Blue Monday, Yellow Friday?

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Blue Monday, Yellow Friday? Investigating Work Anticipation as an Explanatory Mechanism and Boundary Conditions of Weekly Affect Trajectories

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Affective well-being of employees is a key outcome in the occupational health literature. Yet, researchers of emotions and affect have long called for a better understanding of the dynamic nature of such experiences. Directly addressing this call, we have built on temporal schema theories and the notion of temporal depth to develop and test the anticipation of work account as a theoretical explanation of systematic weekly change patterns in positive and negative affect. Using a 7-day experience-sampling design and latent growth curve modeling, we hypothesized and found that anticipation of work linearly decreased over the course of the workweek, so did negative affect. Supporting our hypothesis that change patterns in work anticipation drive change patterns in evening affect, the linear change trajectory of anticipation was significantly related to change trajectories in positive and negative affect. Furthermore, we identified the structure of the workweek and chronic workload as boundary conditions that interact in shaping weekly change patterns in anticipation. Specifically, patterns of decreasing anticipation were most pronounced for employees with a regular Monday–Friday workweek and high chronic levels of workload, while they were weakest for employees with a regular workweek but low levels of chronic workload. Taken together, our results highlight the role of work itself and working conditions in dynamic aspects of affect. They yield theoretical and practical implications for the study of affect and its work-related experiential and behavioral consequences.

Keywords: affect, entrainment, weekly change trajectories, anticipation, latent growth curve modeling

Affective well-being, that is, the experience of high levels of positive and low levels of negative affect is an important barometer of employees' psychological health and well-being (Sonnentag, 2015) and it shapes subsequent work behavior and performance (Miner & Glomb, 2010; Ouyang et al., 2019; Rothbard & Wilk, 2011). Organizations, therefore, seek to safeguard and increase the affective well-being of their workforce while researchers strive for a comprehensive understanding of the factors contributing to affective well-being in the context of work. Over the last two decades, significant strides have been made in understanding how work characteristics and demands affect employee well-being and how this, in turn, affects work behavior and performance (cf. Sonnentag, 2015). Yet, although researchers increasingly acknowledge that affective well-being is dynamic rather than static and that it fluctuates over time (Sonnentag, 2015), research has primarily focused on affect as a state or trait *at a particular moment* in time. In so doing, truly dynamic aspects of affect, that is, "trajectories, patterns, and regularities with which emotions (. . .) fluctuate *across time*" (Kuppens & Verduyn, 2017; p. 22) have been largely overlooked and are still poorly understood.

Research outside the organization sciences revealed that positive and negative affect do not only randomly fluctuate from 1 day to the next, as a result of unpredictable day-to-day experiences, but that they are inherently dynamic and follow a predictable rhythm of change that is a function of the day of the week (Golder & Macy, 2011; Larsen & Kasimatis, 1990; Proudfoot et al., 2014). These studies found weekly patterns that were largely in line with popular idioms about "blue Mondays" and "thank God it's Friday" suggesting a pattern of lower levels of positive and higher levels of negative affect at the start of the workweek (i.e., Monday, Tuesday) compared to the end of the week. These findings suggest that affect is entrained (i.e., synchronized) to the organizing structure of the 7-day week traditionally consisting of 5 days of work from Monday to Friday and Saturday/Sunday off.

Surprisingly, however, these affect patterns have received little attention in the organization sciences or they have been considered as noise and it has been advised to control for such trends (Liu & West, 2016; Trougakos et al., 2014). This is unfortunate as weekly affect patterns are a specific form of intra-individual variability, a central component of people's emotional and affective experience with predictive value for psychological well-being

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(Houben et al., 2015). It is therefore vital to gain a better understanding of how work and working conditions shape these weekly patterns and provide answers to the following questions. What psychological processes drive these patterns? Do all employees experience the same pattern of change in positive and negative affect over the course of the workweek? If not, under which working conditions do employees display stable levels of affect and when do they undergo pronounced changes?

Yet, to date, the literature lacks an understanding of the mechanisms driving these weekly patterns and the role that work plays in shaping them. Although cursory explanations provided for weekly rhythms in positive and negative affect outside Industrial and Organizational psychology have suggested that work itself and the anticipation of work and work demands may play an important role (Farber, 1953; Stone et al., 1985), this proposition has, to date, neither been theoretically substantiated nor has it been tested empirically. This is problematic as knowledge about the work-related mechanisms and boundary conditions of such *dynamic characteristics* of affect is a prerequisite for a comprehensive theoretical understanding of affect and well-being and it is necessary to supplement extant knowledge on stable and momentary *levels* of affect. Insights on the boundary conditions will highlight the inherently work-related nature of these dynamic features, and it will help identify groups of employees that may be particularly susceptible to dynamic changes in affect. Moreover, understanding the antecedents of weekly affect dynamics is necessary to move beyond descriptive patterns, and identify the underlying mechanisms, which is required for optimally designing organizational initiatives aimed at fostering employee well-being.

In the present research, we, therefore, draw from temporal schema theory (Labianca et al., 2005; Larsen et al., 1996; Shipp & Richardson, 2021) and the notion of temporal depth (Bluedorn, 2002), to propose that anticipation of work drives the entrainment of evening positive and negative affect to the workweek. In addition, building on work on future-oriented coping (Biggs et al., 2017), we propose that weekly entrainment of employee affect to the weekly calendar is contingent on employees' chronic workload levels and the structure of the workweek (i.e., regular 5 days of work from Monday to Friday and Saturday/Sunday off vs. irregular patterns deviating in any way from this traditional workweek pattern).

In addressing these questions, our research contributes to the literature in important ways. First, the present study adds to the general affect literature that has documented weekly rhythms in affect for over 3 decades (Cornélissen et al., 2005; Egloff et al., 1995; Golder & Macy, 2011; Larsen & Kasimatis, 1990). Albeit providing important first insights on the dynamics of affect, these studies have been largely descriptive, depicting the time course of affect over the course of the week without addressing the causes of these patterns (see Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010 on descriptive vs. explanatory longitudinal research). With the present study, we will advance this line of research, (a) by investigating anticipation of work demands as an explanatory mechanism that drives the weekly pattern of affective experiences and (b) by studying the structure of the workweek and chronic workload as boundary conditions. Our work thereby provides a finer grained understanding of a dynamic characteristic of affect by investigating not only "how" affect changes over the course of the workweek but also "when" and "why" this temporal pattern occurs. This will help refine theory about temporal characteristics of affect and affect-related organizational phenomena.

Second, an increasing body of organizational research has recently documented weekly patterns in work experiences and behavior that are concomitant to affect, such as psychological detachment from work, sleep quality, job satisfaction, work engagement, and enacted and perceived workplace incivility (Haun & Oppenauer, 2019; Hülsheger et al., 2014, 2021; Luta et al., 2019; Pindek et al., 2020). Yet, while these studies illustrated weekly trends in these phenomena they provided no insights into the likely drivers of these patterns. The present study thereby adds to this emerging literature by shedding light on an important mechanism behind such weekly patterns. Furthermore, we add to this stream of research by investigating two novel boundary conditions, that is, workload and the structure of the workweek.

Third, we contribute to an emerging stream of research within the stress and well-being literature focusing on the role of anticipation in employee health and well-being. While stress theories acknowledge that stress not only emerges from the actual experience of stressors but also from the anticipation of future demands (Meurs & Perrewé, 2011; Roe & Zijlstra, 2000), these anticipatory processes have only recently started to attract attention in the occupational health literature (Casper et al., 2017; Casper & Sonnentag, 2020; DiStaso & Shoss, 2020). These studies have provided first insights into relationships between workload anticipation and well-being-related outcomes within workdays or from one workday to the next. We extend these findings by adding a temporal perspective, investigating how anticipation of work demands and challenges systematically changes over the course of the workweek, and by shedding light on boundary conditions. In doing so, our study contributes to a comprehensive theoretical understanding of the role of anticipation in work-related well-being that requires insights into its temporal dynamics.

Entrainment of Positive and Negative Affect to the Weekly Calendar

For more than 3 decades, studies conducted outside the organization sciences have documented that human affect is entrained to the weekly calendar and varies as a function of the day of the week (e.g., Egloff et al., 1995; Golder & Macy, 2011; Larsen & Kasimatis, 1990). Yet, findings have been mixed regarding the exact pattern of change. Some scholars found clear patterns of increasing positive affect and/or decreasing negative affect over the week (Csikszentmihalyi & Hunter, 2003; Jones & Fletcher, 1996; Larsen & Kasimatis, 1990; Proudfoot et al., 2014), whereas others found a week versus weekday effect but only limited evidence for a trend over the days of the workweek (Areni & Burger, 2008; Stone et al., 1985, 2012). Notably, however, with one recent exception (Beal & Ghandour, 2011) these studies have been conducted using nonwork samples, that is, student samples (e.g., Egloff et al., 1995; Larsen & Kasimatis, 1990; Ram et al., 2005), clinical samples (Proudfoot et al., 2014), children (Csikszentmihalyi & Hunter, 2003), or samples drawn from the general population (e.g., Areni & Burger, 2008; Golder & Macy, 2011; Stone et al., 2012). Their generalizability to the working population is therefore limited. Work provides individuals with structure (Jahoda, 1997; Selenko et al., 2011). Days of the week are therefore likely to function more strongly as social zeitgebers for people who work than for

individuals who are out of work. Consequently, the strength and particular form of weekly change patterns may differ between people who work and those who do not.

Taken together, this line of research suggests that mood is entrained to the temporal structure provided by the workweek (Larsen & Kasimatis, 1990). Generally, entrainment refers to the adjustment of "the pace or cycle of one activity to synchronize with that of another" (Ancona et al., 2001, p. 656). Here, entrainment describes the synchronization of mood with the social structure of our 7-day week. Systematic changes in affect over the course of the week are a joint function of endogenous biological processes and social zeitgebers, that is, environmental time cues that lead to entrainment of human activities and affective experiences with the week (Larsen & Kasimatis, 1990). Such a strong social zeitgeber is the 7-day rhythm of the week, consisting of 5 days of work between Monday and Friday and 2 days off (Larsen & Kasimatis, 1990). This particular structure is grounded in religious tradition and it drives the recurring pattern of work and rest (Areni, 2008; Thompson, 1967; Zerubavel, 1985) providing human beings with an environmental cue signaling relevant changes in the environment to which they will adapt.

Although not directly studying weekly patterns in positive and negative affect, other studies have documented weekly patterns for work outcomes that are somewhat related to core positive and negative affect, such as sleep quality, psychological detachment, fatigue, dedication, job satisfaction, enacted incivility, and perceived job stressors (e.g., Hülsheger et al., 2014, 2021; Ouweneel et al., 2012; Pindek et al., 2020; Rook & Zijlstra, 2006). Typically, positive states (e.g., job satisfaction, psychological detachment) were lowest at the start of the week (i.e., Monday) and increased toward the end of the week while negative states (e.g., enacted incivility, fatigue) were highest on Mondays and decreased toward the end of the workweek. This pattern mirrored popular conceptions of "blue Mondays" and "thank God it's Friday."

These studies provided important first insights into the time dynamics of affect and related concepts by illustrating that affect-related experiences systematically change over the course of the workweek. Yet, the mechanisms driving the entrainment of work-related experiences to the weekly calendar have, to date, only been the subject of speculation. Furthermore, boundary conditions of weekly affect patterns are still poorly understood. Therefore, more needs to be learned about *who* tends to experience these patterns *under which conditions*? In the following, we will therefore build on temporal schema theory and the notion of temporal depth (Bluedorn, 2002; Labianca et al., 2005; Larsen et al., 1996; Shipp & Richardson, 2021) to develop a theoretical account of work anticipation as an explanatory mechanism and workload and the structure of the workweek as boundary conditions of weekly affect patterns.

Anticipation of Work as an Explanatory Mechanism

Speculations about the causes of weekly affect patterns have revolved around the role of anticipation of work versus free time. In their seminal work, Larsen and Kasimatis (1990) contemplated that weekly mood trajectories may be driven by the anticipation of the particular pattern of work (Monday through Friday) and rest (Saturday, Sunday) that is part of the Judeo-Christian weekly calendar. Similarly, Farber (1953) argued in his early work on perception of days of the week that "feeling-tone is determined less by present activities than by future-time perspective" (p. 253). Also Stone et al. (1985) proposed that "the affective tone of a day is determined by what activities one anticipates for the near future. Monday is viewed as unpleasant because most people anticipate four more (presumably unpleasant) workdays ahead." (p. 129).

In developing the anticipation of work account for weekly affect patterns, we argue that this explanation rests on two hitherto untested and theoretically underdeveloped propositions that we will address in the next sections: First, the proposition that anticipation of work systematically changes over the course of the week, being highest at the start of the workweek, that is, Monday, and gradually declining until Friday. Second, the proposition that the pattern of gradually declining anticipation of work drives the weekly patterns in positive and negative affect. Furthermore, we argue that systematic changes in anticipation depend on an important boundary condition, namely, the structure of the workweek. Specifically, the pattern of declining levels of anticipation between Monday and Friday should be most pronounced under conditions of a traditional workweek consisting of 5 days of work between Monday and Friday and two weekend days off. Furthermore, we argue that weekly patterns in anticipation should be stronger under conditions of high chronic workload. Taken together, weekly patterns in anticipation should therefore be most pronounced under conditions of regular workweeks and high chronic workload.

Work Anticipation

Building on theoretical work on prospection and on the subjective experience of time (Baumeister et al., 2016; Shipp & Jansen, 2021), we conceptualize work anticipation as a form of future-oriented thinking in which individuals attend in the present moment to expected relevant work tasks, issues, and actions in the future. Extant research on the content of future-oriented thoughts in everyday life suggests that these are often of pragmatic nature and related to planning (Baumeister et al., 2018; Kvavilashvili & Rummel, 2020). Indeed, experience-sampling studies revealed that up to 75% of future-oriented cognitions involve planning (Baumeister et al., 2020). Such planning-related prospective thoughts are a core aspect of work anticipation that allows employees to prepare for future work demands, plan the workflow, allocate resources, and strive toward goal accomplishment in the workdays to come (Roe & Zijlstra, 2000). Another important aspect of future-oriented thinking that regularly occurs alongside pragmatic prospection and planning is worrying (Baumeister et al., 2020), that is, the mental representation of possible future threats and risks that are emotionally aversive in nature (Bulley et al., 2017; Sweeny & Dooley, 2017). Worry is driven by the uncertainty of the future and realization that many outcomes are outside of one's own control (Sweeny & Dooley, 2017). Worry is closely related to planning since the mental representation of a desired outcome and plan of action may trigger the anticipation of obstacles and threats that may interfere with goal attainment. This, in turn, may lead to the formation or adaptation of plans to deal with such threats (Baumeister et al., 2016; Bulley et al., 2017). As such, worrying, although unpleasant, serves an important function as the negative value of anticipated events or circumstances increases motivation to act upon this mental representation (Bulley et al., 2017). While worry can focus on different aspects of life, work is among the three most frequent content areas of worry alongside relationships and

finances (Lindesay et al., 2006). Worrying about upcoming work demands and circumstances is, therefore, an important aspect of the present conceptualization of work anticipation.

As other noncontextualized forms of future-oriented thinking, work anticipation drives motivation and has adaptive utility to increase longer term benefits (Baumeister et al., 2020). With the ultimate goal of achieving desired outcomes and preventing undesired ones, future-oriented thoughts motivate individuals for action (Baumeister et al., 2016; Bulley et al., 2017) and are therefore associated with achievement outcomes (Kooij et al., 2018). As such, work anticipation constitutes a form of future-oriented coping—demands are foreseen before they occur such that behavior can be planned and resources can be allocated in advance (Biggs et al., 2017). On the other hand, mental representations of future threats and demands are often emotionally charged and therefore have costs for present-moment mood and well-being (Bulley et al., 2017). Moreover, mindfulness theory (Brown et al., 2007; Bishop et al., 2004) and related research suggest that "a wandering mind is an unhappy mind" (p. 932), irrespective of the content of such thoughts and whether they go out to the past or the future (Killingsworth & Gilbert, 2010).

Notably, the concept of work anticipation bears some relation with other concepts capturing work-related thoughts (or the absence thereof), such as psychological detachment, affective rumination, or problem-solving pondering (Cropley & Zijlstra, 2011; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). Similar to these concepts, work anticipation captures work-related thoughts occurring during nonwork time. Yet, work anticipation also differs from these concepts in important regards. First, while work anticipation targets work-related thoughts, psychological detachment captures their absence (e.g., "Do you feel unable to switch off from work?," Cropley et al., 2012; "I forget about work," Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). Second and most importantly, work anticipation has an explicit and exclusive future focus, while the other concepts are either mute regarding time orientation (e.g., psychological detachment and affective rumination; Cropley et al., 2012; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007) or mix items with different time orientations, that is, items with a past and future focus and time-unspecific items (problem-solving pondering; Cropley et al., 2012).

Changes in Anticipation Over the Course of the Week

With its typical structure of 5 workdays from Monday to Friday followed by 2 days of rest, the week serves as an important temporal schema in our society (Larsen et al., 1996; Zerubavel, 1985) that likely also guides work anticipation. Temporal schemata are cognitive frameworks that provide individuals with an understanding of time and help them interpret their experiences (Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Larsen et al., 1996). A temporal schema, such as the workweek, serves as a mental prototype that provides people with meaningful brackets for their perception of time and allows for some degree of predictability about recurring events within that specific timeframe (Labianca et al., 2005; Shipp & Richardson, 2021). Moreover, by providing meaningful brackets to the experience of time, temporal schemata also provide important boundaries to the temporal depth, that is, the distance between the past and the future that individuals consider when contemplating events that have happened or may happen in the future (Bluedorn, 2002; Bluedorn & Martin, 2008). As such, the workweek functions as an important time window people use when anticipating and planning for the near future (e.g., Claessens et al., 2004; Zerubavel, 1985), and it brackets the time window over which people construe their worries with the highest levels of uncertainty associated with a full workweek ahead (Sweeny & Dooley, 2017). Therefore, at the beginning of the workweek people are likely to anticipate the work and challenges of the full workweek ahead of them. As the week progresses they construe their anticipated work only over the remaining days of the workweek. Therefore, we hypothesize that:

> *Hypothesis 1:* Anticipation of work systematically declines over the course of the workweek, that is, from Monday to Friday.

Chronic Workload and Structure of the Workweek as Boundary Conditions

Extensions of the transactional theory of stress and coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), acknowledge the importance of future-oriented coping (Biggs et al., 2017; Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004). Anticipating and mentally preparing for the work that still has to be done within a workweek is a future-oriented coping effort "enacted in response to a recognized upcoming event of likely certainty in the short-term future" (Biggs et al., 2017; p. 358). To the extent that stressors are anticipated before they actually occur, coping behaviors can be planned; potential risks are assessed and resources are allocated in an effort to reduce these risks and maximize benefits (Biggs et al., 2017). This is also a central proposition of the "work pressure model," stating that people continuously look ahead and assess the work that still needs to be done in light of the remaining personal capacities (Roe & Zijlstra, 2000). Such anticipation and planning of work and work-related resources are especially instrumental when employees face chronically high workload and have to allocate their time and energetic resources carefully. Researchers have, therefore, suggested that people facing chronically high workload anticipate continuous high work pressure during the working days to come (Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005).

Yet, the extent to which people engage in anticipation of work is likely to differ depending on the day of the week. Given that people bracket their anticipation within the temporal schema of the workweek (Bluedorn & Martin, 2008; Shipp & Richardson, 2021), they construe their anticipation over a longer time frame in the beginning of the workweek than in the end of the week. Hence, for people with high chronic workload, the contrast between the beginning of the workweek, with a full challenging workweek ahead of them, and the end of the workweek with the upcoming weekend respite ahead, is particularly stark, resulting in a high starting level and steep decline in anticipation over the course of the workweek. In contrast, people with low chronic workload have less work to tackle and foresee over the coming workweek. They are therefore likely to start the week with lower levels of work anticipation and will therefore experience less change in anticipation over the course of the workweek.

We, therefore, argue that being confronted with chronically high levels of workload will intensify weekly patterns in anticipation.

> *Hypothesis 2:* Chronic workload affects the weekly time course of anticipation. Specifically, (a) chronic workload affects the intercept of the trajectory, such that anticipation is higher on Monday when chronic workload is high, compared to low and

(b) chronic workload affects the slope of the trajectory, such that decreases in anticipation over the course of the week are stronger when workload is high, compared to low.

The anticipation of work account of weekly affect patterns fundamentally builds on the idea that individuals have regular workweeks with Monday till Friday devoted to labor and Saturday and Sunday devoted to rest. This weekly pattern is common in Western countries originating from Christian traditions. Yet, a survey conducted in European Union member states revealed that only 64% of employees work a regular Monday–Friday, 5-day week and that irregular working weeks and weekend work are common (European Foundation for the Improvement of Living & Working Conditions, 2010; similar observations have been made across the globe, see Lee et al., 2007). The extent to which the Monday–Friday workweek is a guiding temporal schema for employees that drives the anticipation of work naturally depends on whether employees do indeed have a regular workweek lying ahead of them. Put differently, the anticipation of work account does not apply well to employees facing irregular workweeks that deviate from the traditional Monday–Friday workweek in any way. We, therefore, propose that the weekly pattern in anticipation should be more pronounced for individuals with regular (i.e., Monday–Friday work, Saturday, and Sunday off) as opposed to irregular workweeks (i.e., any deviation from the regular workweek).

Hypothesis 3: The structure of the workweek affects the weekly time course of anticipation. Specifically, (a) it affects the intercept of the trajectory, such that anticipation is higher on Monday, when individuals have a regular structure of the workweek, compared to an irregular structure and (b) it affects the slope of the trajectory, such that decreases in anticipation over the course of the week are stronger for individuals with a regular structure of the workweek than for individuals with an irregular structure.

The theorizing on the moderating role of chronic workload also rests on the assumption of regular workweeks consisting of 5 days of work (Monday–Friday) and 2 days off (Saturday–Sunday). It should therefore apply less well to employees with irregular workweeks who mentally construe their workweek over a different temporal scheme that better fits their personal workweek (e.g., work from Tuesday until Saturday; Sunday and Monday off). We, therefore, expect chronic workload and the structure of the workweek to interact, such that workload shapes weekly patterns of anticipation more strongly for employees with a regular workweek compared to employees facing an irregular workweek.

Hypothesis 4: Chronic workload and the structure of the workweek interact in affecting weekly change patterns in anticipation. Specifically, (a) the interaction affects the intercept of the trajectory such that anticipation is highest on Monday under conditions of high chronic workload and a regular workweek and lowest under conditions of low chronic workload and a regular workweek and (b) it affects the slope of the trajectory such that decreases in anticipation over the course of the workweek are strongest under conditions of high chronic workload and a regular workweek and lowest under conditions of low chronic workload and a regular workweek.

The Role of Anticipation for the Experience of Positive and Negative Affect

A fundamental tenet underlying the anticipation of work account of weekly affect patterns is that individuals experience less positive and more negative mood when anticipating work lying ahead of them than when anticipating the near weekend. Indeed, stress theories acknowledge an anticipatory phase of the stress process during which people foresee and appraise stressors that may occur in the future (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Meurs & Perrewé, 2011). Appraisal theories consider emotions as adaptive responses that reflect appraisals of events or features of the environment that are significant for the organism's well-being (Moors et al., 2013). The appraisal process consists of a primary appraisal, in which the individual evaluates to what extent the event is a threat to the individual's well-being, and a secondary appraisal process in which the individual evaluates the options for coping with the event (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Appraisal theories recognize that not only current, but also expectations of future events play a vital role in stress experiences (Meurs & Perrewé, 2011). This is also undergirded by empirical findings showing that anticipated stressors have consequences similar to those of actually experienced stressors (Waugh et al., 2010). For instance, Gaab et al. (2005) found that anticipatory cognitive appraisal explained up to 35% of the variance of the salivary cortisol response.

Appraisals related to future events are especially likely to trigger negative emotional responses because there is uncertainty involved (Anderson et al., 2019). When anticipating future workdays, neither the occurrence and threat level of future work demands and events (primary appraisal) nor the coping options one will have at one's disposal (secondary appraisal) are fully predictable. Because people have an inherent attentional bias toward negative events (Baumeister et al., 2001), such uncertainty will likely lead to the simulation of predominantly negative outcomes, resulting in reduced positive and increased negative affect (Anderson et al., 2019). Accordingly, previous research provides evidence that anticipation of a stressor affects current negative and positive affect (e.g., Neubauer et al., 2018; van Eck et al., 1998). As such, even if employees are not *actually* exposed to work stressors and demands during after-work hours in the evening, the mental representation of future work and its demands as part of work anticipation may adversely influence their positive and negative affect in the evening.

Given the relation between anticipation of work and affect, we expect the weekly trajectory of evening positive and negative affect to follow the weekly trajectory of anticipation. High work anticipation at the beginning of the workweek, that is, on Monday, is likely associated with concurrently high levels of negative and low levels of positive affect at the beginning of the workweek. As the anticipation of work over the week gradually decreases, negative affect and positive affect are likely to respectively decrease and increase as well. Of note, although positive and negative affect are conceptually independent dimensions rather than bipolar opposites of the same dimension (Watson & Tellegen, 1985), we expect relations of anticipation trajectories with positive and negative affect trajectories to mirror each other (i.e., positive affect increases and negative affect decreases as anticipation decreases over the course of the workweek). This is in line with findings that despite their conceptual independence, positive and negative affect are inversely related, especially when assessed at the state level with a focus on

momentary levels of affect as is the case in the present study (Bleidorn & Peters, 2011; Dejonckheere et al., 2018).

Therefore, we pose that:

Hypothesis 5: The weekly time course of anticipation systematically relates to the weekly time course of positive affect such that (a) the intercept of anticipation is negatively related to the intercept of positive affect and (b) the slope of the anticipation trajectory is negatively related to the slope of the positive affect trajectory.

Hypothesis 6: The weekly time course of anticipation systematically relates to the weekly time course of negative affect such that (a) the intercept of anticipation is positively related to the intercept of negative affect and (b) the slope of the anticipation trajectory is positively related to the slope of the negative affect trajectory.

Figure 1 provides an overview of study hypotheses.

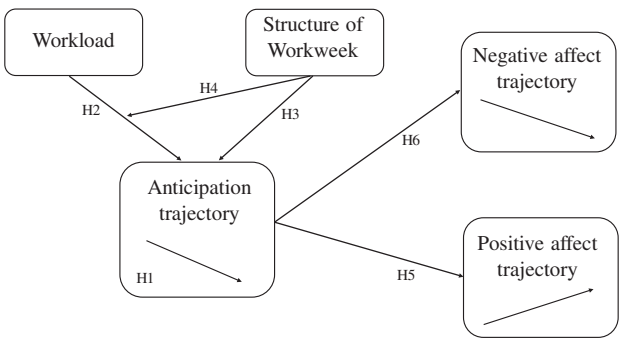
Method

Participants and Procedure

Participants were recruited using personal emails, phone calls, text messages, posts on social media and business platforms as well as using organizational contacts. Furthermore, we asked participants to forward the study invitation to other employees who may be interested in participating (see also Clark et al., 2020; Groth et al., 2009). With these efforts we reached at least 612 individuals.[1] No monetary incentives were offered in return for participation. The study was approved by the local ethical review board (#166_07_04_2016_S1 and #166_07_04_2016_S2).

In total, 371 individuals followed the study invitation and started filling in the intake questionnaire online. A total of 98 participants (26.4% of those starting with the study) did not enter the final analyses, because they either did not finish the intake questionnaire and/or they did not provide at least one daily assessment of our focal daily variables. Our final data set, therefore, comprised 273 participants, 177 from Germany and 96 from the Netherlands. They were predominantly female (63%), were on average 40 years old (SD = 14.9) and worked 38.6 hr per week, on average (SD = 8.9). They held a wide variety of jobs, including health care and healthcare support occupations, business and financial operations occupations, management occupations, office and administrative support occupations, and education-related occupations. A total of 167 participants (61.2%) had regular workweeks (Monday till Friday and Saturday and Sunday off).

Figure 1
Conceptual Model and Study Hypotheses



The diary part of our study started in the week after participants had filled in the intake questionnaire. It consisted of smartphone-friendly online questionnaires sent to participants over the course of 7 days. Variables used in our main analyses were collected in the evening over the course of 5 days, that is, Monday till Friday. This is in line with previous research on weekly trajectories in work behavior and experiences relying on 5-day diary studies and mapping changes occurring between Monday and Friday, the traditional working days (e.g., Haun & Oppenauer, 2019; Hülsheger et al., 2014, 2021). Data were collected between May 2018 and June 2019, a sufficiently large time window to ensure that we captured a random sample of workweeks that are not systematically biased by political or environmental events.

Participants received a link to an online survey every evening at 20:00 hr with the instruction to fill it in before going to bed. To prevent backfilling, the survey closed at 1:00 of the following day. On average, participants generated 3.3 evening surveys per person; 51.5% of participants filled in four or five surveys, 32.9% filled in two or three surveys, while 15% filled in one evening survey. Missing data patterns in such intensive longitudinal studies cannot be expected to be missing at random (Wang et al., 2017). We, therefore, followed recommendations in the literature and retained participants with missing daily surveys and used a maximum likelihood estimator in all our analyses as a missing data technique (Hox, 2002; Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002; Singer & Willett, 2003; Wang et al., 2017).

Measures

Time-varying variables (i.e., positive and negative affect and anticipation) were assessed in the diary part of our study while time-invariant predictors of anticipation and weekly affect patterns (i.e., workload and structure of the workweek) were assessed in the intake survey. As the intake survey was filled in during the week preceding the diary part, it was temporally separated from the diary part.

Positive and Negative Affect

Positive and negative affect were measured in the daily evening survey with a total of 20 items (positive affect: enthusiastic, happy, alert, proud, excited, calm, peaceful, satisfied, relaxed, content; negative affect: nervous, embarrassed, upset, stressed, tense, sluggish, sad, bored, depressed, disappointed) from Kuppens and colleagues (Kuppens et al., 2007). Participants were asked to rate these items referring to how they felt at the moment of filling in the survey on a 5-point scale (1 = *very little or not at all* to 5 = *to a great extent*).

As participants filled in the surveys either in German or Dutch, we examined whether the scales demonstrated measurement invariance across languages. Our data had a hierarchical structure with days nested in persons. We, therefore, specified multigroup multilevel confirmatory factor analyses (CFA). We followed recommendations in the literature and sequentially tested for

[1] This is a conservative estimate as we do not know how many people received social media posts or were approached via snowball sampling.

configural, metric, and scalar invariance (Putnick & Bornstein, 2016; van de Schoot et al., 2012; Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). Model fit was considered adequate for comparative fit index (CFI) and Tucker–Lewis index (TLI) not smaller than .90, and root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) not larger than .08, model fit was considered good for CFI and TLI values > .95 and RMSEA values < .05 (van de Schoot et al., 2012; see also Li et al., 2014). Considering these standards, configural invariance was poor for positive and negative affect. We, therefore, did not proceed to test for metric or scalar invariance (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). Instead, we shortened our measures to a subset of items that displayed measurement invariance across groups. For positive and negative affect, this resulted in 12 items (positive affect: enthusiastic, proud, happy, relaxed, content, satisfied; negative affect: upset, nervous, stressed, depressed, sad, disappointed), displaying adequate to good configural invariance (positive affect: CFI = .96, TLI = .93, RMSEA = .07; negative affect: CFI = .94, TLI = .90, RMSEA = .08). Fixing factor loadings to be equal for both groups (metric invariance) did not result in a considerably weaker fit considering Cheung and Rensvold (2002) cutoff criterion that the change in CFI should be smaller or equal to −.01 compared to the configural invariance model. Further fixing intercepts to be equal across groups (scalar invariance) led to a change in CFI of −.019 for positive affect and of −.002 for negative affect compared to the metric invariance model, supporting even scalar invariance for negative but not for positive affect.[2]

Anticipation of Work

We assessed anticipation of work in the daily evening survey with three items that were developed for this study. In doing so we built on the conceptualization outlined above and expanded an one-item measure from Devereux et al. (2011) to capture work anticipation more broadly: "This evening I thought about work-related issues that need to be done in the next days"; "this evening I made plans for the work tasks that need to be taken care of in the next days"; "this evening I worried about the work that needs to get done in the next days." Items were rated on the same 5-point scale as positive and negative affect.[3]

As with three items loading on one factor, the model was saturated, a configural invariance model could not be tested. Yet, a multilevel multigroup CFA yielded good fit for the metric invariance model (CFI = 1.0, TLI = .99, RMSEA = .04). Further constraining intercepts to be equal across groups lead to a change in CFI of −.01, supporting even scalar invariance.

Chronic Workload

Workload was measured in the intake questionnaire with the respective 11-item subscale of the Questionnaire on the Experience and Evaluation of Work (VBBA; Van Veldhoven & Meijman, 1994; see also Bakker et al., 2010). An example item is "Do you work under time pressure?" Participants were instructed to rate items on a 4-point scale ranging from 1 = *never* to 4 = *always* referring to how they apply to their work in general in order to capture chronic and stable aspects of workload.

To test measurement invariance of workload across language groups, we conducted a multigroup CFA. Considering conventional standards, a model testing for configural invariance did not yield adequate fit (i.e., CFI and TLI smaller than .90, and RMSEA larger than .08; van de Schoot et al., 2012). We, therefore, shortened the measure to a subset of items that displayed measurement invariance across groups. This resulted in five items displaying good configural, invariance (CFI = .99, TLI = .97, RMSEA = .06). Constraining factor loadings to be equal across groups led to a ΔCFI of −.01, supporting metric invariance (cf. Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). With ΔCFI of −.04, scalar invariance was not supported, however. The final set of items was: *Do you have to work very fast? Do you have too much work to do? Do you work under time pressure? Do you find that you are behind in your work activities? Do you have problems with the work pace?*

Structure of the Workweek

Whether or not employees had a regular or irregular workweek lying ahead of them was assessed in the intake questionnaire by asking participants to indicate whether they had to work on the Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, Saturday, and Sunday of the following workweek. The structure of the workweek was coded as regular when they worked every day from Monday–Friday, but neither on Saturday nor on Sunday. The structure of the workweek was coded as irregular when they indicated to have to work on Saturday and/or Sunday and/or they had one or more days off between Monday and Friday.

Analytic Approach

We tested hypotheses using a latent growth modeling (LGM) approach in Mplus Version 8.4 (Muthen & Muthen, 2017). Specifically, we applied a second-order factor (SOF) LGM procedure that allows modeling weekly change trajectories in positive, negative affect, and anticipation as well as concomitant change in these variables (Alessandri et al., 2020; Bentein et al., 2005; Ng et al., 2010). This allows testing Hypothesis 3 concerning the relation of change trajectories in anticipation with change trajectories in positive and negative affect, respectively. Doing so involved a multistep approach. First, we tested for measurement invariance over time to assure that the measurement properties of our dependent variables did not change over time, a prerequisite to LGM (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010; Wang et al., 2017). Second, we fitted univariate LGM models for positive, negative affect, and anticipation, respectively, in order to determine the basic form of the growth trajectory. Specifically, two latent variables were specified from the five repeated measurements, that is, the intercept and the slope specifying a linear time trend. The intercept models initial status of the change trajectory on Monday, while the slope models the change from Monday till Friday. Means of intercept

[2] Note that we reran all analyses with the original scales to replicate the pattern of results and to confirm that the same conclusions would be drawn.

[3] To empirically corroborate the distinctiveness of anticipation from related concepts we used scales that were collected as part of our larger data collection effort, that is, psychological detachment, affective rumination, and problem-solving pondering (Cropley et al., 2012). As our study considered anticipation as a dynamic state that fluctuates over time, that is, from day-to-day, we did so by investigating within-person correlations of anticipation with psychological detachment (−.32, $p < .001$), affective rumination (.36, $p < .001$), and problem-solving pondering (.58, $p < .001$). As can be expected due to the conceptual relatedness, these correlations are significant and moderate to large in size (Cohen, 1992), but they confirm the empirical distinctiveness of these constructs.

and slope will therefore inform about the average starting point and rate of change in the outcome variable across individuals. To account for potential curvilinear forms of change, we tested whether the inclusion of an additional quadratic time trend was significant. In each univariate LGM model, we modeled serial correlation between adjacent time points and constrained these correlations to be equal across time points to account for potential biases due to autocorrelation (Bliese & Ployhart, 2002; Murphy et al., 2011). Furthermore, we restricted observed variable intercepts to 0. Third, we tested for the role of the structure of the workweek, workload, and the interaction between structure of the workweek and workload as predictors of anticipation trajectories. To ease interpretability of these effects we standardized workload (structure of the workweek was a binary variable and therefore not standardized). Fourth and finally, we modeled multivariate SOF LGM models, by combining the univariate LGM models for anticipation with the LGM models for positive and negative affect, respectively. To model relationships of weekly change trajectories in anticipation with change trajectories in positive and negative affect, we included paths from intercept of anticipation to intercept of positive and negative affect, respectively. We also included paths from the anticipation slope to the slope of positive and negative affect, respectively.

Results

Preliminary Analysis

Correlations among study variables as well as means and standard deviations are presented in Table 1. We started by conducting a multilevel CFA to verify the distinctiveness of our day-level variables. A three-factor model (positive affect, negative affect, work anticipation) yielded acceptable fit (CFI = .94, TLI = .93, RMSEA = .05, standardized root-mean-square residual [SRMR] within = .05) that was significantly better than a two-factor model in which negative affect and work anticipation items loaded on the same factor (CFI = .80, TLI = .76, RMSEA = .08, SRMR within = .15; chi-square difference = 764.260, df = 4, $p < .001$), better than a two-factor model in which positive and negative affect items loaded on the same factor (CFI = .83 TLI = .80, RMSEA = .08, SRMR within = .20; chi-square difference = 607.557, df = 4, $p < .001$), and better than a two-factor model in which positive affect and work anticipation items loaded on the same factor (CFI = .78, TLI = .74, RMSEA = .09, SRMR within = .16; chi-square difference = 869.549, df = 4, $p < .001$). Taken together, this provides support for the distinctiveness of work anticipation from positive and negative affect.

Next, we tested for measurement invariance over time. As is customary in longitudinal data analysis, we tested for configural and metric invariance across measurement occasions (Bentein et al., 2005; Li et al., 2014; Zacher et al., 2018). Measurement errors of same items were allowed to correlate over time (Li et al., 2014; Zacher et al., 2018). For anticipation and positive affect, the configural invariance model (i.e., free factor loadings) fit the data well (anticipation: CFI = .98, TLI = .95, RMSEA = .06; positive affect: CFI = .96, TLI = .95, RMSEA = .04). Comparing the configural invariance model to a metric invariance model led to a decrease in CFI that was smaller than −.01 (ΔCFI = −.001 for positive and negative affect, respectively) supporting metric invariance (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). For negative affect a mixed picture emerged. While CFI and TLI suggested poor model fit for the configural model (CFI = .85; TLI = .81), model fit was adequate when considering the RMSEA (configural: RMSEA = .08). Inconsistencies across global fit indices such as CFI/TLI and RMSEA are not rare (Lai & Green, 2016; Williams et al., 2020; see also Ng et al., 2010) and researchers have advised against discarding models when such disagreement occurs and individual indices fail to meet traditional cutoff values (Lai & Green, 2016; Williams et al., 2020). Importantly, fixing factor loadings to be equal across groups led to a change in CFI of only −.005, supporting metric invariance.

Taken together, results of measurement invariance tests provided sufficient support for the equivalence of our measures over time. We, therefore, proceeded with our focal LGM analyses using observed variables over time as indicators.

Univariate Latent Growth Modeling Analysis

As a first step, we determined the basic form of the growth trajectory per outcome variable by comparing a model specifying only a linear growth term with a model specifying a linear and quadratic growth term. As can be seen from Table 2, for positive, negative affect, and anticipation, the quadratic model did not fit the data significantly better than the linear model considering a chi-square difference test. Furthermore, for all three outcome variables, Akaike information criteria (AIC) values suggested a better fit for the linear model. We, therefore, retained the more parsimonious linear model for positive, negative affect, and anticipation.

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations Between Study Variables

Variable	*M*	*SD*	Cronbach's α	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Workload	2.31	.49	.74						
2. Structure of workweek	.61	.49	—	−.09					
3. Day of week	—	—	—	—			.07	−.08*	−.22***
4. Positive affect	2.98	.77	.84[a]	−.12	−.04			−.45***	−.15**
5. Negative affect	1.35	.57	.87	.14	.04	—	−.33***		.19***
6. Anticipation	1.95	1.06	.89	.18*	−.04	—	−.23**	.52***	

Note. $N = 273$ persons, 1,365 observations. Correlations, means, and standard deviations computed in the long data format. Correlations below the diagonal are between-person correlations, correlations above the diagonal are within-person correlations. The structure of workweek was coded as 0 = *irregular*, 1 = *regular*. Day of the week coded from 0 = *Monday* to 4 = *Friday*.
[a] Reliabilities calculated separately per day and then averaged across the 5 days.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed).

Table 2
Results of the Basic Growth Model

Model	χ^2	d*f*	*p*	CFI	RMSEA	AIC	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δd*f*	*p*
Positive affect									
Linear model	10.870	9	.28	.10	.03	1756.27			
Quadratic model	5.721	5	.33	.10	.02	1759.12	5.15	4	.27
Negative affect									
Linear model	11.444	9	.25	.99	.03	1200.74			
Quadratic model	8.840	5	.12	.99	.05	1206.14	2.60	4	.63
Anticipation									
Linear model	4.348	9	.89	1.0	.00	2299.22			
Quadratic model	2.882	5	.72	1.0	.00	2305.76	1.47	4	.83

Note. d*f* = degrees of freedom; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root-mean-square error of approximation; AIC = Akaike information criteria; $\Delta\chi^2$ = difference in χ^2; Δd*f* = difference in d*f*.

As indicated in Table 3, all univariate LGM models fit the data well. For positive affect, the linear time trend was positive but only marginally significant when using conventional two-tailed testing. For both negative affect and anticipation, the significant negative linear time trend indicated that negative affect and anticipation decreased over the course of the week. Hypothesis 1 was thus supported. Figure 2 illustrates the weekly change patterns in positive, negative affect and anticipation.

In the next step, we tested whether chronic workload and the structure of the workweek shape the weekly time course of anticipation as detailed in Hypotheses 2, 3, and 4. To this end, the univariate LGM model for anticipation was extended by introducing time-invariant, person-level covariates. Specifically, both the intercept and the slope (linear time trend) were regressed onto chronic workload, structure of the workweek, and the interaction term. Chronic workload was not significantly related to the intercept ($\gamma = -.02$, $p = .84$), nor to the linear time trend of anticipation ($\gamma = .02$, $p = .55$). Similarly, at mean levels of workload, structure of the workweek was also not significantly related to the intercept ($\gamma = -.05$; $p = .70$), nor to the linear time trend ($\gamma = -.01$, $p = .87$). Yet, the interaction between chronic workload and the structure of the workweek was significantly related to the intercept ($\gamma = .38$, $p < .01$)

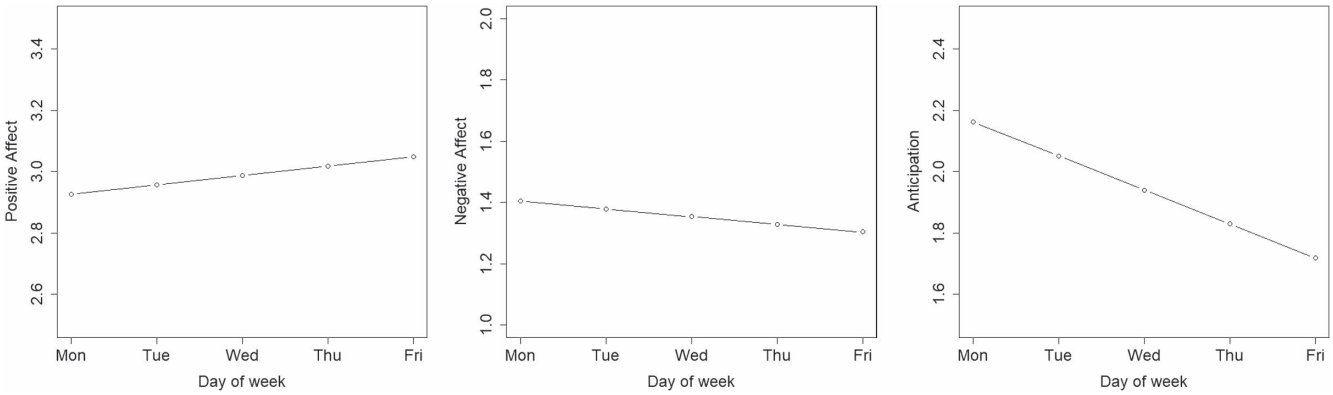
Table 3
Results of Univariate LGM Models

Variable	Positive affect		Negative affect		Anticipation		Anticipation	
	Estimate	*SE*	Estimate	*SE*	Estimate	*SE*	Estimate	*SE*
Means								
Intercept	2.93***	.05	1.40***	.04	2.16***	.07	2.20***	.11
Linear time trend	.03†	.02	−.03*	.01	−.11***	.02	−.11***	.03
Covariances								
Linear trend with intercept	−.01	.02	−.01	.01	−.10**	.03	−.08**	.03
Variances								
Intercept	.32***	.06	.20***	.03	.90***	.12	.82***	.12
Linear time trend	.01	.01	.01	.00	.03*	.01	.02*	.01
Covariates								
Workload → anticipation intercept							−.02	.10
Workload → anticipation linear time trend							.02	.03
Structure of week → anticipation intercept							−.05	.14
Structure of week → anticipation linear time trend							−.01	.04
Workload*Structure of week → anticipation intercept							.38**	.13
Workload*Structure of week → anticipation linear time trend							−.09*	.04
Model fit								
χ^2	10.870		11.444		4.348		18.23	
d*f*	9		9		9		18	
p	.28		.25		.89		.44	
CFI	1.0		.99		1.0		1.0	
TLI	.99		.99		1.0		1.0	
RMSEA	.03		.03		.00		.01	

Note. LGM = latent growth modeling; d*f* = degrees of freedom; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker–Lewis index; RMSEA = root-mean-square error of approximation; structure of the workweek (1 = *regular*; 0 = *irregular*).
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed).

Figure 2

Weekly Change Patterns in Positive, Negative Affect, and Anticipation

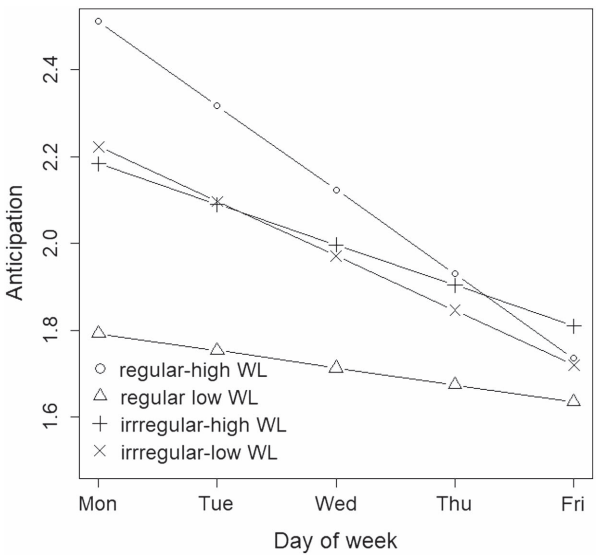


and to the linear time trend ($\gamma = -.09$, $p < .05$). Hypothesis 4 was thus supported, while Hypotheses 2 and 3 were not.

We probed the simple slopes at low (−1 *SD*) and high (+1 *SD*) levels of chronic workload for people with regular versus irregular workweeks, respectively. Under the condition of regular workweeks, the decrease in anticipation was significant for employees with high chronic workload ($\gamma = -.19$, $p < .001$), while it was not for employees with low chronic workload ($\gamma = -.04$, $p = .27$). When the structure of the workweek was irregular, the anticipation decreased similarly for employees with high ($\gamma = -.09$, $p < .05$) compared to low levels of chronic workload ($\gamma = -.13$, $p < .01$). Chronic workload thus had a stronger influence on weekly change patterns in anticipation for employees with regular workweeks than for employees with irregular workweeks. Figure 3 illustrates this pattern of interactions.

Figure 3

Weekly Change Patterns in Anticipation as a Function of the Structure of the Workweek and Workload



Note. WL = Workload.

Multivariate SOF LGM Analysis

The multivariate SOF LGM models including parallel trajectories of anticipation and positive and negative affect, respectively, fit the data well (CFI = .99–1.0, TLI = .99–1.0, RMSEA = .00–.03; see Table 4). Supporting Hypothesis 5a and 5b, the initial status of anticipation predicted the initial status of positive affect ($\gamma = -.22$, $p < .001$) and the linear time trend in anticipation predicted linear time trend in positive affect ($\gamma = -.37$, $p < .01$). Similarly and supporting Hypothesis 6a and 6b, initial status of anticipation predicted the initial status of negative affect ($\gamma = .29$, $p < .001$) and the linear time trend in anticipation predicted the linear time trend in negative affect ($\gamma = .36$, $p < .001$). Hypothesis 5 and Hypothesis 6 were thus fully supported.[4,5]

Supplementary Analyses

To test the robustness of our findings, we conducted a number of supplementary analyses. As part of our hypothesis testing, we investigated whether structure of the workweek and chronic workload interact in shaping anticipation trajectories. One may wonder whether they have a similar influence on weekly change patterns in positive and negative affect. We, therefore, ran univariate LGM analyses for positive and negative affect, respectively, using structure of the workweek and chronic workload as external covariates. At average levels of workload, structure of the workweek was not significantly related to the linear time trend of positive affect ($\gamma = .01$, $p = .82$) and negative affect ($\gamma = .02$, $p = .43$); chronic workload was significantly related to the linear time trend in positive affect ($\gamma = -.06$, $p < .01$) and marginally to the linear time trend in negative affect ($\gamma = .02$, $p = .09$). The interaction between structure of the workweek and chronic workload was significantly related to

[4] The pattern of results and statistical significances remained the same when including chronic workload, structure of the workweek and the interaction between the two as external covariates of anticipation trajectories into these models.

[5] As indicated in the Method section, we reran the univariate and multivariate SOF LGM models using the nonshortened measures for workload, positive, and negative affect. The pattern of results and significance levels remained the same regarding all hypotheses. One exception was the significance level of the mean of the linear time trend for positive affect in the univariate LGM model, which dropped to $p = .125$.

Table 4
Multivariate SOF LGM Models

Variable	Parallel trajectories: Anticipation–positive affect Estimate	*SE*	Parallel trajectories: Anticipation–negative affect Estimate	*SE*
Means				
Anticipation				
Intercept	2.16***	.07	2.16***	.07
Linear time trend	−.11***	.02	−.11***	.02
Positive affect				
Intercept	3.39***	.11		
Linear time trend	−.01	.02		
Negative affect				
Intercept			.77***	.09
Linear time trend			.01	.02
Intercept predicts intercept				
Anticipation → positive affect	−.22***	.05		
Anticipation → negative affect			.29***	.04
Linear time trend predicts linear time trend				
Anticipation → positive affect	−.37**	.14		
Anticipation → negative affect			.36***	.10
Model fit				
χ^2	36.82		51.48	
d*f*	41		41	
p	.66		.13	
CFI	1.0		.99	
TLI	1.0		.99	
RMSEA	.00		.03	

Note. SOF = second-order factor; LGM = latent growth modeling; d*f* = degrees of freedom; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker–Lewis index; RMSEA = root-mean-square error of approximation; for the sake of readability, covariances and variances were not included in the table.
** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed).

both linear time trends (positive affect: $\gamma = .07$, $p < .05$; negative affect: $\gamma = -.05$, $p < .05$).

In line with previous research investigating weekly trajectories in work-related experiences, our analyses focused on changes over the five traditional workdays, that is, Monday till Friday. As we had collected data from the full workweek, including Saturday and Sunday, we reran the final multivariate SOF LGM models, including all 7 days of the week. Specifically, we modeled trajectories from Monday till Sunday for anticipation, positive and negative affect including paths from intercept (i.e., initial status) of anticipation to intercept of positive and negative affect, respectively. We also included paths from the anticipation slope (i.e., linear time trend) to the slope of positive and negative affect, respectively. Chronic workload, structure of the workweek, and the interaction between the two were introduced as external covariates of anticipation trajectories in these models. The pattern of results and significance levels remained the same as in the focal analyses reported above.

Although our self-constructed work anticipation scale displayed high reliability and we were able to confirm a one-factor structure across different language groups, one may wonder whether the two cognitive items (thinking about upcoming work issues and planning) function differently than the affectively toned worry item. We, therefore, reran two versions of the final multivariate SOF LGM analysis, including chronic workload, structure of the workweek and the interaction between the two as external covariates of anticipation trajectories (a) with the thinking and planning items combined and (b) only with the worry item. The pattern of results and significance levels regarding all hypothesized paths were the same in both analyses and the same as results reported in our main analysis including all three items. One exception was that the significance level of the effect of the slope of anticipation on the slope of positive affect dropped to $p = .07$ when using only thinking and planning items combined. Given that we had a directed hypothesis and the use of a one-tailed test would be applicable, this does, however, not challenge our overall findings and conclusions.

Taking a first step toward establishing the role of the structure of the workweek in weekly patterns, the a-priori goal of the present study was to test the proposition that weekly change patterns in anticipation and the moderating role of chronic workload in these patterns are more pronounced for employees with regular workweeks (i.e., work from Monday till Friday, Saturday and Sunday off) than for employees with irregular workweeks irrespective of the specific type of irregularity. Yet, while the category of regular workweeks is uniform, the category of irregular workweeks is heterogeneous and subsumes different forms of irregularity. One may therefore wonder how different types of irregular workweek patterns affect weekly trajectories. As a first step, we, therefore, explored the different types of irregular workweek patterns that were present in the data. As can be seen from Table 5, 24.5% of the sample had reduced workweek schedules, that is, they did not work on weekends but had one or more days off between Monday and Friday. In contrast, 14.3% had extended workweek schedules and worked on weekends, that is, on Saturday and/or Sunday. About half of them had one or more days off during the week in return while the

Table 5
Overview of Workweek Schedules

Category	Structure of workweek	*N*	%
1	Regular	167	61.2
2	Irregular		
2.1	Reduced work week	67	24.5
2.2	Extended work week		
2.2.1	Weekend work with compensation	20	7.3
2.2.2	Weekend work without compensation	18	6.6
2.2.3	Only weekend work	1	.4
Extent of weekend work			
No weekend work		234	85.7
Only Saturday or Sunday		24	8.8
Saturday and Sunday		15	5.5

Note. Structure of the workweek coded as: Regular = 5 days of work between Monday and Friday, Saturday and Sunday off; Reduced workweek = less than 5 days of work between Monday and Friday, Saturday and Sunday off; weekend work with compensation = less than 5 days of work between Monday and Friday, work on Saturday and/or Sunday; Weekend work without compensation = 5 days of work between Monday and Friday, work on Saturday and/or Sunday; Only weekend work = no work between Monday and Friday, work on Saturday and/or Sunday.

other half had not. Further scrutinizing the extent of weekend work revealed that 8.8% of the sample worked either Saturday or Sunday while 5.5% worked on Saturday and Sunday. Although our study was not designed to test differential effects of different irregular workweek patterns on weekly anticipation trajectories, we investigated this on a purely exploratory basis at the request of a reviewer. Specifically, we conducted a multigroup latent growth curve analysis to explore weekly change trajectories in anticipation over the course of the workweek and the moderating role of workload on these trajectories *within* three groups: The first group consisted of participants with regular workweeks (Category 1 in Table 5). Furthermore, we subdivided the group of participants with irregular workweeks into two groups (reduced vs. extended workweeks; Category 2.1 and 2.2, respectively in Table 5).[6] A univariate LGM analysis of anticipation with workload as a predictor of intercept and linear time trend revealed a significant negative linear time trend in anticipation for participants with a regular workweek ($\gamma = -.11$, $p < .001$), a significant negative linear time trend for participants with a reduced workweek ($\gamma = -.15$, $p < .001$) and no significant time trend for participants with extended workweeks ($\gamma = -.03$, $p = .51$). Effects of workload on the intercept and linear time trend of anticipation, respectively, were significant in the regular workweek group (intercept: $\gamma = .34$, $p < .001$; linear time trend: $\gamma = -.07$, $p < .01$) but neither in the reduced workweek group (intercept: $\gamma = -.02$, $p = .91$; linear time trend: $\gamma = .01$, $p = .90$) nor in the extended workweek group (intercept: Estimate = .00, $p = .98$; linear time trend: $\gamma = .02$, $p = .52$). Model fit of this multigroup LGM was good (CFI = 1.0, TLI = 1.0, RMSEA = .00, SRMR = .07). Due to the small sample sizes in the irregular workweek subgroups, these findings are to be interpreted with caution.

Discussion

With the health and well-being of the workforce becoming increasingly important for organizations and societies (Sonnentag, 2015), a comprehensive understanding of the affective components of well-being (i.e., the experience of positive and negative affect) is crucially important. The present endeavor, therefore, sought to advance our understanding of affective well-being by going beyond the investigation of stable or momentary *levels* of affect to shed light on the drivers and boundary conditions of *dynamic aspects* of employees' affective well-being. Specifically, we have built on findings on temporal schema theories to develop and test the anticipation of work account as a theoretical explanation of systematic weekly change patterns in affective well-being.

First, our findings document that employee positive and negative affect systematically change over the course of the workweek. More importantly, however, our study identified work anticipation as a driver of these weekly patterns. Specifically, our study revealed that work anticipation linearly decreases over the course of the workweek. Supporting the proposition that change patterns in anticipation drive change patterns in affect, the linear change trajectory of anticipation was significantly related to change trajectories in positive and negative affect. Furthermore, we identified the structure of the workweek and chronic workload as boundary conditions that interact in shaping weekly change patterns in anticipation. Specifically, patterns of decreasing anticipation were most pronounced for employees with a regular structure of the workweek and high chronic levels of workload, while they were weakest for employees with a regular workweek but low chronic workload levels.

Theoretical Implications

Our findings offer important contributions to theory and research. First, our study contributes to the general affect literature. Over many decades, research in the affect literature has documented that affect is entrained to the social structure of the week (e.g., Beal & Ghandour, 2011; Egloff et al., 1995; Golder & Macy, 2011; Larsen & Kasimatis, 1990; Rook & Zijlstra, 2006). Yet, these studies remained largely descriptive and there was a striking lack of understanding of *why* these temporal patterns occur and under which conditions they are most pronounced. Our study highlights that it is the anticipation of work in the upcoming workweek that drives these recurring weekly patterns in positive and negative affect. This insight is not only theoretically relevant for a comprehensive understanding of the dynamic aspects of well-being. It is also of direct practical relevance for organizations. The wider affect

[6] A more fine-grained analysis was not possible due to limited sample sizes.

literature suggests that individuals experiencing short-term changes in emotions and affect are less healthy psychologically (Houben et al., 2015). Researchers have therefore concluded that "happiness is best kept stable (. . .)" (Gruber et al., 2013; p. 1) and it is important to identify factors that help promote such stability of affect. Identifying work anticipation as a driver of weekly affect rhythms, a specific form of short-term change in affect, may, therefore, serve as a starting point to leverage the health and well-being of employees.

Second, our study offers novel insights into how work-related conditions shape weekly patterns in affective well-being. Early research has suggested that individuals differ in the extent to which they undergo weekly changes in affect (Larsen & Kasimatis, 1990). Seeking to explain these interindividual differences, these studies have focused on personality traits such as extraversion or affect spin (Beal & Ghandour, 2011; Larsen & Kasimatis, 1990). Larsen and Kasimatis (1990) found stronger weekly trends in positive mood for introverts as opposed to extraverts, while Beal and Ghandour (2011) found weekly trends for positive affect to be more pronounced for individuals high as opposed to low on affect spin. Our findings add to this by highlighting the role of work-related factors in shaping changes in affect over the course of the week. In addition to personality factors, structural and psychological working conditions thus influence the strength of weekly affect patterns. Taken together, the way weekly patterns in affect follow weekly patterns in anticipation of work in combination with the identification of work-related boundary conditions illustrates that work itself plays a key role in the entrainment of affect to the weekly calendar.

Third, our findings exemplify how considering subjective time concepts inform our understanding of employees' experiences and behavior (Shipp & Jansen, 2021) and confirm Lewin's early proposition that both the psychological past and psychological future shape experiences in the current moment (Lewin, 1943). Specifically, our findings add to emerging research highlighting the role of future-oriented cognitions in the stress process. Anticipatory stress processes have, to date, received little theoretical and empirical attention in the work stress and health literature (cf. Meurs & Perrewé, 2011). A few exceptions are recent studies focusing on workload anticipation and investigating effects on well-being and strain outcomes (Casper et al., 2017; Casper & Sonnentag, 2020; Clark et al., 2021; DiStaso & Shoss, 2020). The present study adds novel insights to this emerging stream of research. It revealed that work anticipation is not a stable construct but that it fluctuates within persons over time. These fluctuations do not occur randomly or purely as a result of external events and experiences. Rather, our findings show that they (also) follow a predictable rhythm that is a function of the day of the week, chronic workload, and the structure of the workweek.

Our findings also inform the medical literature that has documented a stronger morning blood pressure surge on Mondays compared to other days (Murakami et al., 2004), and a peak in myocardial infarction on Mondays compared to other days, especially in the working population (Willich et al., 1994). Similarly, Arntz et al. (2000) found a surge in the occurrence of sudden death on Monday mornings, especially for people under the age of 65, which, according to the authors, is related to employment status. Although authors have speculated that work plays a role in explaining these patterns, the exact work-related processes remained unexplored. The anticipation of work account thereby also informs this literature as anticipation of work may play a role in the peak in blood pressure and myocardial infarction on Mondays.

Practical Implications

Our findings suggest that on average, employees experience lowest levels of well-being at the start of the week. This is an unfortunate pattern considering that employees just had the opportunity to replenish their resources during the weekend respite. To counter this pattern, supervisors and occupational health practitioners may make employees aware of anticipation as a source of the "Monday Blues" and help them develop personal strategies to reduce increased anticipation, especially at the start of the week. Mindfulness-based interventions may also be a viable way to promote more stable levels of anticipation and affect as research has documented that individuals high on mindfulness are less susceptible to weekly trends (Hülsheger et al., 2014, 2021).

Our findings may also be considered in light of compressed workweeks, a flexible work arrangement where a full-time schedule is compressed into fewer but longer working days, typically four 10-hr workdays (Hyatt & Coslor, 2018; Kossek & Michel, 2011). Such compressed workweeks have gained popularity in the private and public sector and are advocated as a form of family-friendly policy as they allow for a 3-day weekend (Hyatt & Coslor, 2018). Although such 4/10 schedules have been associated with benefits such as more weekend recovery time, better sleep quality, and work–life balance (Amendola et al., 2011), they also come at a cost. Without a reduction in work hours and tasks, the workload that is typically distributed across 5 workdays is compressed into 4 days. This likely not only comes with higher fatigue levels on the 4 working days (Hyatt & Coslor, 2018), but it may also reinforce weekly patterns in anticipation and affect. With workload kept stable, employees with a 4/10 schedule mentally foresee the same amount of work at the start of the week as employees with a 5/8 schedule but they have fewer days available to cope with them. This likely drives higher starting levels of anticipation at the start of the compressed workweek and a steeper downward trend toward the end of the 4-day workweek.

Limitations and Future Directions

Despite several strengths (e.g., the experience-sampling design; rigorous latent growth curve analyses, allowing to model change in independent and dependent variables simultaneously), the present study is not without limitations and we see fruitful avenues for future research. First, we utilized self-report measures which can generally lead to biases due to common-method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Yet, our hypotheses did not focus on relationships between variables, but on processes at the within-person level (i.e., within person change trajectories over time and relationships between these within person change trajectories), which are less likely to be influenced by response tendencies and between-person characteristics that are often potential sources of common-method bias (Gabriel et al., 2018; Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). Similarly, interaction effects are unlikely to be distorted by common-method variance (Siemsen et al., 2010).

In line with previous research on weekly trajectories in work behavior and experiences, we used a 7-day diary design. In our main analyses, we modeled changes in work anticipation and affect between Monday and Friday, the traditional working days

(e.g., Haun & Oppenauer, 2019; Hülsheger et al., 2014, 2021). Subsequently, we replicated findings using data from Monday till Sunday. Such data collected over the course of a single week provides insights into weekly trajectories. Strictly speaking, however, it does not allow drawing conclusions about recurring weekly cycles as we did not assess the extent to which participants reverted to the previous Monday's level of affect and anticipation on the following Monday.

While we studied the anticipation of work account in Western countries with traditional Monday–Friday workweeks, an investigation of anticipation and affect trajectories in countries where a different workweek pattern is the norm might provide an interesting replication and extension. For instance, in Iran where the regular workdays are from Saturday till Thursday, the peak in anticipation should be on a Saturday rather than on a Monday as in our sample.

Our data had a longitudinal setup and we modeled within-person change trajectories using state-of-the-art analytical techniques. Although the modeling of relationships between change trajectories over time provides a more rigorous test of relations than cross-sectional data, (Cheong et al., 2003), the ultimate test of the causal role of anticipation would require an experimental manipulation of anticipation. Importantly, however, the two predictors of anticipation trajectories, that is, chronic workload and structure of the workweek were assessed prior to anticipation and affect and were used as time-fixed covariates in our growth curve models. This allows drawing inferences about Granger causality (Schuurman et al., 2016).

Taking a first step toward establishing the role of the structure of the workweek in weekly patterns, we investigated to what extent anticipation trajectories and the role of workload as a moderator were conditional on regular Monday–Friday workweeks. Our main analyses, therefore, focused on comparing regular to irregular workweeks without differentiating different types of irregularity. In our exploratory supplementary analyses, we took a refined view and differentiated irregular workweeks into reduced and extended workweeks. Although findings should be interpreted with caution due to the small sample size, they suggest that differences in weekly trajectories between regular and irregular workweeks were predominantly driven by employees with extended workweeks who worked on weekends. Future research may further explore different patterns of irregularity and investigate how they uniquely shape weekly anticipation and affect trajectories.

The present conceptualization of work anticipation focuses on the prospection of work demands and challenges and thereby has a predominantly negative connotation. Although negative future events and circumstances are likely more salient than positive ones, we note that employees may also have positive events and achievements to look forward to and can therefore also engage in more positive forms of anticipation (see, e.g., Rutten et al., 2022; Weigelt et al., 2021). Since the anticipation of work account of weekly affect trajectories rests on the prospection of demands and challenges, positive anticipation was not the focus of the present study. Yet, future research may explore to what extent positive anticipation follows similar weekly trajectories and whether these differentially relate to weekly affect trajectories.

We believe that the present findings pave the way for research into weekly patterns in other well-being, health, and work outcomes. In 1999, Weiss and colleagues (Weiss et al., 1999) argued that mood and emotions have implications for work behavior and concluded that "since affect fluctuates, so too should these behavioral consequences" (p. 21). Work outcomes that are influenced by affect, such as work–family conflict or cross-over effects may therefore display similar weekly patterns. The extent to which weekly affect trajectories drive changes in these downstream outcomes is thus a fruitful avenue for future research.

Conclusion

This study attests that affective well-being is inherently dynamic in nature in that it changes systematically over the course of the workweek. We theoretically developed and tested the anticipation of work account as an explanation of this dynamic feature of affect. Our findings suggest that the systematic weekly trends in positive and negative affect are driven by systematic weekly trends in anticipation of work; anticipation of work was highest on Monday when employees face most of the work that needs to be accomplished within the workweek lying ahead of them and then gradually decreases as the workweek progresses. We also uncovered important boundary conditions of this pattern: It was strongest for employees with a traditional Monday–Friday structure of the workweek and high chronic workload. Taken together, this research shows the importance of adopting a temporal perspective when studying affect and the role of work and working conditions in affective well-being.

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