

Emotional Demands and Alcohol Use in Corrections: A Moderated Mediation Model

Brittnie R. Shepherd, Charlotte Fritz, Leslie B. Hammer, Frankie Guros, and David Meier
Portland State University

This study examined predictors of alcohol use (i.e., drinking quantity and frequency) in a sample of correctional officers (COs). More specifically, based on the idea of drinking to cope, we predicted an indirect effect of emotional demands at work on COs' drinking through employee burnout (i.e., exhaustion and disengagement). We further proposed that this indirect effect would be moderated by recovery experiences outside of work (i.e., psychological detachment and mastery). Participants were 1,039 COs from 14 state correctional facilities. Results indicate that emotional demands were positively associated with burnout, burnout was positively associated with COs' drinking, and emotional demands had a significant indirect effect on COs' drinking through burnout. In addition, detachment moderated the indirect effect of emotional demands on drinking quantity through exhaustion (but not disengagement), whereas mastery moderated the indirect effect of emotional demands on drinking frequency through disengagement (but not exhaustion). Specifically, the strength of the indirect effects were strongest at the lowest levels of recovery experiences, suggesting that low levels of recovery from work may represent a significant risk factor for drinking to cope in COs. Therefore, COs should be encouraged to participate in activities outside of work that facilitate recovery from work demands.

Keywords: emotional demands, burnout, alcohol, recovery experiences, correctional officers

Excessive drinking is a leading cause of premature mortality in the United States, accounting for about 1 in 10 deaths among working-age adults (Stahre, Roeber, Kanny, Brewer, & Zhang, 2014). Costs of alcohol misuse in the United States have been estimated at about 223 billion a year in health care costs, lost productivity, and other costs including criminal justice expenses and motor vehicle accidents (Bouchery, Harwood, Sacks, Simon, & Brewer, 2011). Within the U.S. workforce, 75% of workers reported drinking alcohol in the past year, although only about 37% were doing so at least once per week, with 29% reporting drinking to intoxication (Frone, 2013). These findings are problematic for both employees and employers alike, considering the potential for alcohol use (particularly heavier use) to result in intoxication or hangover, and potentially spillover into the next workday. Past research has suggested that alcohol use can adversely impact safety at work (Frone, 2004; Webb et al., 1994), task as well as contextual performance (Blum, Roman, & Martin,

1993; Lehman & Simpson, 1992), attendance (Bacharach, Bamberger, & Biron, 2010; McFarlin & Fals-Stewart, 2002), interpersonal problems at work (Ames, Grube, & Moore, 1997; Mangione et al., 1999), and cognitive functioning (Finnigan, Schulze, Smallwood, & Helander, 2005; McKinney & Coyle, 2004; Verster, van Duin, Volkerts, Schreuder, & Verbaten, 2003).

Broadly, past research has suggested that individuals drink to regulate emotions (Cooper, Frone, Russell, & Mudar, 1995). Accordingly, research findings have indicated strong ties between emotions and drinking behaviors (Cooper et al., 1995), suggesting that emotional demands may be salient in the prediction of drinking behaviors. Based on these findings, this study will be the first to explicitly examine the relationship between emotional job demands and employee drinking behaviors. Past research has further indicated that emotional demands are associated with higher burnout (Bakker, Demerouti, & Euwema, 2005; Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2003; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2007). This study helps further clarify the mechanism through which job demands contribute to alcohol use by proposing burnout as a transmitting variable. Further, we propose that this process is conditional, meaning that under certain conditions, the indirect effect of emotional demands on alcohol use is stronger. Specifically, this study investigates whether low levels of recovery experiences during nonwork time (i.e., mastery and psychological detachment) function as a risk factor for correctional officers' (COs') drinking (Figure 1). Recovery experiences, that is, experiences during nonwork time that can halt resource loss or help build new psychological resources (Sonnetag & Fritz, 2007), can be important moderators in the relationship between work demands and employee strain (Sonnetag & Fritz, 2015). By examining the moderating role of recovery experiences, our study helps answer the call for research considering additional moderators in the

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Brittnie R. Shepherd, Charlotte Fritz, Leslie B. Hammer, Frankie Guros, and David Meier, Department of Psychology, Portland State University.

Frankie Guros is now at Facebook, Menlo Park, CA. David Meier is now at The Institute for Learning Innovation, Portland, OR.

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Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Charlotte Fritz, Department of Psychology, Portland State University, 317 Cramer Hall 1721 SW Broadway, Portland, OR 97201-0751. E-mail: fritz@pdx.edu

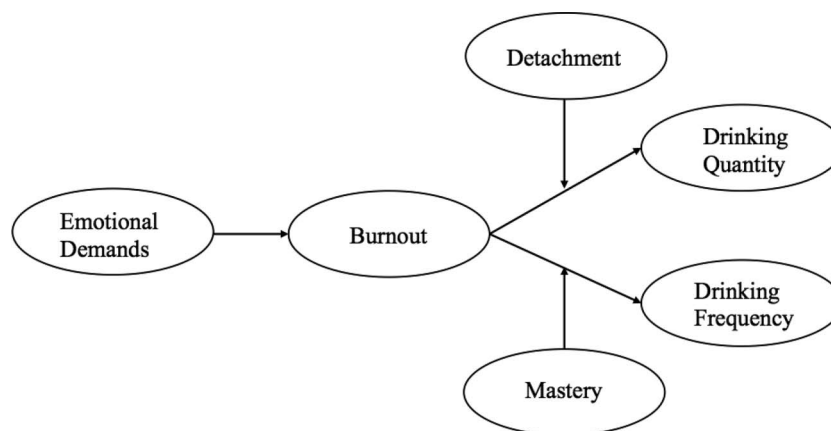


Figure 1. Conceptual model—conditional effects of recovery experiences on the indirect relationship between emotional demands and drinking outcomes.

relationship between work demands, strain, and alcohol use (Frone, 2008, 2015).

This study focuses on drinking in the correctional setting—an understudied but high-risk work setting. Work in corrections has been associated with numerous psychosocial risk factors such as high workload, underutilization of knowledge and skills, and emotionally demanding relationships with inmates, colleagues, and supervisors (Schaufeli & Peeters, 2000). Due to the emotionally demanding nature of the job that COs perform, they may be at greater risk for various health and strain-related problems such as excessive alcohol use. Accordingly, Morse, Dusssetschleger, Warren, and Cherniack (2011) reported that within their sample 11.1% of COs reported drinking 15 or more drinks per week. This estimate is particularly concerning given it is more than double the U.S. population estimate (4.8%; National Center for Health Statistics, 2010).

Job Demands and Drinking

Job demands refer to aspects of the job that require sustained effort and as such, are associated with psychological or physiological costs when demands exceed an employee's capacity to deal with them (Demerouti, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2005). Alcohol use is commonly assessed via drink quantity (i.e., number of drinks consumed within a specified time period) and drinking frequency (i.e., how often one is drinking). Past research is inconsistent regarding direct effects of various job demands on alcohol use at the between-person level (Chen & Cunradi, 2008; Frone, 2003) and may depend heavily on the temporal context of the measures (Frone, 2008). Our study focused on emotional job demands, sometimes called high emotional load (Van Veldhoven & Meijman, 1994), and alcohol use. Emotional job demands require employees to deal with emotionally charged situations or events, such as emotionally demanding interactions with clients or co-workers (Van Veldhoven & Meijman, 1994).

Emotional Demands and Burnout

We propose that emotional job demands are associated with COs' alcohol use through the experience of burnout. Burnout, as

defined by Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, and Schaufeli (2001), refers to feelings of exhaustion and disengagement in response to chronic workplace demands. Exhaustion has been suggested to be at the core, and refers to feelings of being depleted of one's emotional and physical resources (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Disengagement refers to distancing oneself from work and often involves employees endorsing negative attitudes toward their work and demonstrating decreased willingness to continue working in the same occupation (Demerouti & Bakker, 2008). The job demands-resources model categorizes characteristics of the work environment into either demands or resources and posits that they both contribute to independent psychological processes (Demerouti et al., 2001). Within this framework, burnout occurs as a result of two processes. First, continuous job demands lead to overtaxing and eventually, exhaustion. Second, a lack of resources (both job and personal resources) further impedes meeting job demands, leading to eventual disengagement (Demerouti et al., 2001; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Dollard, et al., 2007). Accordingly, past research has indicated that burnout results from prolonged exposure to emotional demands (Bakker et al., 2003, 2005; Naisberg-Fennig, Fennig, Keinan, & Elizur, 1991; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Therefore, we propose that the experience of high levels of emotional job demands in the correctional setting will be associated with high levels of burnout in COs.

Hypothesis 1: Emotional demands will be positively related to burnout.

Emotional Demands, Burnout, and Alcohol Use

Past research has suggested that burnout is a risk factor for problematic forms of alcohol use (Cunradi, Greiner, Ragland, & Fisher, 2003; Maslach, 1978; Pedersen, Sørensen, Bruun, Christensen, & Vedsted, 2016; Weir, Stewart, & Morris, 2012). Burnout occurs as a result of both an accumulation of demands and a lack of available resources and is often considered a state of resource depletion. Emotionally demanding jobs require employees to continually self-regulate, which has been defined as the self's efforts to control and alter its behaviors (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Muraven, & Tice, 1998). The ego-depletion model (Baumeister et al.,

1998) proposes that self-regulatory capacity is limited; as self-regulatory efforts are expended individuals are less able to exercise self-regulation on subsequent tasks. In other words, as individuals exercise self-regulation throughout the day dealing with job demands, their ability to continue to do so is reduced, resulting in ego depletion and potentially burnout. Baumeister (2002) suggested that burnout may be one example of ego depletion manifested in the workplace. When self-regulatory capacity is diminished, behaviors seem to be predominantly influenced by more automatic attitudes. In contrast, high levels of self-regulatory capacity increase personal restraint standards (Hofmann, Rauch, & Gawronski, 2007). Thus, self-regulatory capacity is important in determining behavior that may be somewhat automatic but requires some restraint such as alcohol use, particularly alcohol use as a coping method. Some research has found that exposure to stress and negative affect may enhance the automaticity of drinking to cope (Field & Powell, 2007; Ostafin & Brooks, 2011). Further, some research has indicated that when individuals are required to regulate or suppress their thoughts, the likelihood of alcohol use increases (Muraven, Collins, & Neinhaus, 2002). COs reporting high levels of burnout may be more likely to drink alcohol because they are less able to regulate their drinking behaviors due to diminished self-regulatory capacity. Thus, we propose that the experience of high levels of burnout among COs will be associated with higher drinking quantity as well as higher drinking frequency (Figure 1).

Hypothesis 2a-b: Burnout will be positively related to drinking quantity (H2a) and drinking frequency (H2b).

Hypothesis 3a-b: Emotional demands will be indirectly related to both drinking quantity (H3a) and drinking frequency (H3b) through burnout.

The Role of Recovery Experiences

Recovery experiences during nonwork time represent psychological processes facilitated by activities that lead to the recovery of personal resources (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). Although alcohol use in and of itself may be an activity that facilitates recovery experiences, its pharmacological and physiological effects complicate the relationship. Considering that alcohol is biphasic, it has both stimulating and sedating effects on an individual (Martin, Earleywine, Musty, Perrine, & Swift, 1993). Although sedating effects may spur recovery experiences such as relaxation and detachment, stimulating effects may actually narrow focus to salient problems, increase strain, and interfere with sleep. This study focuses on two specific recovery experiences, namely, mastery (i.e., challenging experiences that stimulate learning and growth) and psychological detachment (i.e., not being occupied by work-related thoughts or demands while not at work), proposing that they are important in the context of employee drinking due to their links with affect and self-regulatory capacity.

As mentioned, self-regulatory capacity is necessary for the regulation of behaviors and emotions especially those that require restraint, such as alcohol use. Research has suggested that self-regulatory capacity can be replenished when regulation of behaviors or emotions is avoided (Meijman & Mulder, 1998). Baumeister and colleagues (1998) likened this process to allowing a muscle to rest so that it can regain strength. Similarly, employees who

engage in more recovery experiences during nonwork time may be less likely to drink as a response to demands and burnout because they are able to replenish their self-regulatory capacity diminished as a result of demanding work. Availability of self-regulatory capacity then enhances their ability to regulate and potentially resist more problematic, or automatic, forms of drinking.

Employees high in burnout may also drink alcohol because they believe that drinking can help regulate their emotions, particularly by decreasing negative affect and increasing positive affect (Cooper et al., 1995). Mood repair is considered a core function of recovery from work demands. Accordingly, both psychological detachment and mastery have been linked to increased positive mood (Fritz, Sonnentag, Spector, & McInroe, 2010; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). Thus, employees may drink less when they have higher levels of recovery experiences, as they may experience fewer negative emotions that they need to regulate or “repair.” Thus, recovery experiences may serve as a protective factor against more problematic forms of alcohol use such as drinking to cope.

Psychological Detachment From Work as a Moderator

Psychological detachment from work during nonwork time refers to a sense of being away from work by disengaging mentally from work, not being occupied by work demands during nonwork time, not engaging in work tasks while not at work, and not ruminating about work problems or opportunities (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). Exhausted employees tend to report detaching less from work (Sonnentag, Arbeus, Mahn, & Fritz, 2014). Furthermore, detachment can act as a buffer against demands that deplete regulatory capacity. For example, Rivkin, Diestel, and Schmidt (2015) found that detachment attenuates the positive relationship between self-control demands and psychological strain (i.e., the experience of ego depletion and need for recovery). Detachment is not typically associated with self-regulation unless the individual has to actively try to detach and avoid thoughts about work (Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005). Because detachment during nonwork time provides the opportunity to distance oneself from work demands that require self-regulation, this experience allows for the replenishment of self-regulatory capacity (Baumeister et al., 1998). In the context of the ego-depletion model (Baumeister et al., 1998), the self-regulatory “muscle” may become fatigued; detachment may allow for the rest that the self-regulatory muscle needs to return to its full strength. We argue that being able to detach during time away from work is most important for drinking quantity because self-regulatory capacity may be more relevant to how much one drinks in one sitting rather than how often one is drinking. Accordingly, research has indicated that high self-regulation is negatively related to heavy episodic drinking, meaning those who have higher self-regulation tend to drink less when drinking (Quinn & Fromme, 2010).

Psychological detachment may also increase affective or emotional resources, which may further decrease drinking. Research has found that greater detachment during nonwork time was associated with increases in positive affect and decreases in negative affect (Sonnentag, Mojza, Binnewies, & Scholl, 2008) as well as increases in specific positive emotions including joviality and serenity (Fritz et al., 2010). Detachment has also been found to interact with negative affect at work to predict negative affect at

home, such that negative affect at home was lower when detachment was high (Sonnentag & Binnewies, 2013). Other research has demonstrated that detachment interacts with work engagement to predict positive affect such that employees high in both work engagement and detachment report higher positive affective states (Sonnentag, Binnewies, & Mojza, 2008). Reviewing past research on detachment from work during nonwork time, Sonnentag and Fritz (2015) suggested that detachment can act as a buffer between job demands and employee strain and decreased well-being. Building on these findings, we propose that the strength of the indirect effect of emotional demands on COs' drinking quantity through the mechanism of burnout is contingent on levels of psychological detachment (Figure 1).

Hypothesis 4: Psychological detachment will moderate the strength of the indirect effect of emotional demands on drinking quantity via burnout such that the indirect effect will be stronger when detachment is low.

Mastery as a Moderator

Mastery experiences refer to experiences during nonwork time that pose a challenge and provide learning opportunities, such as climbing a mountain or cooking a new recipe (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). Although mastery experiences may require some self-regulation, they provide opportunities to build psychological resources—such as positive affect (Sonnentag et al., 2008)—that help alleviate some of the negative effects of burnout. Specifically, gains in psychological resources may allow individuals to better cope with job demands and burnout. In addition, mastery experiences are often associated with preferred activities that provide enjoyment.

Previous research around alcohol use has suggested that one reason individuals may drink is to improve mood (Cooper et al., 1995). If employees have high levels of mastery experiences, they may be building emotional resources that can serve as a protective factor against drinking. Previous research investigating the interactive effects of mastery experiences and job demands has indicated that mastery buffers the impact of job demands on need for recovery (Siltaloppi, Kinnunen, & Feldt, 2009). In addition, mastery, conceptualized as a coping resource, has been found to interact with psychological distress to positively predict drinking to cope motivation, meaning that individuals reporting low levels of mastery experiences are more likely to drink as a response to stress and negative affect, (i.e., drinking to cope, Cooper, Russell, & Frone, 1990).

Mastery experiences during nonwork time may be especially important when examining drinking frequency because activities that promote mastery experiences are often challenging and require one's full attention. Mastery distracts and occupies an individual, which may inhibit drinking because employees are instead spending their time engaging in mastery-related activities. In contrast, we expect that when an individual does decide to drink, they are less likely to engage in challenging, mastery-inducing experiences. This is because alcohol impairs cognitive functioning, including ability to concentrate (Finnigan et al., 2005), and memory retrieval and alertness (Verster et al., 2003), which may make it difficult to persevere in challenging or unfamiliar tasks. Therefore, we hypothesize that the indirect effect of emotional demands on

drinking frequency through burnout is contingent on an individual's disinclination for mastery experiences.

Hypothesis 5: Mastery will moderate the strength of the indirect effect of emotional demands on drinking frequency via burnout such that the indirect effect will be stronger when mastery is low.

Method

Participants and Procedure

COs were recruited from all 14 state correctional facilities in one U.S. state. Officers received an e-mail from the Assistant Director of Operations inviting them to participate in a survey examining work strain among COs. The e-mail included a link to the online survey, as well as instructions to request a paper copy if preferred. Subsequent reminder e-mails were sent by the superintendent of each facility to their respective facility, a labor union representative, and a member of the State's department of corrections research department. Once the invitations were sent, officers had 2 weeks to complete the survey. For officers who participated via the online link, responses were sent directly to the researchers. Officers who requested paper copies returned their survey via a prepaid return envelope sent through the mail. All survey responses were anonymous.

At the time of data collection, there were 2,461 COs employed by the state. The overall sample consisted of 1,370 participants for a response rate of 54%. Of this group, 39 respondents were excluded for indicating that they did not work as security staff, meaning they did not hold the title correctional officer, corporal, sergeant, lieutenant, or captain. Another 14 respondents were excluded for indicating that they worked in the transport unit, because these employees are not actually within a correctional facility day-to-day and may have different job demands and experiences. Participants who indicated that they drank zero days in the past month were also excluded ($N = 278$; 21% of the sample) because nondrinkers are unlikely to use alcohol to cope, and therefore inclusion of their responses would attenuate the predicted effects (Cooper et al., 1990). These exclusions reduced the sample size to $N = 1,039$.

Participating COs were predominantly Caucasian (84%) and male (83%). The majority were married (71%) and about half (53%) reported some college experience; however, only 28% actually held a college degree. Officers worked within a range of security levels including minimum (30%), medium (51%), and maximum security (19%). They worked 42.84 ($SD 6.22$) hr per week on average, with the majority working day shifts (around 45%), followed by swing shifts (around 35%) and night shifts (around 21%). On average, officers reported working in corrections for 11.91 ($SD 7.03$) years and working in their current facility for 9.19 ($SD 6.37$) years. Although all officers included in these analyses reported drinking alcohol at least one day a month, six percent reported drinking every day. In addition, nine percent of officers reported drinking five or more drinks on the same day at least five times in the past month, which is considered heavy drinking by the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration ([SAMHSA] 2015), although definitions do vary. It is estimated that about seven percent of U.S. adults are heavy

drinkers (SAMHSA, 2015); therefore, these estimates indicate that there is an inordinate amount of heavy drinking occurring within corrections.

Measures

All measures asked respondents to consider the past month as the timeframe when answering the survey items. All measures showed acceptable internal consistency α s of above .70.

Emotional demands. Three items were used to assess emotional job demands (Van Veldhoven & Meijman, 1994). Items were measured on a 5-point rating scale, ranging from 1 (*very rarely or never*) to 5 (*several times an hour*). Sample items include “Did your work put you in emotionally upsetting situations?” and “Did your work demand a lot from you emotionally?” Cronbach’s α for the scale was .90.

Burnout. Burnout was measured with the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (Demerouti, Bakker, Vardakou, & Kantas, 2003), which contains two subscales. The Exhaustion subscale consists of eight items on a 5-point rating scale, ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*very much*). A sample item was “After my work, I usually felt worn out and weary.” Cronbach’s α for the scale was .85. The Disengagement subscale also consists of eight items on a 5-point rating scale, ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*very much*). A sample item was “Sometimes I felt really sick about my work tasks.” Cronbach’s α for the scale was .75. Four items from each subscale have been reverse coded.

Alcohol use. Alcohol use over the past month was assessed with two independent items. Self-reported frequency of drinking was assessed with the item “On how many days did you consume alcohol?” Quantity was assessed with the item “When you did drink, how many drinks did you have in a day?” Participants were instructed that one drink referred to either 12 oz of beer, 5 oz of wine, or 1.5 oz of liquor (National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism, 2004).

Recovery experiences. The Recovery Experience Questionnaire (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007) was used to measure mastery and psychological detachment experiences during nonwork time. Each subscale consists of four items on a 5-point rating scale, ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*very much*). A sample item from the Mastery scale was “Outside of work in the past month, I sought out mental challenges.” Cronbach’s α for the subscale was .86. A

sample item from the Psychological Detachment scale was “Outside of work in the past month, I forgot about my work.” Cronbach’s α for the scale was .74.

Control variables. Several control variables were included: gender, age, and work shift. Past research has indicated that alcohol use differs between individuals based on a number of demographic variables. For instance, women are less likely to drink alcohol in response to strain than men (Pohorecky, 1991). Second, alcohol use has been shown to vary by age. Younger individuals and college students may drink more and more frequently than older individuals (SAMHSA, 2015). In addition, younger individuals may endorse different motives for drinking relative to their older counterparts (Maisto, Carey, & Bradizza, 1999). Finally, shiftwork may also influence alcohol use. Specifically, employees may engage in more drinking to cope with the negative consequences of shiftwork (e.g., sleep problems, disruption of nonwork life, increases in fatigue, and mental health disorders like anxiety; Harrington, 2001). Accordingly, our results indicate that working the night shift (compared with the day shift) was related to higher drinking quantity. All of the included control variables were significantly associated with at least one of the dependent variables in our study.

Results

Table 1 presents descriptive statistics, bivariate correlations, and reliability coefficients. Hypotheses were tested using the SPSS macro PROCESS (Hayes, 2013) utilizing bias-corrected bootstrapping with 5,000 resamples to account for the nonnormal distribution in the outcome variables. All hypothesis tests included the covariates age, gender, and work shift. Due to the natural nesting of officers within different facilities, we calculated intraclass correlation coefficient values and found them to be at or near zero, indicating that it was not necessary to apply multilevel modeling (Bliese & Jex, 2002).

Hypothesis Testing

Hypotheses 1–3 were tested using PROCESS Model 4 (Hayes, 2013). Results indicated that emotional demands were positively associated with both burnout dimensions (exhaustion $b = .40$, $SE = .03$, $p < .001$; disengagement $b = .18$, $SE = .03$, $p < .001$),

Table 1
Means, Standard Deviations, and Zero-Order Correlations of Study Variables

Variable	M (SD)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Age	43.60 (9.60)	—									
2. Gender	0.17 (0.38)	0	—								
3. Work shift	1.76 (0.77)	-.21**	-.02	—							
4. Drinking frequency	7.72 (8.36)	.04	-.11*	-.07	—						
5. Drinking quantity	3.01 (2.33)	-.15**	-.07	.14**	.19**	—					
6. Emotional demands	2.89 (1.03)	-.04	.02	-.05	.12**	.14**	(.90)				
7. Exhaustion	3.17 (0.75)	-.05	-.01	-.06	.15**	.18**	.54**	(.85)			
8. Disengagement	3.09 (0.70)	-.05	-.11*	.03	.21**	.12**	.26**	.56**	(.75)		
9. Detachment	3.10 (0.92)	-.01	.02	.09*	-.10*	-.15**	-.28**	-.44**	-.13**	(.74)	
10. Mastery	2.97 (1.00)	-.05	.10*	.02	-.17**	-.16**	-.20**	-.40**	-.32**	.44**	(.86)

Note. Values on the diagonal represent Cronbach’s α for the measures. Gender was coded as follows: 0 = male; 1 = female.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

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indicating support for Hypothesis 1. Both burnout dimensions were also positively associated with drinking frequency (exhaustion $b = 1.30$, $SE = .60$, $p = .03$; disengagement $b = 2.22$, $SE = .56$, $p < .001$); however, only exhaustion was significantly associated with drinking quantity (exhaustion $b = .35$, $SE = .16$, $p = .03$; disengagement $b = .21$, $SE = .15$, $p = .17$). The disengagement dimension of burnout was not significantly related to drinking quantity, providing only partial support for Hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 3 proposed that emotional demands would be indirectly related to both drinking outcomes through burnout. Past research has suggested that our measure of burnout is composed of two distinct dimensions (Demerouti & Bakker, 2008). Therefore, we examined each dimension as a separate mediator. We found that the indirect effect of emotional demands on drinking quantity was significant through exhaustion (indirect effect = .14; 95% bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval [95% BC CI]: [.02, .27]), but not through disengagement (indirect effect = .04; 95% BC CI: [-.015, .096]). These results provide partial support for Hypothesis 3a. A test of the indirect effect of emotional demands on drinking frequency was significant through both exhaustion (indirect effect = .52; 95% BC CI: [.07, .100]) and disengagement (indirect effect = .41; 95% BC CI: [.179, .730]), providing support for Hypothesis 3b. These results suggest that for COs, high emotional demands contribute to drinking through the mechanism of burnout; however, burnout dimensions do not have the same relationship with different drinking outcomes.

Hypotheses 4 and 5 were tested using PROCESS Model 14 (Hayes, 2013) specifying 5,000 bias-corrected bootstrapped samples. This model is a conditional process model that examines whether the indirect effect of emotional demands on drinking through burnout is conditional on recovery experiences (Figure 1). If the indirect effect of emotional demands on drinking differs as a function of recovery experiences, we have found support for the hypothesis that recovery experiences moderate the proposed indirect effect.

Results for Hypothesis 4 indicated a positive relationship between emotional demands and exhaustion ($b = .40$, $p < .001$) and that the effect of exhaustion on drinking quantity was contingent on detachment ($b = -.24$, $p < .05$). To determine whether the

indirect effect was also contingent on detachment, we used PROCESS to calculate the index of moderated mediation. We found that the confidence intervals did not contain zero (index = $-.10$, 95% BC CI: [-.191, -.007]), suggesting that detachment moderates the indirect effect on drinking quantity. We then investigated conditional indirect effects at varying levels of detachment. Results indicated that the indirect effect of emotional demands via exhaustion existed only among those very low in detachment ($a * b = .22$, 95% BC CI: [.009, .434]). The indirect effect was not, however, significant at low to very high levels of detachment (Table 2). As Figure 2 illustrates, the strength of the indirect effect was above zero at only the lowest values of psychological detachment. This finding suggests that relatively greater emotional demands seem to contribute to more exhaustion, which is linked to higher drinking quantity among those reporting very low levels of psychological detachment from work. When examining this model with disengagement as a mediator, we found that higher levels of emotional demands were associated with greater disengagement ($b = .17$, $p < .001$); there was no evidence of a statistically significant interaction between disengagement and detachment predicting drinking quantity ($b = .06$, $p = .71$). Furthermore, confidence intervals for the index of moderated mediation contained zero (index = .01, 95% BC CI: [-.040, .071]). Thus, although detachment seemed to moderate the direct and indirect effects through exhaustion, there was no evidence of moderation of either the direct or indirect effect through the mediator disengagement. Considering that we only found evidence for moderation of the indirect effect through one of the two dimensions of burnout, these results provide only partial support for Hypothesis 4.

To test Hypothesis 5, we followed the same steps to investigate whether mastery experiences moderated the indirect effect of emotional demands on drinking frequency. We found that mastery experiences neither moderated the direct relationship between exhaustion and drinking frequency ($b = -.61$, $p = .18$) nor the indirect relationship between emotional demands and drinking frequency through exhaustion (index = $-.24$, 95% BC CI: [-.620, .087]). However, when examining the disengagement dimension of burnout, we found that the effect of disengagement on drinking frequency was contingent on mastery ($b = -1.04$, $p <$

Table 2
Unstandardized Indirect Effect Estimates at Varying Levels of Recovery Experiences

Levels of recovery experiences	Exhaustion				Disengagement			
	Effect	(boot) SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI	Effect	(boot) SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Outcome: Drinking quantity								
Very low detachment	.22	.12	.009	.434	.02	.05	-.074	.116
Low detachment	.17	.09	-.004	.349	.03	.04	-.046	.102
Moderate detachment	.12	.08	-.027	.271	.03	.03	-.024	.093
High detachment	.05	.07	-.089	.180	.04	.03	-.011	.096
Very high detachment	0	.07	-.150	.142	.04	.03	-.020	.112
Outcome: Drinking frequency								
Very low mastery	.62	.40	-.142	1.433	.60	.23	.207	1.115
Low mastery	.50	.34	-.134	1.171	.51	.19	.188	.921
Moderate mastery	.32	.26	-.166	.845	.36	.13	.135	.661
High mastery	.14	.24	-.327	.621	.22	.12	.016	.471
Very high mastery	.02	.27	-.521	.546	.12	.13	-.129	.393

Note. Table reports the unstandardized estimates from PROCESS (Hayes, 2013). BootLLCI = bootstrapped lower limit confidence interval; BootULCI = bootstrapped upper limit confidence interval.

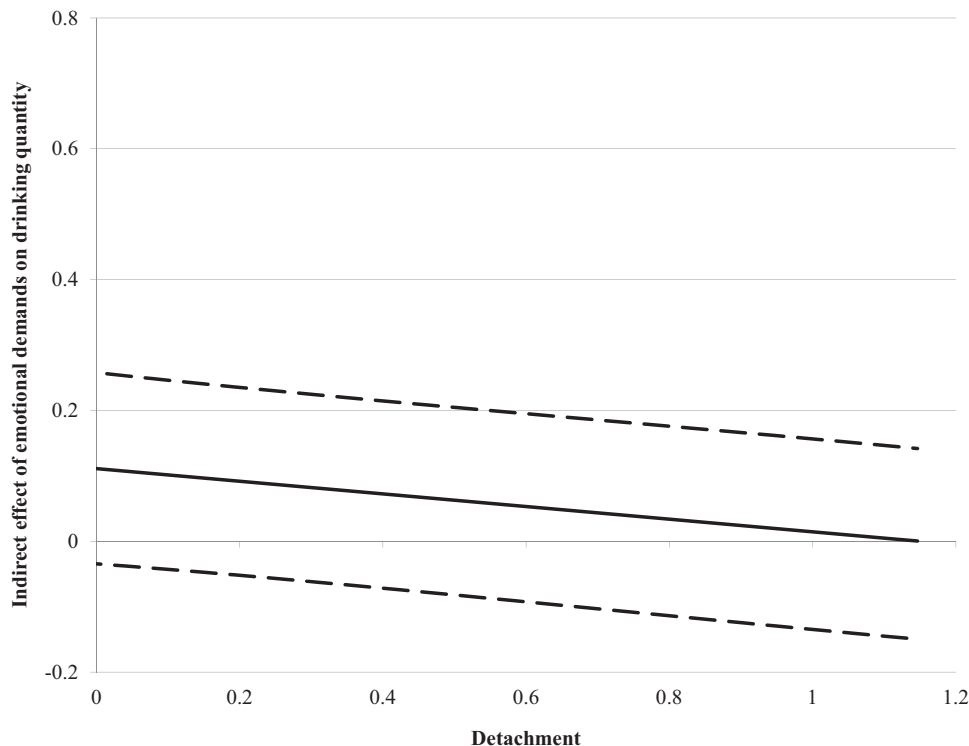


Figure 2. Strength of the unstandardized conditional effect of detachment on the indirect effect of emotional demands on drinking quantity through exhaustion.

.05). Furthermore, the confidence intervals for the index of moderated mediation did not contain zero (index = $-.19$, $SE = .10$, 95% BC CI: $[-.432, -.021]$), indicating that mastery also moderated the indirect effect of emotional demands on drinking frequency through the disengagement dimension of burnout (but not through exhaustion). Examination of the conditional indirect effects at varying levels of mastery revealed a significant indirect effect at very low (10th percentile), low (25th percentile), medium (50th percentile), and high (75th percentile) levels of mastery ($a * b = .60, .51, .36$, and $.22$, respectively) but not at very high levels of mastery (Table 2). As Figure 3 demonstrates, at the lowest levels of mastery the strength of the indirect effect was strongest, and at the highest levels the effect was no longer significant. These findings suggest that very high levels of mastery may protect against drinking to cope with emotional demands, whereas very low levels strengthen the effect and may represent a significant risk factor. Again, considering that support was found for one dimension of burnout only, these findings provide only partial support for Hypothesis 5.

Additional Analyses

Given the high correlation between both burnout dimensions ($r = .56$), we conducted additional analyses to further explore the relationships between burnout and drinking outcomes. When both burnout dimensions were included in the model as parallel mediators, the pattern of results remained the same for detachment as a moderator. Specifically, detachment moderated the direct and indirect effect on drinking frequency through exhaustion (but not

disengagement), and the conditional indirect effect was significant only at very low levels of detachment. When both mediators were included in the model together, mastery no longer moderated the direct or indirect effect of emotional demands through either burnout dimension. Thus, when controlling for the other mediator in the model, the effects for the disengagement dimension became nonsignificant, which may suggest that exhaustion plays a bigger role than disengagement in the association between emotional demands, drinking, and recovery experiences.

Discussion

This study examined relationships between emotional job demands, burnout, and drinking. As proposed we found that emotional demands were positively related to burnout (i.e., exhaustion and disengagement), and burnout was positively related to drinking behaviors. Furthermore, the association between emotional demands and drinking frequency was indirect through both exhaustion and disengagement, whereas the association between emotional demands and drinking quantity was indirect through exhaustion only. Burnout may represent a state of resource depletion, making it harder for employees to regulate behavior, including alcohol use. Thus, emotionally demanding work is associated with greater levels of burnout (particularly the exhaustion component of burnout), which is linked to greater levels of drinking.

Our findings further indicate that these indirect effects are contingent on the level of specific recovery experiences outside of work. Specifically, we found that psychological detachment from work during nonwork time moderated the indirect effect of emo-

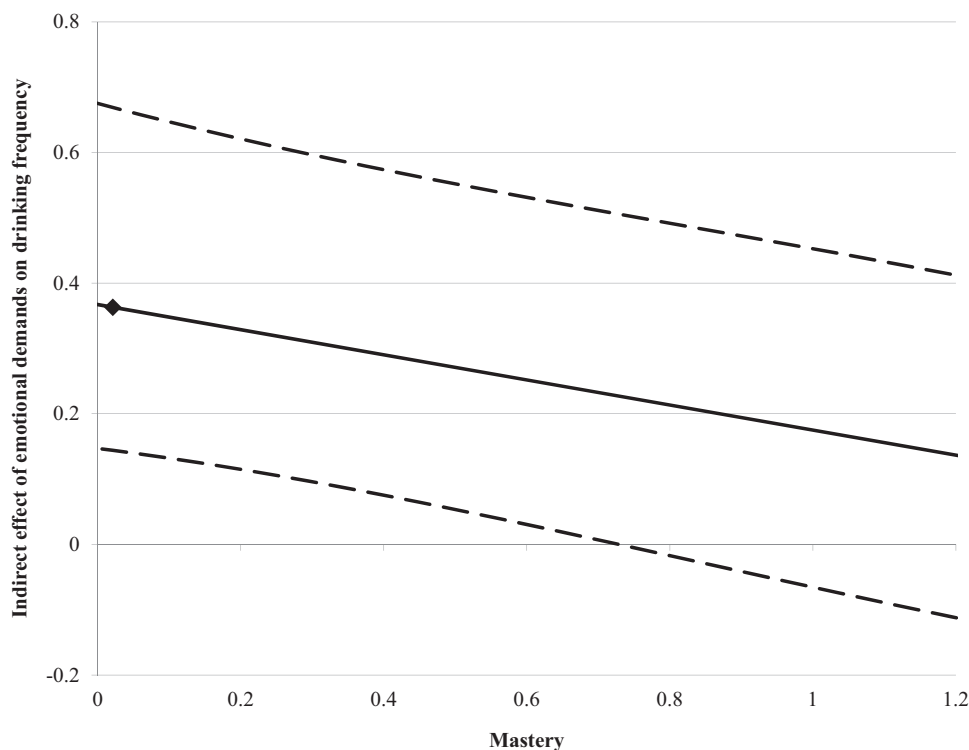


Figure 3. Strength of the unstandardized conditional effect of mastery on the indirect effect of emotional demands on drinking frequency through disengagement.

tional demands on drinking quantity through exhaustion (but not disengagement). Furthermore, the indirect effect of emotional demands on drinking quantity is strongest (and significant) at very low levels of detachment, but diminishes as detachment increases. Therefore, COs who are able to detach from work during nonwork time may be less at risk for drinking to cope with emotionally demanding work.

Our findings further indicate that mastery experiences moderated the indirect effect of emotional demands on drinking frequency through disengagement (but not exhaustion). When examining conditional indirect effects, the indirect effects were significant at very low to high levels of mastery, but not at very high levels. This finding suggests that those with the least opportunities to engage in mastery experiences are most at risk for drinking to cope, whereas this effect does not necessarily exist for those who are very high in mastery experiences. These findings help to illuminate the role of recovery from work in drinking to cope with emotionally demanding work and its associated strain. We see that the indirect effect of emotional demands on drinking behaviors depends both on the dimension of burnout specified and on recovery experiences outside of work.

Contributions

Our findings contribute to past research in several ways. First, this study examined a potential pathway through which emotional job demands within the correctional setting can be linked to alcohol use. No research thus far has examined emo-

tional job demands as a predictor of employee drinking despite evidence that individuals are largely motivated to drink to regulate emotions (Cooper et al., 1995). This is of particular importance given the relevance of emotional job demands within the corrections occupation (Schaufeli & Peeters, 2000). Second, this study helps to further clarify the process through which job demands influence drinking outcomes. Past research is inconsistent regarding a direct link between many examined job demands and drinking outcomes, particularly at the between-person level. We found that emotional demands were not directly related to either drinking outcome. However, they were indirectly related through burnout and that the specific dimension of burnout matters. A third contribution is the examination of two previously unexamined moderators in the relationship between work demands, strain indicators, and drinking. The indirect effect of emotional demands on different drinking outcomes was found to be contingent on the recovery experiences detachment and mastery. Broadly, these indirect effects were strongest at the lowest levels of recovery experiences, suggesting that a lack of detachment and/or mastery experiences poses a risk for drinking to cope as a result of job demands and strain.

Although we expected that the drinking outcome would matter when considering these different recovery experiences, an unexpected contribution was finding that the burnout dimension also mattered. Although exhaustion seems to be related to both drinking quantity and drinking frequency, disengagement does not appear to be related to drinking quantity, at least within the

context of this study, pointing to the importance of separating these dimensions in research examining burnout and alcohol use. A final contribution of this research is its focus on COs. Considering that COs have been identified as an occupational group that engages in much higher rates of problematic drinking compared with the general population (Morse et al., 2011), it is important for researchers to identify aspects of the corrections environment that contribute to these elevated drinking levels, as well as ways to potentially mitigate their influences.

Practical Implications

In jobs like corrections, emotionally demanding situations are inevitable due to the human services nature of the job. Finding that exhaustion and disengagement are two mechanisms through which these types of demands are associated with employee alcohol use provides another avenue through which to intervene and potentially decrease drinking to cope with job demands. Attempts to reduce employee emotional job demands may decrease the incidence of burnout as well as alcohol use, and perhaps other poor health behaviors. Considering that emotionally demanding interactions at work cannot be fully eliminated within correctional facilities, COs should be taught how to effectively cope with and process emotionally demanding interactions. Within corrections, one coping mechanism in particular, positive comparisons across job types, has been shown to decrease COs' work-related stress (Triplett, Mullings, & Scarborough, 1996). Another way that organizations can decrease COs' demands is through reduced inmate-staff ratios (Triplett et al., 1996). Martin, Lichtenstein, Jenkot, and Forde (2012) suggested that understaffing in correctional facilities is associated with high levels of stress and impaired job performance.

This study also found support for a conditional process model in which specific recovery experiences moderated the indirect effect of emotional demands on drinking behaviors through burnout. This knowledge can inform workplace intervention efforts aimed at decreasing drinking to cope with work demands and alcohol use more broadly. Creating opportunities for employees to recover from their work demands may be useful for reducing drinking. Organizations can help facilitate recovery experiences by providing opportunities for a "time-out" during or after especially stressful interactions or situations (Triplett et al., 1996) and by limiting communication with employees outside of work hours. Some research has suggested that communication technology use at home for work purposes impairs an employee's ability to effectively psychologically detach from work (Barber & Jenkins, 2014). In addition, correctional facilities should hire more employees to deal with understaffing issues (Martin et al., 2012) to allow employees enough time away from work in between work shifts. Some recent research has indicated that extended work availability is associated with fewer daily recovery experiences and impaired well-being (Dettmers, Vahle-Hinz, Bamberg, Friedrich, & Keller, 2016). There is also some evidence to suggest that recovery training is effective for increasing the occurrence of recovery experiences, as well as reducing the impact of both perceived stress and negative affect (Hahn, Binnewies, Sonnentag, & Mojza, 2011).

Individuals can also take action to enhance recovery experiences by engaging in enjoyable leisure time activities outside of work.

Some research has suggested that volunteering may promote mastery experiences (Mojza, Lorenz, Sonnentag, & Binnewies, 2010). Finally, our findings may also help identify COs most susceptible to problematic forms of drinking, particularly those with high levels of emotional demands and lower levels of mastery and detachment. This information can help correctional facilities target which COs would benefit most when developing organizational interventions to decrease problematic forms of COs' drinking.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Despite its contributions, this study has a number of limitations that should be addressed in future research. First, the sole use of self-reports increased the risk for common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003) and misreporting, especially for health-related variables such as drinking quantities, which tend to be underreported (Stockwell et al., 2004). Although overall self-report assessments of alcohol have been demonstrated to be a valid and reliable approach to measuring alcohol use, they could be improved by adding or supplementing self-report assessments with other types of reports such as spouse or social network reports of employee drinking.

A second limitation was the cross-sectional research design. Cross-sectional designs do not allow causal inferences to be drawn; therefore, explanations of reverse causation cannot be ruled out. However, past research utilizing designs more suited for detecting causal relationships find that many daily work demands are significantly related to alcohol consumption (Butler, Dodge, & Faurote, 2010; Carney, Armeli, Tennen, Affleck, & O'Neil, 2000; Grzywacz & Almeida, 2008; Park, Armeli, & Tennen, 2004; Wang, Liu, Zhan, & Shi, 2010). Considering that both alcohol use (Armeli, Todd, & Mohr, 2005; Liu, Wang, Zhan, & Shi, 2009; Mohr et al., 2001, 2005; Wang et al., 2010) and recovery experiences (Sonnentag et al., 2008) vary day to day, a daily diary design may be most appropriate to capture how recovery experiences influence drinking.

Third, the unique setting of this study, corrections, may limit the generalizability of our findings. However, almost half a million people are employed as COs in the United States (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2016), indicating the relevance of studying this at-risk occupational group. Furthermore, our findings may generalize to occupational groups with similar job demands such as police officers and active-duty military personnel.

Finally, future research should examine alcohol use as a potential part of recovery from work. Although recovery experiences may impact the relationship between employee strain and drinking behavior, it is possible that light to moderate drinking actually facilitates recovery experiences, such as relaxation. Therefore, future research should investigate not only costs but also potential benefits of (moderate) alcohol use during nonwork time for employee outcomes. In addition, we need a better understanding of why the examined recovery experiences seem to interact with different aspects of burnout to predict alcohol use instead of exerting similar effects.

Unfortunately, our measures of alcohol use did not differentiate between drinking at work and drinking outside of work. Although we assume that at least the majority of drinks were consumed after work or on days off due to the difficulty of bringing alcohol into a correctional facility, it is possible that COs were also drinking

before work, which may have additional implications for workplace outcomes such as safety (Ames et al., 1997). It is therefore imperative that future research utilize temporally specific alcohol use measures to gain a clearer picture of drinking behaviors (Frone, 2008).

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