this way about your job, using the scale below:

1 = (Almost) Never

2 = Sometimes

3 = Often

4 = (Almost) Always

Items

Working Excessively (WE)

1. I seem to be in a hurry and racing against the clock.
2. I find myself continuing to work after my coworkers have called it quits.
3. I stay busy and keep many irons in the fire.
4. I spend more time working than on socializing with friends, on hobbies, or on leisure activities.
5. I find myself doing two or three things at one time such as eating lunch and writing a memo, while talking on the telephone.

Working Compulsively (WC)

1. It is important to me to work hard even when I do not enjoy what I am doing.
2. I feel that there is something inside me that drives me to work hard.
3. I feel obliged to work hard, even when it is not enjoyable.
4. I feel guilty when I take time off work.
5. It is hard for me to relax when I am not working.

The Burnout Measure, Short Version (BMS)

(Malach-Pines, 2005)

The following statements aim to capture how you feel about your work overall. Please read each statement carefully and select how often you feel that way using a scale of 1-7.

A response of "1" is never, and a response of "7" is always.

Items

1. Tired
2. Disappointed with people
3. Hopeless
4. Trapped
5. Helpless
6. Depressed
7. Physically Weak/Sickly
8. Worthless/Like a Failure
9. Difficulties Sleeping
10. “I’ve had it”

Psychological Capital Questionnaire Self-Rater Short Form (PCQ-12)
(Luthans et al., 2007)

The following statements aim to capture how you may think about yourself **right now**. Please read each statement carefully and select your level of agreement or disagreement, using the following scale:

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Somewhat Disagree

4 = Somewhat Agree

5 = Agree

6 = Strongly Agree

Items

1. I feel confident in representing my work area in meetings with management.
2. I feel confident contributing to discussions about the organization's strategy.
3. I feel confident presenting information to a group of colleagues.
4. If I should find myself in a jam at work, I could think of many ways to get out of it.
5. Right now, I see myself as being pretty successful at work.
6. I can think of many ways to reach my current work goals.
7. At this time, I am meeting the work goals that I have set for myself.
8. I can be "on my own," so to speak, at work if I have to.
9. I usually take stressful things at work in stride.

10. I can get through difficult times at work because I've experienced difficulty before.
11. I always look on the bright side of things regarding my job.
12. I'm optimistic about what will happen to me in the future as it pertains to work.

Brief Emotional Intelligence Scale (BEIS-10)
(Schutte et al., 1998)

The following statements aim to capture your personal perceptions about yourself. Please read each statement carefully and select your level of agreement or disagreement using the following scale:

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Neither Disagree nor Agree

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

Items

Appraisal of own emotions

1. I know why my emotions change.
2. I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them.

Appraisal of others' emotions

3. I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice.
4. By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing.

Regulation of own emotions

5. I seek out activities that make me happy.
6. I have control over my emotions.

Regulation of others' emotions

7. I arrange events others enjoy.

8. I help other people feel better when they are down.

Utilization of emotions

9. When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas.
10. I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles.

APPENDIX C

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL

Hira Ikram <007744484@coyote.csusb.edu>

IRB-FY2023-104 - Initial: Psych Reviewers Admin/Exempt Approval Letter

do-not-reply@cayuse.com <do-not-reply@cayuse.com> Mon, Nov 21, 2022 at 12:17 PM
To: 007744484@coyote.csusb.edu, Ismael.Diaz@csusb.edu

CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY
SAN BERNARDINO

November 21, 2022

CSUSB INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
Administrative/Exempt Review Determination
Status: Exempt
IRB-FY2023-104

Ismael Diaz
CSBS - Psychology
California State University, San Bernardino
5500 University Parkway
San Bernardino, California 92407

Dear Ismael Diaz :

Your application to use human subjects, titled "The Relationship of Future Time Perspective, Workaholism, and Burnout - Thesis" has been reviewed and determined exempt by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of California State University, San Bernardino under the federal regulations at 45 CFR 46. As the researcher under the exempt category, you do not have to follow the requirements under 45 CFR 46 which requires annual renewal and documentation of written informed consent which are not required for the exempt category. However, exempt status still requires you to attain consent from participants before conducting your research as needed.

Your IRB proposal is approved. This approval is valid from November 21, 2022.

This approval notice does not replace any departmental or additional campus approvals which may be required including access to CSUSB campus facilities and affiliate campuses. Investigators should consider the changing COVID-19 circumstances based on current CDC, California Department of Public Health, and campus guidance and submit appropriate protocol modifications to the IRB as needed. CSUSB campus and affiliate health screenings should be completed for all campus human research related activities. Human research activities conducted at off-campus sites should follow CDC, California Department of Public Health, and campus guidance. See CSUSB's COVID-19 Prevention Plan for more information regarding campus requirements.

Your responsibilities as the investigator include reporting to the IRB Committee the following three requirements highlighted below. Please note, failure of the investigator to notify the IRB of the below requirements may result in disciplinary action.

- **Submit a protocol modification (change) form if any changes (no matter how minor) are proposed in your study for review and approval by the IRB before being implemented in your study to ensure the risk level to participants has not increased,**
- **Submit an unanticipated/adverse events form if harm is experienced by subjects during your research, and**

- **Submit a study closure through the Cayuse IRB submission system when your study has ended.**
- **Ensure your CITI human subjects training is kept up-to-date and current throughout the study for all investigators.**

The protocol modification, adverse/unanticipated event, and closure forms are located in the Cayuse Human Ethics (IRB) System. If you have any questions regarding the IRB decision, please contact Michael Gillespie, the Research Compliance Officer. Mr. Michael Gillespie can be reached by phone at (909) 537-7588, by fax at (909) 537-7028, or by email at mgillesp@csusb.edu. Please include your application approval identification number (listed at the top) in all correspondence.

If you have any questions regarding the IRB decision, please contact Dr. Jacob Jones, Assistant Professor of Psychology. Dr. Jones can be reached by email at Jacob.Jones@csusb.edu. Please include your application approval identification number (listed at the top) in all correspondence.

Best of luck with your research.

Sincerely,

King-To Yeung

King-To Yeung, Ph.D., IRB Chair
CSUSB Institutional Review Board

KY/MG

REFERENCES

Akirmak, U., & Ayla, P. (2021). How is Time Perspective Related to Burnout and Job Satisfaction? A Conservation of Resources Perspective. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *181*, 109667. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2019.109667

Andreassen, C. S., Griffiths, M. D., Sinha, R., Hetland, J., & Pallesen, S. (2016). The Relationships Between Workaholism and Symptoms of Psychiatric Disorders: A Large-Scale Cross-Sectional Study. *PLOS ONE*, *11*(5), e0152978. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0152978

Avey, J. B., Reichard, R. J., Luthans, F., & Mhatre, K. H. (2011). Meta-Analysis of the Impact of Positive Psychological Capital on Employee Attitudes, Behaviors, and Performance. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *22*(2), 127–152. https://doi.org/10.1002/hrdq.20070

Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., Oerlemans, W., & Sonnentag, S. (2013). Workaholism and Daily Recovery: A Day Reconstruction Study of Leisure Activities. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *34*(1), 87–107. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1796

Balakrishnan, A., & Saklofske, D. H. (2015). Be Mindful How You Measure: A Psychometric Investigation of the Brief Emotional Intelligence Scale. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *87*, 293–297. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2015.08.030

Bianchi, R., Schonfeld, I. S., & Laurent, E. (2015). Is it Time to Consider the “Burnout Syndrome” a Distinct Illness?. *Frontiers in Public Health*, *3*, 158. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2015.00158

Boniwell, I., & Zimbardo, P. G. (2004). Balancing Time Perspective in Pursuit of Optimal Functioning. In P. A. Linley & S. Joseph (Eds.), *Positive Psychology in Practice* (1st ed., pp. 165–178). Wiley. https://doi.org/10.1002/9780470939338.ch10

Burzynska, B., & Stolarski, M. (2020). Rethinking the Relationships Between Time Perspectives and Well-Being: Four Hypothetical Models Conceptualizing the Dynamic Interplay Between Temporal Framing and Mechanisms Boosting Mental Well-Being. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *11*, 1033. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2020.01033

Carstensen, L. L. (2006). The Influence of a Sense of Time on Human Development. *Science*, *312*(5782), 1913–1915. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1127488

Carstensen, L. L., & Lang, F. R. (1996). *Future Time Perspective Scale*.

Cheung, F., Tang, C. S. K., Lim, M. S. M., & Koh, J. M. (2018). Workaholism on Job Burnout: A Comparison Between American and Chinese Employees. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *9*, 2546. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.02546

Clark, M. A., Michel, J. S., Zhdanova, L., Pui, S. Y., & Baltes, B. B. (2016). All Work and No Play? A Meta-Analytic Examination of the Correlates and Outcomes of Workaholism. *Journal of Management*, *42*(7), 1836–1873. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206314522301

Corral-Verdugo, V., Fraijo-Sing, B., & Pinheiro, J. Q. (2006). Sustainable Behavior and Time Perspective: Present, Past, and Future Orientations and Their

Relationship with Water Conservation Behavior. *Revista Interamericana de Psicología*, *40*(2), 139–147.

Davies, K. A., Lane, A. M., Devonport, T. J., & Scott, J. A. (2010). Validity and Reliability of a Brief Emotional Intelligence Scale (BEIS-10). *Journal of Individual Differences*, *31*(4), 198–208. https://doi.org/10.1027/1614-0001/a000028

De Beer, L. T., Horn, J., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2022). Construct and Criterion Validity of the Dutch Workaholism Scale (DUWAS) Within the South African Financial Services Context. *SAGE Open*, *12*(1), 215824402210798. https://doi.org/10.1177/21582440221079879

Gong, Z., Chen, Y., & Wang, Y. (2019). The Influence of Emotional Intelligence on Job Burnout and Job Performance: Mediating Effect of Psychological Capital. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *10*, 2707. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.02707

Gorgievski, M. J., & Hobfoll, S. E. (2008). Work Can Burn Us out or Fire Us up: Conservation of Resources in Burnout and Engagement. In *Halbesleben, J.R.B., Ed., Handbook of Stress and Burnout in Health Care* (pp. 7–22). Nova Science Publishers.

Ho, H. C. Y., & Yeung, D. Y. (2016). Effects of Occupational Future Time Perspective on Managing Stressful Work Situations. *International Journal of Psychology*, *51*(4), 261–268. https://doi.org/10.1002/ijop.12144

Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of Resources: A New Attempt at Conceptualizing Stress. *American Psychologist*, *44*(3), 513–524. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.44.3.513

Hobfoll, S. E., Halbesleben, J., Neveu, J.-P., & Westman, M. (2018). Conservation of Resources in the Organizational Context: The Reality of Resources and Their Consequences. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, *5*(1), 103–128. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-032117-104640

Hur, W.-M., Rhee, S.-Y., & Ahn, K.-H. (2016). Positive Psychological Capital and Emotional Labor in Korea: The Job Demands-Resources Approach. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *27*(5), 477–500. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2015.1020445

Karimi, L., Leggat, S. G., Donohue, L., Farrell, G., & Couper, G. E. (2014). Emotional Rescue: The Role of Emotional Intelligence and Emotional Labour on Well-Being and Job-Stress Among Community Nurses. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, *70*(1), 176–186. https://doi.org/10.1111/jan.12185

Kim, S. J., Kim, H. J., & Kim, K. (2020). Time Perspectives and Delay of Gratification—The Role of Psychological Distance Toward the Future and Perceived Possibility of Getting a Future Reward. *Psychology Research and Behavior Management*, *13*, 653–663. https://doi.org/10.2147/PRBM.S246443

Koeske, G. F., & Koeske, R. D. (1989). Construct Validity of the Maslach Burnout Inventory: A Critical Review and Reconceptualization. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, *25*(2), 131–144. https://doi.org/10.1177/0021886389252004

Kooij, D. T. A. M., Kanfer, R., Betts, M., & Rudolph, C. W. (2018). Future Time Perspective: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *103*(8), 867–893. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000306

Kraus, M. W., Piff, P. K., Mendoza-Denton, R., Rheinschmidt, M. L., & Keltner, D. (2012). Social Class, Solipsism, and Contextualism: How the Rich are Different from the Poor. *Psychological Review*, *119*(3), 546–572. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0028756

Lamm, H., Schmidt, R. W., & Trommsdorff, G. (1976). Sex and Social Class as Determinants of Future Orientation (Time Perspective) in Adolescents. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *34*(3), 317–326. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.34.3.317

Lea, R. G., Davis, S. K., Mahoney, B., & Qualter, P. (2019). Does Emotional Intelligence Buffer the Effects of Acute Stress? A Systematic Review. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *10*, 810. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.00810

Lewin, K. (1951). *Field Theory in Social Sciences: Selected Theoretical Papers*. Harpers.

Libano, M., Llorens, S., & Schaufeli, W. (2010). Validity of a Brief Workaholism Scale. *Psicothema*, *22*(1), 143–150.

Luthans, F., Avolio, B. J., Avey, J. B., & Norman, S. M. (2007). Positive Psychological Capital: Measurement and Relationship with Performance and Satisfaction. *Personnel Psychology*, *60*(3), 541–572. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2007.00083.x

Luthans, F., Norman, S. M., Avolio, B. J., & Avey, J. B. (2008). The Mediating Role of Psychological Capital in the Supportive Organizational Climate—Employee Performance Relationship. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *29*(2), 219–238. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.507

Luthans, F., & Youssef, C. M. (2007). Emerging Positive Organizational Behavior. *Journal of Management*, *33*(3), 321–349. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206307300814

Malach-Pines, A. (2005). The Burnout Measure, Short Version. *International Journal of Stress Management*, *12*(1), 78–88. https://doi.org/10.1037/1072-5245.12.1.78

Manstead, A. S. R. (2018). The Psychology of Social Class: How Socioeconomic Status Impacts Thought, Feelings, and Behaviour. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, *57*(2), 267–291. https://doi.org/10.1111/bjso.12251

Maslach, C. (1982). *Burnout: The Cost of Caring*. Prentice-Hall.

Maslach, C. (1993). Burnout: A Multidimensional Perspective. In *Professional burnout: Recent Developments in Theory and Research* (pp. 19–32). Taylor & Francis.

Maslach, C., & Leiter, M. P. (2016). Understanding the Burnout Experience: Recent Research and its Implications for Psychiatry. *World Psychiatry*, *15*(2), 103–111. https://doi.org/10.1002/wps.20311

Newman, A., Ucbasaran, D., Zhu, F., & Hirst, G. (2014). Psychological Capital: A Review and Synthesis: Psychological Capital. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *35*(S1), S120–S138. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1916

Newton, C., Teo, S. T. T., Pick, D., Ho, M., & Thomas, D. (2016). Emotional Intelligence as a Buffer of Occupational Stress. *Personnel Review*, *45*(5), 1010–1028. https://doi.org/10.1108/PR-11-2014-0271

Ng, T. W. H., Sorensen, K. L., & Feldman, D. C. (2007). Dimensions, Antecedents, and Consequences of Workaholism: A Conceptual Integration and Extension. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 28(1), 111–136. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.424

Oates, W. (1971). *Confessions of a workaholic: The facts about work addiction*. World Publishing Co.

Otto, M. C. B., Van Ruysseveldt, J., Hoefsmit, N., & Van Dam, K. (2021). Examining the Mediating Role of Resources in the Temporal Relationship Between Proactive Burnout Prevention and Burnout. *BMC Public Health*, *21*(1), 599. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-021-10670-7

Pines, A., & Aronson, E. (1988). *Career burnout: Causes and cures*. Free Press.

Porter, G. (1996). Organizational Impact of Workaholism: Suggestions for Researching the Negative Outcomes of Excessive Work. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *1*(1), 70–84. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.1.1.70

Rudolph, C. W., Allan, B., Clark, M., Hertel, G., Hirschi, A., Kunze, F., Shockley, K., Shoss, M., Sonnentag, S., & Zacher, H. (2021). Pandemics: Implications for Research and Practice in Industrial and Organizational Psychology. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, *14*(1–2), 1–35. https://doi.org/10.1017/iop.2020.48

Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional Intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition and Personality*, *9*(3), 185–211. https://doi.org/10.2190/DUGG-P24E-52WK-6CDG

Salvagioni, D. A. J., Melanda, F. N., Mesas, A. E., González, A. D., Gabani, F. L., & Andrade, S. M. D. (2017). Physical, Psychological and Occupational Consequences of Job Burnout: A Systematic Review of Prospective Studies. *PLOS ONE*, *12*(10), e0185781. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0185781

Schaufeli, W. B., Shimazu, A., & Taris, T. W. (2009). Being Driven to Work Excessively Hard: The Evaluation of a Two-Factor Measure of Workaholism in the Netherlands and Japan. *Cross-Cultural Research*, *43*(4), 320–348. https://doi.org/10.1177/1069397109337239

Schmidt, R. W., Lamm, H., & Trommsdorff, G. (1978). Social Class and Sex as Determinants of Future Orientation (Time Perspective) in Adults. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *8*(1), 71–90. https://doi.org/10.1002/ejsp.2420080107

Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J. M., Hall, L. E., Haggerty, D. J., Cooper, J. T., Golden, C. J., & Dornheim, L. (1998). Development and Validation of a Measure of Emotional Intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *25*(2), 167–177. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869(98)00001-4

Scott, K. S., Moore, K. S., & Miceli, M. P. (1997). An Exploration of the Meaning and Consequences of Workaholism. *Human Relations*, *50*(3), 287–314. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1016986307298

Seijts, G. H. (1998). The Importance of Future Time Perspective in Theories of Work Motivation. *The Journal of Psychology*, *132*(2), 154–168. https://doi.org/10.1080/00223989809599156

Seybold, K. C., & Salomone, P. R. (1994). Understanding Workaholism: A Review of Causes and Counseling Approaches. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, *73*(1), 4–9. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6676.1994.tb01702.x

Simons, J., Vansteenkiste, M., Lens, W., & Lacante, M. (2004). Placing Motivation and Future Time Perspective Theory in a Temporal Perspective. *Educational Psychology Review*, *16*(2), 121–139. https://doi.org/10.1023/B:EDPR.0000026609.94841.2f

Stolarski, M., Bitner, J., & Zimbardo, P. G. (2011). Time Perspective, Emotional Intelligence and Discounting of Delayed Awards. *Time & Society*, *20*(3), 346–363. https://doi.org/10.1177/0961463X11414296

Sussman, S. (2012). Workaholism: A Review. *Journal of Addiction Research & Therapy*. https://doi.org/10.4172/2155-6105.S6-001

Taris, T. W., Schaufeli, W. B., & Verhoeven, L. C. (2005). Workaholism in the Netherlands: Measurement and Implications for Job Strain and Work-Nonwork Conflict. Applied Psychology, 54(1), 37–60. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.2005.00195.x

Wang, Y., Liu, L., Wang, J., & Wang, L. (2012). Work-Family Conflict and Burnout Among Chinese Doctors: The Mediating Role of Psychological Capital. *Journal of Occupational Health*, *54*(3), 232–240. https://doi.org/10.1539/joh.11-0243-OA

Zacher, H., & Frese, M. (2009). Remaining Time and Opportunities at Work: Relationships Between Age, Work Characteristics, and Occupational Future Time Perspective. *Psychology and Aging*, *24*(2), 487–493. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0015425

Zimbardo, P. G., & Boyd, J. N. (1999). Putting Time in Perspective: A Valid, Reliable Individual-Differences Metric. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *77*(6), 1271–1288. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.77.6.1271