



Exploring the Role of Workplace Meetings in Modern Work Arrangements

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Abstract

Purpose: We aim to better understand the relationship between the number of meetings an employee participates in (i.e. meeting load) and both employee engagement and burnout measures, across three work arrangements common today: remote-only, in-person-only, and hybrid.

Methodology: We draw from the Conservation of Resources theory to hypothesize the relationships between meeting load and both work outcomes. We conduct a structural equation model based on panel survey data from 1,137 respondents to analyze our hypotheses.

Findings: We find that relative to the hybrid work arrangement, engagement is lower in the in-person only arrangement and burnout is higher in the remote-only arrangement. Also, meeting load is positively related to burnout. As to the interaction effects, meeting load in the on-site work arrangement situation relates positively to both engagement and burnout.

Practical implications: Our findings provide valuable practical insight as organizations are debating what work arrangement to offer and how to best organize employees for coordination and communication in an increasingly complex and distributed working environment.

Originality: The COVID-19 pandemic created a seismic shift in the way people work: it released an avalanche of workplace meetings; it normalized hybrid work arrangements; and it heightened attention on work outcomes. This study lies at the intersection of these three important trends.

Keywords: Meeting load; Hybrid work; Employee engagement; Burnout; Conservation of resources theory

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Ever since attempts were first made to understand how much time employees spend in workplace meetings (Rogelberg *et al.*, 2007), the number of meetings (or meeting load) has consistently shown an upward trend.¹ The reason meetings are used so much is because they are flexible tools for accomplishing collaborative tasks (Allen, Beck, *et al.*, 2014). In addition to serving important organizational functions, a meeting has been described as “an event that mirrors and impacts the broader workplace system” (Johnson and Mabry, 2022, p. 381) and to “have a profound impact on individual workplace attitudes” (Lehmann-Willenbrock *et al.*, 2016, p. 1295). In this regard, prior findings are seemingly contradictory, as (virtual) meeting participation relates to work outcomes that are both positive (e.g., employee engagement or control over work) as well as negative (e.g., fatigue or burnout) (Lehmann-Willenbrock *et al.*, 2016; Romney *et al.*, 2024; Standaert *et al.*, 2023).

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The attention to positive and negative work outcomes has intensified recently, not only due to the increase in meetings since the COVID-19 pandemic (Allen and Lehmann-Willenbrock, 2023) but also because of changes in workplace arrangements (Newman *et al.*, 2022). Until recently, the default work arrangement for most employees was to work full time from the office, but the pandemic changed this paradigm. Lockdown and social-distancing measures required a sudden and almost complete switch to remote work for most office workers, also referred to as work-from-home (WFH) (Reed and Allen, 2021). Moreover, while remote work is associated with positive outcomes regarding well-being² when it is voluntary (Allen *et al.*, 2015), it was forced upon employees during the pandemic (Becker *et al.*, 2022). As a result,

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¹ For more information, see <https://blog.lucidmeetings.com/blog/how-many-meetings-are-there-per-day-in-2022>

² Well-being refers to an “optimal psychological functioning and experience” (Ryan and Deci, 2001, p. 142).

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3 levels of stress and burnout rose (Shockley, Clark, *et al.*, 2021), and employees quit their jobs
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5 with greater frequency than ever before, referred to as the “great resignation.”³
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8 With well-being considerations becoming key in attracting and retaining employees
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10 (Bennett *et al.*, 2021), the work arrangement is an important consideration in the “new world of
11 work” (Zamani and Spanaki, 2023). The pandemic allowed organizations and employees to
12 experience the advantages of remote work, primarily in terms of time and cost savings related to
13 commuting for employees and office space costs for organizations. Moreover, several studies
14 showed that employees were as productive in WFH arrangements as they were in the in-office
15 arrangement before the pandemic (Microsoft Research, 2021). Nevertheless, issues that have
16 been associated with remote work include employee feelings of loneliness (Becker *et al.*, 2022)
17 and lower levels of social connectedness and group belonging (Blanchard, 2021).
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20 In the post-pandemic age, the majority of organizations considers hybrid work to be the
21 “new normal” (Newman *et al.*, 2022), the goal of which is to obtain the best of both worlds:
22 providing employees the opportunity to do individual, focused work while remote and participate
23 in sensory-rich exchanges and collaborations with colleagues while in the office (Bloom *et al.*,
24 2022). Recent research also indicates that hybrid work is the most prominent work arrangement
25 among employees that are offered flexibility, with 43% choosing to work hybrid, versus 35%
26 fully remote and 24% full-time from the office.⁴ Given these important shifts, we set out to
27 address the research question: “*How do workplace meetings, work arrangements, and their*
28 *interactions relate to employee engagement and burnout?*” We draw from the Conservation of
29 Resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001) to develop our hypotheses. To test our
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54 ³ In the US alone, 47 million people quit their job in 2021 (Source: <https://www.cnbc.com/2022/06/21/beyonce-break-my-soul-is-an-ode-to-the-great-resignation.html>).
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56 ⁴ Source: <https://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2023/03/30/about-a-third-of-us-workers-who-can-work-from-home-do-so-all-the-time/>

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3 hypotheses, we run a structural equation model based on data provided by 1,137 panel survey
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5 respondents.
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8 This study helps to unravel seemingly contradictory relationships that abound in the new
9 world of work (Kokshagina and Schneider, 2022). Indeed, prior research relating meeting load to
10 both positive and negative work outcomes has separately examined meetings in different
11 modalities (i.e. face-to-face and virtual meetings), but has not considered potential distinct roles
12 of meetings across work arrangements. We also contribute to the literature on work
13 arrangements, by highlighting the implications of meeting participation beyond the meeting
14 context itself (Lehmann-Willenbrock *et al.*, 2016). This is also the first study, to our best
15 knowledge, to compare work outcomes across these three work arrangements. As such, we
16 contribute to the larger questions around the lasting implications of the pandemic in terms of
17 productivity and well-being (Becker *et al.*, 2022). A theoretical contribution of this paper relates
18 to further validation of the notion that resource-based theories can be used to explain
19 contradictory findings related to (virtual) meeting load (Allen *et al.*, 2012; Standaert *et al.*,
20 2023). Finally, our findings are also of importance to managers and leaders in organizations, as
21 they are seeking guidance to successfully navigate human resource management in a world of
22 work that is at a turning point.
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42 2. Theory and hypotheses development

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44 In this section, we develop a number of hypotheses drawing upon the Conservation of Resources
45 (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001). At the basis of this theory lies the argument that people are
46 motivated to retain, protect, and grow their resources (Hobfoll, 1989). Resources are
47 conceptualized broadly in the theory, namely as “anything perceived by the individual to help
48 attain his or her goals” (Halbesleben *et al.*, 2014, p. 1338). Resources can include a physical or
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3 digital object, a condition, a personal characteristic or skill, time, energy, cognitive effort,
4 emotional labor, status, or money (Halbesleben *et al.*, 2014; Hobfoll and Freedy, 1993).
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7 Furthermore, the theory considers the interaction of resources that exist at several levels:
8 individual, group, organization, and society (Hobfoll, 2001). The attainment of goals then can
9 also be expressed in terms of obtaining (more) valued resources.
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12 Central to COR theory is the notion that resource gains are associated with positive
13 outcomes (Hobfoll, 1989), such as improved employee engagement, job performance, and
14 overall employee well-being (Lee *et al.*, 2020; Wright and Cropanzano, 1998). In contrast, the
15 threat or actual loss of resources, a lower-than-expected return on resource investment, and the
16 perception of having a shortage of valuable resources are associated with negative outcomes,
17 such as stress or burnout (Hobfoll, 2001; Hobfoll and Freedy, 1993). Moreover, the theory
18 argues that the avoidance of loss is primary to obtaining gains, referred to as the “primacy of
19 loss” (Hobfoll and Freedy, 1993).
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22 In the context of meetings and work arrangements, the abstract notion of resources to be
23 leveraged can be interpreted as time, information, energy, or relationships and the desired
24 outputs (i.e., goals) are primarily functional (e.g., making decisions, solving a problem) or social
25 (e.g., getting buy-in, gaining status), but may in the longer run also involve for instance getting a
26 raise or making promotion.
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29 2.1 Meeting load and work outcomes 30 31

32 Our first two hypotheses relate meeting load to employee engagement and burnout. The Meeting
33 Science literature shows that meeting processes relate to both positive and negative well-being
34 outcomes (Allen *et al.*, 2016; Lehmann-Willenbrock *et al.*, 2016; Luong and Rogelberg, 2005;
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O'Neill and Allen, 2012), hence they have the potential to both supply resources and drain them (Allen *et al.*, 2012). Before the COVID-19 pandemic, studies did not consider meeting modality, working under the assumption that the large majority of meetings were taking place face-to-face and that modality could therefore be ignored. Since then, an important debate arose on the relationship between virtual meeting participation and negative well-being outcomes (e.g., fatigue), as employees experienced increased levels of exhaustion at the end of a working day filled with (back-to-back) virtual meetings (Bennett *et al.*, 2021; Fosslien and West, 2020). However, Standaert *et al.* (2023) found that virtual meeting load was also related to positive well-being (i.e. influence on work).

Prior work on meeting load pointed out that the number of meetings plays a bigger role than the total number of hours spent in meetings (Luong and Rogelberg, 2005; Standaert *et al.*, 2023). Considering the same amount of time spent in a single meeting versus multiple ones, it becomes clear that more resources are likely to be spent in multiple meetings (e.g., cognitive resources because of switching subjects), but the potential for resource gain is also larger in multiple meetings (e.g., develop relationships with different colleagues). The two work outcomes that we study in this paper (i.e. employee engagement and burnout) "are considered pertinent in the context of occupational stress management studies" (Srivastava *et al.*, 2015, p. 356).

Employee engagement refers to "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption" (Schaufeli *et al.*, 2002, p. 74). Such engagement is associated with high levels of physical, cognitive, and emotional resources that result in employee commitment and performance (Schaufeli *et al.*, 2003). Prior research has identified meetings as a potential powerful vehicle for increasing engagement, because of the access to resources in the form of information, knowledge, and relationships, which empower

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3 employees to feel cognitively capable to engage in their role (Allen *et al.*, 2012, 2016). Meetings
4 can also be crucial for identifying and reducing work-related difficulties and uncertainties,
5 helping employees obtain their work-related goals (Scott *et al.*, 2015). Moreover, meetings are
6 an important place for participating in teamwork and for voicing opinions, which are directly
7 related to the development of employee engagement (Allen and Rogelberg, 2013).
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10 Meetings also have a sense-making, social, and symbolic role (Schwartzman, 1989; Scott
11 *et al.*, 2015). They are an important component of the general workplace experience, as they
12 display organizational culture and values (Lehmann-Willenbrock *et al.*, 2016). On a related note,
13 employees can find meaning in the work they do through meetings, as it is a vehicle to obtain
14 recognition for work contributions, and they offer an arena to develop and enact status,
15 leadership, and authority (Standaert *et al.*, 2016). Finally, informal interaction before, during, or
16 after the meetings is where a lot of influencing and negotiating happens (Rogelberg *et al.*, 2007),
17 which may also help employees accomplish their work-related goals and improve engagement
18 (Allen and Rogelberg, 2013). Hence, important resources to support work activities can be
19 gained through both the functional and non-functional role of meetings (Adisa *et al.*, 2023). In
20 keeping with prior research and COR theory, we argue that meetings can be associated with a
21 resource gain that facilitates employee engagement, and formulate the hypothesis:
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Hypothesis 1: Meeting load relates positively to employee engagement.

47 Turning now to the more negative potential outcomes of meeting load, burnout refers to feelings
48 of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization (Maslach and Jackson, 1981). COR theory is
49 widely used to explain burnout and stress, caused by (perceived) resource losses (Halbesleben,
50 2006; Hobfoll and Freedy, 1993). The main finite resource that is invariably consumed in
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meetings is participants' time (Allen *et al.*, 2012). In addition, cognitive resources are used in meetings, which can vary depending on the participant's role in the meeting (Nyquist *et al.*, 2018). Furthermore, since meetings are scheduled at a specific time, they may interrupt ongoing work activities and lead to cognitive "switching costs" (Luong and Rogelberg, 2005; Rogelberg *et al.*, 2014), potentially competing for resources (time and energy) needed to accomplish other work-related tasks (Johnson and Mabry, 2022). As to emotional resources, when meetings are not properly prepared or conducted, they are associated with frustration and time needed to recover (Allen *et al.*, 2022). Also, prior research has attributed emotional exhaustion in meetings to emotional labor in the form of surface acting (Nyquist *et al.*, 2018). This involves "expressing inauthentic emotions in meetings" (Shanock *et al.*, 2013, p. 457), primarily interpreted as masking negative feelings and emotions by faking positivity (Johnson and Mabry, 2022). In summary, meetings have been denoted as "stressors" that may deplete rather than supply collective resources from participants (Scott *et al.*, 2015). In keeping with COR theory, we therefore hypothesize:

Hypothesis 2: Meeting load relates positively to burnout.

2.2 Work arrangements and work outcomes

Prior work has highlighted the advantages and success factors of remote work (or tele-work or tele-commuting) (Allen *et al.*, 2015), indicating that the relationship between the extent of remote working and positive outcomes is not necessarily positive (Golden, 2006; Golden and Veiga, 2005). More specifically, there may be an optimum balance of remote work and working from the office (Biron and Van Veldhoven, 2016), which is today popularized using the concept of hybrid work (Newman *et al.*, 2022). However, many prior studies did not distinguish full-time

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3 remote from hybrid work (Allen *et al.*, 2015). As we do so in this study, we consider three
4 common work arrangements of today: remote only, in person only, and hybrid. Since hybrid is a
5 combination of remote and on-site, we decided it was most insightful to posit hypotheses relative
6 to the hybrid setting. In fact, we will argue that the hybrid work arrangement offers the best of
7 both worlds in terms of employee engagement and burnout.
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10 As to employee engagement, we associate hybrid work with voluntary decisions about
11 when to work, and from where, and therefore to offer the highest level of flexibility, autonomy,
12 and control (Allen *et al.*, 2015; Biron and Van Veldhoven, 2016). These have been associated
13 with resources such as energy, drive, enthusiasm, and positive job-related emotions (Adisa *et al.*,
14 2023). Because of a reciprocal relationship (Felstead and Henseke, 2017; Saks, 2006), hybrid
15 work can also be associated with dedication and commitment to work, in terms of longer
16 working hours, performing beyond expectations, and identifying with organizational values
17 (Bloom *et al.*, 2022). Therefore, relative to the in-person-only arrangement, hybrid work can be
18 expected to provide more resources that drive employee engagement (Golden, 2006). In contrast,
19 remote-only work has been associated with less social interaction with colleagues, resulting in
20 smaller or less strong social networks, which can be associated with reduced levels of knowledge
21 transfer and information sharing (Allen *et al.*, 2015; Woo *et al.*, 2023). The latter are, in turn,
22 important for facilitating work activities, especially those related to collaboration and innovation
23 (Tong *et al.*, 2013). Also, communication in the remote-only setting is technology-mediated by
24 definition (Allen *et al.*, 2015), which can be problematic for ambiguous situations that involve
25 various opinions and emotions (Daft and Lengel, 1986), thus inhibiting engagement of remote
26 employees (Golden *et al.*, 2008). Hence, the remote-only arrangement provides fewer resources
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3 that relate to positive emotions, behaviors, and thoughts towards the job, which are indicative of
4 employee engagement (Schaufeli *et al.*, 2002). Accordingly, we formulate the hypotheses:
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7 *Hypothesis 3a: Relative to the hybrid work arrangement, employee engagement is lower*
8 *for remote-only.*

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11 *Hypothesis 3b: Relative to the hybrid work arrangement, employee engagement is lower*
12 *for in-person-only.*

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19 As to burnout, we similarly argue that hybrid work is likely to be preferred over in-
20 person-only, as well as over remote-only. Relative to in-person-only, hybrid can be argued as
21 being better in terms of burnout because of the elements discussed above (i.e. autonomy,
22 flexibility, control), as these factors are also associated with lower levels of stress (Allen *et al.*,
23 2015). Also, in-person only has been associated with cognitive and emotional resource depletion
24 (Golden, 2006), because of workplace interruptions and distractions. Furthermore, both
25 employees working remote-only or in-person are more likely to experience emotional exhaustion
26 due to presenteeism, which refers to feeling pressure to be (virtually) present at work (Adisa *et*
27 *al.*, 2023). Furthermore, work-to-family conflict is more likely in a remote-only arrangement
28 than in a hybrid setting (Golden *et al.*, 2006) and competing resource demands are a source of
29 stress (Hobfoll and Freedy, 1993). Moreover, the extent of remote work can be related to issues
30 with psychological safety, including professional isolation, anxiety, and loneliness (Golden *et al.*,
31 2008). Finally, when working remotely, employees may not have an appropriate work
32 environment, for instance in terms of internet connection (Golden *et al.*, 2008) or physical office
33 space (Microsoft Research, 2021). All of these deplete (emotional) resources, hence we
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3 *Hypothesis 4a: Relative to the hybrid work arrangement, burnout is higher for remote-only.*
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6 *Hypothesis 4b: Relative to the hybrid work arrangement, burnout is higher for in-person-only.*
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10 2.3 *Interaction between meeting load and work arrangements* 11

12 As no prior research has compared the role of meetings across work arrangements, we will draw
13 from the literature that considers various meeting modalities to develop our hypotheses on the
14 interactions between the two. In so doing, one can safely make the assumption that in the remote-
15 only setting, meetings are virtual in nature (Fuchs and Reichel, 2023). Also, employees in a
16 hybrid work arrangement can be assumed to participate in a mix of virtual and face-to-face
17 meetings (Reed and Allen, 2022). For employees that work in-person only, the share of face-to-
18 face meetings is likely to be the highest, yet in the post-pandemic age a certain share of virtual
19 meetings is likely to remain part of the mix (Standaert *et al.*, 2022). Hence, the assumption we
20 make to develop our hypotheses is that the relative share of virtual (versus face-to-face) meetings
21 decreases (versus increases) going from remote-only, to hybrid, to in-person-only work
22 arrangements.⁵
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25 As to employee engagement, we expect that the larger the share of face-to-face meetings
26 is (assumed to be), the stronger the relationship between meeting load and employee
27 engagement, through the resources that can be acquired. Indeed, face-to-face meetings are more
28 effective for achieving meeting objectives and therefore work outcomes (Standaert *et al.*, 2022).
29 Moreover, because of the high level of social presence in face-to-face meetings, participants are
30 more likely to be absorbed in work-related interaction that comes with beneficial resource
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54 ⁵ Meetings can also be held in a hybrid modality, mixing in-person with virtual interaction, yet participants individually
55 experience one main modality: virtual or face-to-face. Therefore, we do not specifically consider hybrid meetings in developing
56 our assumptions underlying the hypotheses.
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3 generation (Standaert *et al.*, 2016). Instead, virtual meetings have been associated with a lack of
4 attention and interest for the discussion, and instead with more multi-tasking (Cao *et al.*, 2021;
5 Shockley, Gabriel, *et al.*, 2021), and such disengagement behavior depletes (cognitive)
6 resources. In addition to the functional superiority of face-to-face meetings, prior research also
7 indicates they are preferred over virtual interaction for resource acquisition related to sense-
8 making, establishing a common frame of reference, identifying with organizational culture, and
9 building group cohesion (Bergmann *et al.*, 2022; Blanchard and McBride, 2020; Golden *et al.*,
10 2008), which can all be positively related to employee engagement.
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13 Based on the above assumption of how the mix of face-to-face and virtual meeting
14 modalities vary across work arrangements, the relationship between meeting load and employee
15 engagement is expected to be less strong for remote-only employees (having only virtual
16 meetings). The relationship is additionally expected to be stronger for in-person-only employees
17 (having relatively most face-to-face meetings) than for hybrid workers participating in meetings
18 with a balanced mix of modalities. Hence, we formulate the following hypotheses:
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21 *Hypothesis 5a: Working remote-only negatively moderates the relationship between*
22 *meeting load and employee engagement such that meetings impact the engagement of remote-*
23 *only working employees less strongly than for hybrid working employees.*
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26 *Hypothesis 5b: Working in-person-only positively moderates the relationship between*
27 *meeting load and employee engagement such that meetings impact the engagement of in-person*
28 *working employees more strongly than for hybrid working employees.*
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31 As to burnout, we expect that the larger the share of virtual meetings is (assumed to be),
32 the stronger the relationship between meeting load and burnout, through resource depletion.
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Indeed, virtual meetings have been associated with cognitive load and the notion that non-verbal overload and self-view deplete mental resources (Bailenson, 2021; Riedl, 2022). Also, relative to face-to-face meetings, virtual meetings may involve “additional efforts and hassle, especially in terms of technological set-up” (Standaert *et al.*, 2023, p. 8), including issues due to internet bandwidth, technical equipment (e.g., camera or microphone), or software use (e.g., screen-sharing) (Bennett *et al.*, 2021; Hacker *et al.*, 2020). These challenges may be even worsened when alternating between video-conferencing platforms (Standaert *et al.*, 2023). Such stress-inducing issues are largely absent in face-to-face meetings (Microsoft Research, 2021).

Based on the above assumption of the mix of face-to-face and virtual modalities across work arrangements, the relationship between meeting load and burnout is expected to be stronger for remote-only employees (having only virtual meetings). The relationship is expected to be less strong for in-person-only employees (having relatively most face-to-face meetings) than for hybrid workers participating in meetings with a balanced mix of modalities. Hence, we formulate the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 6a: Working remote-only positively moderates the relationship between meeting load and burnout such that meetings impact the experienced burnout of remote-only working employees more strongly than for hybrid working employees.

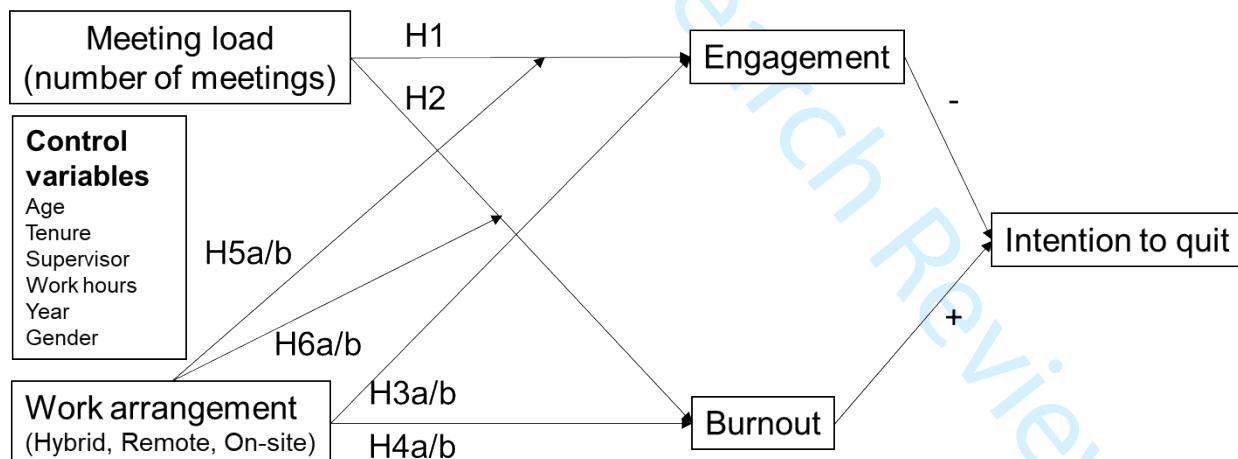
Hypothesis 6b: Working in-person-only negatively moderates the relationship between meeting load and burnout such that meetings impact the experienced burnout of in-person-only working employees less strongly than for hybrid working employees.

2.4 Work outcomes and intention to quit

Employee engagement and burnout are important work outcomes because they strongly relate to employees' intentions and behaviors (Maslach and Jackson, 1981; Saks, 2006). Similar to prior research, we relate resources (in our study related to meeting participation and work arrangement) to both employee engagement and burnout, and in turn relate these outcomes to intention to quit (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). Leveraging COR theory, prior research has established that employee engagement is associated with trustful, reciprocal relationships and therefore negatively relates to intention to quit (Halbesleben and Wheeler, 2008; Saks, 2006). Prior research has similarly shown that burnout positively relates to intention to quit (Lapointe *et al.*, 2011; Wright and Cropanzano, 1998). In this paper, we also seek to confirm these relationships.

The overall research model that displays our hypothesized relationships is shown in Figure I.

Figure I. Research model



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3 **3 Method**
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6 *3.1 Data collection*
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9 The data was collected via Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk),⁶ which has been used in similar
10 research before (Allen, Lehmann-Willenbrock, *et al.*, 2014; Blanchard *et al.*, 2022). We did not
11 impose any stratified sampling strategy. The survey was only available for people who had an
12 Amazon account, were in the United States, were 18 years of age or older, had a hit approval rate
13 of 99% or higher (meaning they are more likely to complete their MTurk tasks), and had
14 completed more than 500 tasks on MTurk before. Respondents were paid a small amount upon
15 completion of the survey. The data collection was conducted in two waves, in May 2021 and
16 June 2022, and a total sample of 1,669 responses was obtained. After eliminating responses
17 because of missing values, too-short response times, or suspicious repetitive behavior (Curran,
18 2016), 1,137 useful responses remained.
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32 *3.2 Measures*
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35 Validated scales from existing literature were employed to measure the constructs employee
36 engagement, burnout, and the intention to quit. Details on the employed scales and the
37 assessment of construct validity can be found in Appendices A and B, respectively.
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45 *Employee engagement* is the degree to which employees view their work in a positive and
46 fulfilling way (Allen and Rogelberg, 2013). Employee engagement was captured via a modified
47 version of the nine-item Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES-9) (Schaufeli *et al.*, 2003)
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55 ⁶ MTurk is a crowdsourcing website with which crowdworkers can be hired to complete tasks, such as completing a survey. For a
56 discussion of both the benefits and the drawbacks of this online data collection method we refer the reader to (Aguinis *et al.*,
57 2021).
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3 with seven-point Likert-type scales (1 = Strongly disagree to 7 = Strongly agree). These nine
4 items fall into three categories (vigor, dedication, absorption) that contribute to the overall
5 employee engagement construct. A composite score was calculated based on the nine items and
6 used for analysis. Sample statements from the UWES-9 include “*At my work, I feel bursting with*
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8 *energy,*” “*I am immersed in my work,*” and “*I am proud of the work that I do.*”
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17 *Burnout* is characterized as an extended response to chronic stress and is often captured in the
18 workplace setting (Maslach and Jackson, 1981). Burnout was measured based on the Maslach
19 Burnout Inventory (MBI-22) (Maslach and Jackson, 1981), employing the two subscales
20 emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Survey participants were asked to read each
21 statement and indicate if/how often they were feeling correspondingly about their job (1 = Never
22 to 7 = Every day). A composite score was calculated based on the fourteen items for the two
23 subscales emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Sample statements include “*I feel*
24 *emotionally drained from my work,*” “*In my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly,*”
25 and “*I've become more callous toward people since I took this job.*”
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40 *Intention to quit* assesses whether the participant is thinking about quitting their job. The
41 intention to quit was measured with a three-item scale with a seven-point Likert-type answering
42 scale (1 = Strongly disagree to 7 = Strongly agree) derived from previous turnover intention
43 scales (Michaels and Spector, 1982; Price and Bluedorn, 1979). A composite score was created
44 and used for analysis. The three items include “*I may look for another job soon,*” “*I often think of*
45 *quitting my present job,*” and “*I intend to stay in my present job*” (reversed).
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3 *Meeting load and Work arrangement:* Meeting load was incorporated as a continuous variable
4 (number of meetings per week). The question for work arrangement was “What is your current
5 work situation?” and three answer options were provided: “completely remote”; “hybrid (some
6 remote, some on-site)”; and “completely on-site work.” For the analysis, this variable was turned
7 into two binary variables, with the hybrid work arrangement serving as the reference category.
8 The binary variable “remote-only” takes value 1 for all respondents who declared their work to
9 take place fully remotely and value 0 for everyone else. The binary variable “in-person-only”
10 takes value 1 for all respondents who declared their work to take place fully on-site.
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24 *Control variables:* In order to better identify the impact of our main variables of interest
25 (meeting load and work arrangement) on employee engagement and burnout, we incorporate
26 demographic and job-related control variables into the analysis. We consider age (in years),
27 gender, the number of years in the current job, the average working hours per week, and whether
28 a respondent has a supervisory function in their job (binary). Including these control variables is
29 in keeping with prior research on workplace meetings (Shockley, Gabriel, *et al.*, 2021; Standaert
30 *et al.*, 2023) and work arrangements (Haider and Anwar, 2022). Moreover, we account for a
31 potential time effect on engagement and burnout because data was collected in 2021 and 2022.
32 The effect is accounted for by incorporating a binary variable that captures the effect of the year
33 2022.
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3 Table 1 contains the descriptive summaries of the variables of interest to our study.
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6 **Table 1. Descriptive statistics of the main and control (independent) variables**

7 Continuous variables	8 Mean	9 Standard deviation	10 Min	11 Max
12 Meeting load (Number of meetings per week)	13 10.88	14 7.81	15 4	16 47
17 Age	18 38.26	19 11.56	20 20	21 76
22 Years in current job	23 7.37	24 6.27	25 0	26 52
27 Working hours per week	28 37.27	29 12.38	30 5	31 84
32 Categorical variables	33 Categories	34 Frequencies	35 Percentage	36
37 Work arrangement	38 Hybrid	39 367	40 32.3	41
	42 Onsite	43 345	44 30.3	45
	46 Remote	47 425	48 37.4	49
50 Gender	51 Female	52 532	53 46.8	54
	56 Male	57 605	58 53.2	59
60 Supervisory function	61 No	62 388	63 34.1	64
	66 Yes	67 749	68 65.9	69
70 Year	71 2021	72 542	73 47.7	74
	76 2022	77 595	78 52.3	79

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35 As a first step to analyze our research model (see Figure I), we carried out a confirmatory factor
36 analysis to examine the validity of the measurement model for the constructs employee
37 engagement, burnout, and intention to quit ($\chi^2 (296) = 2419.69$, RMSEA = 0.079, CFI = 0.904,
38 SRMR = 0.091). The detailed assessment of construct validity for the CFA, presented in
39 Appendix B, shows that the proposed constructs are valid and that the measurement model has a
40 satisfying fit. Table 2 displays the correlation matrix for the multi-item constructs and the
41 continuous variables in our model. The values of 0.93, 0.97 and 0.69 on the diagonal indicate the
42 construct reliabilities for employee engagement, burnout, and the intention to quit, respectively.
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Table 2. Correlations and construct reliabilities (on the diagonal),

Significance Level: ***< 0.001; ** < 0.01

	Employee engagement	Burnout	Intention to quit	Meeting load	Respondent's age	Years in current job
Employee engagement	0.93					
Burnout	-0.00	0.97				
Intention to quit	-0.09**	0.78***	0.69			
Meeting load	0.05*	0.23***	0.19***			
Respondents' age	-0.02	-0.27***	-0.25***	-0.05*		
Experience in current job	0.05*	-0.06*	-0.10***	-0.03	0.51***	
Working hours per week	0.01	-0.10***	-0.08***	-0.05	0.00	0.04

4 Results

To test our research model, we use a linear structural equation model (SEM). Relying on 1,137 observations, we obtain an identified and stable model.⁷ As employee engagement and burnout are related work outcomes (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004), we allow the error terms of the two constructs to be correlated. The estimation results for the structural model parts in the SEM are presented for employee engagement and burnout in Table 4 and for intention to quit in Table 5.

For each construct, we report the estimates of three models: (1) only including the control variables (first column); (2) model 1 extended with the main effects meeting load and work arrangement (second column); (3) model 2 extended with interaction effects between meeting load and work arrangement (third column).

In Table 3, we report a set of model diagnostics for the three structural models. Next to the χ^2 goodness-of-fit statistic, which might be strongly impacted by our large sample size and model complexity, we report the RMSEA and the CFI for the three models. We conclude that

⁷ We used the software program Stata for the estimation of the SEM.

our model shows a satisfactory model fit with RMSEAs below 0.07 and a CFI of 0.90. When extending the simple model only containing the control variables (1) with the meeting load and work arrangement (2), the p-value of the $\Delta \chi^2$ indicates a significant increase in model fit. For the model including the interaction effects (3), the increase in model fit compared to the extended model is not statistically significant.

Table 3: Goodness-of-fit statistics for structural model

Structural model diagnostics			
	1. Control variables	2. Main effects	3. Interaction effects
χ^2 (d.f.), p-value	2689 (441), p=0.00	2795 (513), p=0.00	2827 (561), p=0.00
$\Delta \chi^2$ (d.f.) p-value		116 (72) p=0.00	32 (48) p=0.96
Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation with confidence interval (RMSEA)	0.067 (0.065; 0.069)	0.063 (0.060; 0.065)	0.060 (0.057; 0.062)
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.90	0.90	0.90

As shown in Table 4, the control variables explain 8.1% of the variance in employee engagement and 18.5% of the variance in burnout. Among the control variables, the indicator of having a supervisory role and the time effect⁸ both have a significant and positive relationship with both employee engagement and burnout. In addition, age (negative), experience (positive), and working hours per week (negative) have a significant relationship with burnout. The sign of the latter is surprising, but can be explained by some respondents reporting very low working hours.

⁸ In addition to controlling for the time effect in the main analysis, we checked the robustness of our results by running separate models with two split samples according to the year. We found that none of the coefficients showed opposite directions in a significant way.

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 3 **Table 4: Table entries denote standardized coefficients and standard errors in parentheses**
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 5 **(significance: *** < 0.01, ** < 0.05, * < 0.1); the last two rows contain the equationwise and**
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 7 **overall model R²**
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	Employee engagement			Burnout		
	1. Control variables	2. Main effects	3. Interaction effects	1. Control variables	2. Main effects	3. Interaction effects
Age	-0.005 (0.035)	-0.004 (0.035)	-0.005 (0.035)	-0.243*** (0.032)	-0.242*** (0.031)	-0.243*** (0.031)
Experience in current job	0.052 (0.035)	0.052 (0.035)	0.056 (0.035)	0.097*** (0.032)	0.101*** (0.031)	0.105*** (0.031)
Working hours per week	0.017 (0.030)	0.023 (0.030)	0.024 (0.030)	-0.077*** (0.028)	-0.053* (0.027)	-0.052* (0.027)
Female	-0.035 (0.030)	-0.030 (0.030)	-0.030 (0.030)	-0.040 (0.028)	-0.027 (0.027)	-0.027 (0.027)
Supervisory function	0.164*** (0.030)	0.163*** (0.030)	0.160*** (0.030)	0.072** (0.027)	0.064** (0.027)	0.062** (0.027)
Year 2022	0.178*** (0.030)	0.183*** (0.031)	0.180*** (0.030)	0.296*** (0.027)	0.289*** (0.027)	0.287*** (0.027)
Meeting load (meetings per week)		0.013 (0.030)	-0.055 (0.060)		0.158*** (0.027)	0.079 (0.054)
Remote-only vs hybrid work		0.035 (0.035)	0.015 (0.062)		0.151*** (0.031)	0.112** (0.056)
In-person-only vs hybrid work		-0.026 (0.035)	-0.121** (0.059)		0.040 (0.031)	-0.055 (0.053)
Remote-only* Meeting load			0.031 (0.072)			0.057 (0.065)
In-person-only* Meeting load			0.132** (0.066)			0.133** (0.059)
Equationwise R ²	0.081	0.085	0.088	0.185	0.229	0.232
Overall model R ²	0.246	0.289	0.294	0.246	0.289	0.294

Upon incorporating the variables of interest in the second model (i.e. meeting load and work arrangement), we observe an increase in the explained variance for both dependent variables (to 8.5% and 22.9%, respectively). Meeting load is positively associated with burnout, and the effect is statistically highly significant (supporting H2). While the sign for employee engagement is positive, it is not statistically significantly different from zero (no support for H1). Information on the work arrangement (remote, hybrid, or on-site) is included by means of the two binary variables: remote-only and in-person-only. The hybrid work situation is chosen as the reference category (hence, no separate dummy variable is included), and estimated effects for variables remote-only and in-person-only have to be interpreted in comparison to a hybrid working situation. Compared to a hybrid working situation, working remote-only is positively and statistically significantly associated with burnout (supporting H4a), but not with employee engagement (no support for H3a). Comparing in-person-only working with a hybrid work arrangement, no significant relationships are found for employee engagement (no support for H3b) or burnout (no support for H4b).

Incorporating the interaction effects (between meeting load and work arrangement) in the third model, we observe a further, albeit small, increase in explained variance for the dependent variables (to 8.8% and 23.2% respectively). In this model, we do find that in-person-only work relates negatively to employee engagement (supporting H3b). However, we find no evidence that a remote-only work arrangement significantly affects how meeting load is related to engagement or burnout (no support for H5a and H6a), as both interaction effects are rather small and not statistically significant. On the contrary, working in-person-only significantly moderates the link between the number of meetings and both work outcomes, employee engagement (supporting H5b) and burnout (opposite to what was hypothesized in H6b). An increase in the number of

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3 meetings in an in-person-only work arrangement is associated with a substantially stronger
4 increase in the reported degree of employee engagement and burnout than in a hybrid work
5 arrangement.
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9 The overall effect of meeting load on engagement in an in-person-only work arrangement
10 can be calculated as follows “ $-0.121 + (0.132 - 0.055) * \text{number of meetings}$ ” = “ $-0.121 + 0.077$
11 * number of meetings,” so the marginal effect of the number of additional meetings is equal to
12 0.077 * number of meetings. If meeting load changes with one additional meeting per day or five
13 meetings per week, we thus observe an increase on the engagement score of $0.077 * 5 = 0.385$.
14
15 The total effect of meetings in an in-person-only work arrangement on the reported degree of
16 burnout can be obtained via “ $-0.055 + (0.079 + 0.133) * \text{number of meetings}$ ” = “ $-0.055 + 0.212$
17 * number of meetings.” If we now calculate the effect of five additional meetings per week, we
18 observe an increase on the burnout score of $0.212 * 5 = 1.06$.
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21 The parameter estimates for the main effect of meeting load in the last columns of Table
22 31 indicate the estimated effect of meetings on the work outcomes for hybrid work arrangements.
23 In both cases, we cannot reject that the effect is equal to zero. Instead, for the in-person-only
24 32 work arrangement, we find the effects of meeting load on both engagement ($\beta = 0.10, p < 0.05$)
25 and burnout ($\beta = 0.23, p < 0.01$) to be statistically different from zero. For the remote-only work
26 arrangement, the effect of meeting load on engagement is not statistically significantly different
27 from zero ($\beta = -0.02, p = 0.634$), whereas meeting load does significantly affect the reported
28 36 burnout ($\beta = 0.14, p < 0.01$).⁹
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31 Figure II further explores the observed interaction effects of the three work arrangements
32 on the work outcomes as a function of the weekly number of meetings. In these graphs, the fixed
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⁹ These results are not displayed in Table 4 but are available from the authors upon request.

values for the continuous variables correspond to the respective sample means of the variables (see Table 1). Therefore, the profile assumed is a 38-year-old woman with a supervisory function and job experience of 7.4 years who worked 37.3 hours per week in 2022. The graph on the left shows that for an increasing number of meetings, engagement increases for the in-person-only working arrangement, while it decreases for the hybrid and remote-only working arrangements. Moreover, the graph on the right illustrates the increase in burnout for an increasing number of meetings for all three work arrangements. It shows that burnout increases substantially faster for employees with an in-person-only work arrangement than for the remote-only or hybrid work arrangements.

Figure II. Predicted employee engagement (left) and burnout (right) as a function of the number of meetings per week, moderated by work arrangement

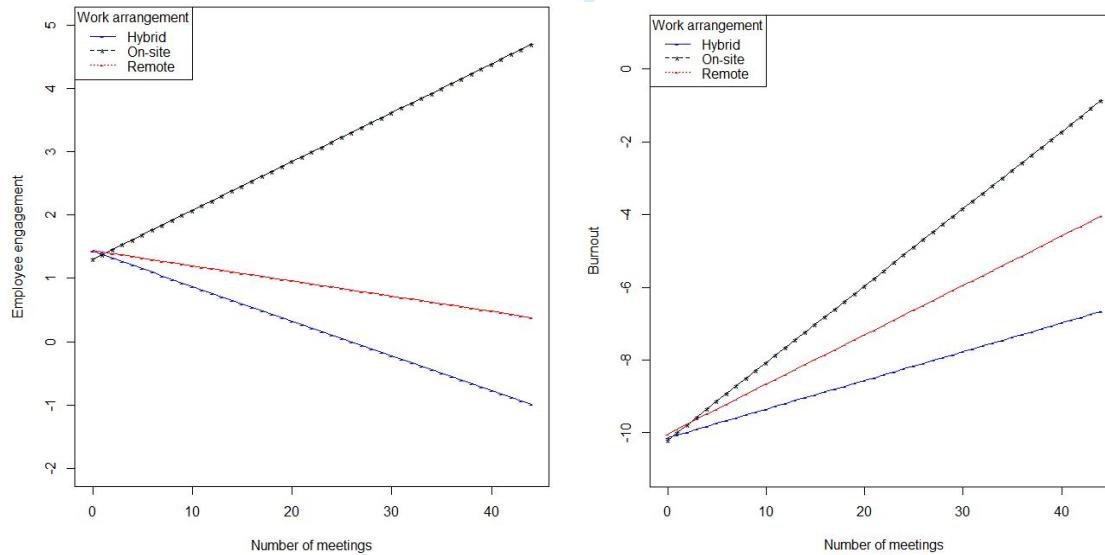


Table 5 shows the estimated coefficients for the relationship between employee engagement, burnout, and the intention to quit. The two constructs explain 61% of the variation in the intention to quit. Coefficients for both constructs are statistically highly significant and signs are

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3 as expected: while engagement relates negatively to the intention to quit, burnout is positively
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5 related to the reported intention to quit.
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8 **Table 5. Estimated standardized coefficients with standard errors in parentheses**
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10 **Significance: *** < 0.01, ** < 0.05, * < 0.1**
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	Intention to quit		
	Control variables	Main effects	Interaction effects
Employee engagement	-0.091*** (0.024)	-0.091*** (0.024)	-0.092*** (0.024)
Burnout	0.786*** (0.016)	0.787*** (0.016)	0.787*** (0.016)
Equationwise R ²	0.615	0.615	0.615
Overall model R ²	0.246	0.289	0.294

27 **5 Discussion**

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29 The research question we set out to address was: “*How do workplace meetings, work*
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31 *arrangements, and their interactions relate to employee engagement and burnout?*”
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34 Consistent with prior research that revealed a seemingly contradictory impact of meeting
35 load, we observe that “meetings appear to be both resource-draining and resource-supplying
36 activities in the workplace” (Allen *et al.*, 2012, p. 405). As to supplying resources resulting in
37 employee engagement, our analysis does not provide support for an overall relationship, but we
38 do find that meeting load has a positive relationship with engagement for in-person-only
39 employees. This is consistent with prior research that explained how workplace meetings provide
40 employees with access to resources that are essential to perform their job (Allen *et al.*, 2012).
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42 This study extends prior research by indicating that face-to-face meetings are instrumental for
43 facilitating work engagement, more so than virtual meetings.
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3 In terms of meetings as draining resources resulting in burnout, we find a general
4 relationship as hypothesized and consistent with prior research (Luong and Rogelberg, 2005).
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6 Our analysis also shows that the relationship is moderated by work arrangement. Consistent with
7 the emerging research on video-conferencing fatigue (Fosslien and West, 2020; Riedl, 2022), we
8 had argued that participating in virtual meetings in the remote-only setting would deplete
9 relatively more resources. Hence, we had hypothesized that the relationship would be stronger
10 for the remote-only setting (i.e. relatively more virtual meetings relates to more self-reported
11 burnout). However, we found the opposite: Meeting load in the in-person-only situation was
12 more strongly related to burnout, suggesting that face-to-face meetings may be relatively more
13 resource draining.
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15 What, then, could explain this intriguing observation? A first possible explanation
16 involves emotional labor in the form of surface or deep acting (Riforgiate *et al.*, 2022), for which
17 the jury is still out regarding whether this phenomenon occurs more in face-to-face or virtual
18 meetings (Reed and Allen, 2022). Prior research has pointed out that a lack of non-verbal cues
19 can induce a sense of anonymity, which is in turn associated with depersonalization, status
20 equalization, and a lowered inhibition to speak up (Tyran *et al.*, 1992). This effect aligns with the
21 notion that surface acting may be more prevalent in face-to-face meetings. Alternatively, it is
22 possible that virtual meetings are not as cognitively taxing and emotionally exhausting as they
23 are commonly portrayed to be in academia and popular press. Indeed, most research so far on the
24 phenomenon studied virtual meetings in a crisis situation, which involves high levels of
25 uncertainty and stress and may therefore not be generalizable. On a related note, it is possible
26 that video-conferencing fatigue is actually just screen fatigue, because of the extensive
27 technology use during the workday. Finally, an aspect of virtual meetings that is positive in
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3 terms of resource generation is related to providing remote-only employees an opportunity to
4 connect with others and feel less socially isolated (Abelsen *et al.*, 2023; Scott *et al.*, 2015).
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7 We had also hypothesized that resource acquisitions or drains varied across the three
8 common work arrangements of today, and we had advanced the idea that hybrid work may offer
9 the best of both worlds. Our findings reveal on the one hand that burnout is higher for the
10 remote-only setting and that engagement is lower for the in-person-only arrangement. The
11 conclusion that therefore hybrid work is indeed the optimal arrangement may not be surprising,
12 as it is consistent with prior research that indicated non-linear relationships between the extent of
13 remote work and work outcomes (Golden, 2006; Golden and Veiga, 2005), but it still adds to the
14 emerging empirical evidence and this based on a concurrent comparison of work outcomes
15 across all three arrangements. Indeed, in a recent randomized control trial, the hybrid working
16 group (two days a week WFH) was found to be more productive, showed higher levels of work
17 satisfaction, and had lower levels of turnover (Bloom *et al.*, 2022). Finally, it is important to note
18 that our SEM confirmed earlier found relationships between intention to quit and both employee
19 engagement and burnout. This further highlights the importance, validity, and reliability of this
20 study.
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23 5.1 Theoretical implications

24 This study provides further evidence for the usefulness of COR theory in the setting of virtual
25 and remote work and in explaining both resource gains and losses related to meeting
26 participation (Allen *et al.*, 2012; Standaert *et al.*, 2023). The pandemic provided a chance for
27 critical reflection upon meeting practices, including how to choose the modality effectively
28 (Standaert *et al.*, 2022) and how to ensure every participant feels included (Standaert and
29 Thunus, 2022). Our study highlights the significance of meetings as resources that should be
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3 thoughtfully managed, as they are powerful vehicles to gain, or avoid losing, resources at
4 individual, group, and organizational levels (Hobfoll, 2001). Consistent with the primacy of loss
5 avoidance (Hobfoll and Freedy, 1993), one could cope with the fear of resource loss by
6 canceling meetings (Laker *et al.*, 2022). This, however, would also result in foregoing the
7 resource gains possible through meetings. Also, meetings are part of a broader context and are
8 often inter-connected (Schwartzman, 1989; Thunus, 2023). Therefore, it is our hope that our
9 insights, combined with some of the future research outlined below, can advance our
10 understanding of how meetings can become resource “gain spirals” rather than “loss chains”
11 (Hobfoll and Freedy, 1993).

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14 The notion of “hybrid work” was ushered in by the COVID-19 pandemic and, unlike in
15 prior research (Allen *et al.*, 2015; Bailey and Kurland, 2002), this notion recognizes an
16 arrangement that is distinct from the two extremes (i.e. fully remote and fully on-site). Our study
17 highlights that a hybrid arrangement is preferable over fully remote work in the post-pandemic
18 age. Hence, this study contributes to the body of knowledge because while there is recent work
19 that compares remote-only with in-person-only arrangements (Gibbs *et al.*, 2021) or hybrid with
20 in-person-only (Bloom *et al.*, 2022), the three common work arrangements of today have not
21 been compared at the same time. Moreover, such comparison studies largely focus on
22 productivity rather than individual work outcomes. Our findings indicate that hybrid work seems
23 to offer the best of both worlds, which may be an intuitive finding, but our empirical validation is
24 still novel. Also, the COVID-19 pandemic episode caused a critical reflection on work
25 arrangements and our research highlights that an explicit distinction between the three work
26 arrangements can be purposeful and generative for refining our insights.

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3 *5.2 Practical implications*
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6 This paper also provides timely and valuable insight for managers with meetings, engagement,
7 burnout, and turnover emerging as key human resource topics coming out of the pandemic
8 (Microsoft Research, 2021; Newman *et al.*, 2022). It is hard to overestimate the relevance of
9 studying meetings, not just because of the significant managerial time spent in them (Rogelberg
10 *et al.*, 2007), but also because it has been identified as a distinct facet of job satisfaction
11 (Rogelberg *et al.*, 2010). In particular, our findings about the simultaneously positive and
12 negative outcomes of meeting load support prior assertions of employees having a love/hate
13 relationship with meetings (Lehmann-Willenbrock *et al.*, 2016).
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16 Consistent with the resource-depletion mechanism in meetings, some organizations have
17 decided to impose “meeting-free” days (Laker *et al.*, 2022) or even to declare “calendar
18 bankruptcy” (i.e. removing all (recurring) meetings and installing a cooling-off period) (Elliott *et*
19 *al.*, 2022). However, we recommend a more balanced approach to maximize resource gains and
20 minimize losses, namely adopting a more deliberate process of scheduling and preparing
21 meetings as good stewards of each other’s time (Rogelberg and Kreamer, 2019). In keeping with
22 prior research, we believe the following can help rendering meetings into resource gains: to
23 focus on ensuring relevance of the meeting, creating a safe space for voicing opinions, and
24 encourage pre-meeting small talk in meetings (Allen, Lehmann-Willenbrock, *et al.*, 2014; Allen
25 and Rogelberg, 2013; Johnson and Mabry, 2022). Instead, a seemingly simple, but impactful
26 suggestion to reduce resource depletion is to avoid back-to-back meetings by regularly taking
27 breaks (Allen *et al.*, 2022; Bennett *et al.*, 2021).
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5.3 Limitations and future research

A first limitation of our study relates to our cross-sectional design, which does not allow for inferring causality. Moreover, we cannot exclude reverse causality – for instance employee engagement driving meeting load. Also, the SEM in our study relies on the assumption of a linear relationship between meeting load and work outcomes and we recognize this might be a restrictive assumption. Furthermore, our sample shows a good variety in terms of age, gender, seniority, and work experience. However, all respondents lived in the USA, which may limit the generalizability of our findings to other country settings with differences in working culture or legal framework.

Also, for the development of our hypotheses, assumptions were made about the mix of meeting modalities (face-to-face and virtual) across work arrangements. In future research, it could be valuable to include a variable that captures the modality mix of the respondent. Another important avenue for further inquiry lies in explaining our unexpected finding that meeting load is related to more burnout in the in-person-only versus hybrid work arrangement. In doing so, we encourage researchers to consider a “variety of explanatory mechanisms at the level of the individual, the meeting, or the work context” (Standaert *et al.*, 2023, p. 7). Finally, future research could attempt to obtain more fine-grained insight by examining the resource gains and losses related to a single, specific meeting (Allen and Rogelberg, 2013).

We hope that our research can provide a stepping stone in further understanding, managing, and balancing employee productivity and well-being in the modern work arrangements.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Scales of employee engagement, burnout, and intention to quit

Employee Engagement	Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.	Strongly Disagree =1 Disagree =2 Somewhat Disagree = 3 Neutral=4 Somewhat Agree = 5 Agree= 6 Strongly Agree=7
Employee_Engagement_1	When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	
Employee_Engagement_2	I feel happy when I am working intensely.	
Employee_Engagement_3	At my work, I feel bursting with energy.	
Employee_Engagement_4	At my job I feel strong and vigorous.	
Employee_Engagement_5	I am immersed in my work.	
Employee_Engagement_6	My job inspires me.	
Employee_Engagement_7	I am enthusiastic about my job.	
Employee_Engagement_8	I am proud of the work that I do.	
Employee_Engagement_9	I get carried away when I am working	

Burnout	Please select how often the following statements reflect how you feel.	Never= 1 A few times a year= 2 Once a month or less= 3 A few times a month=4 Once a week= 5 A few times a week= 6 Every day= 7
Emotional exhaustion		
Burnout _1	I feel emotionally drained from my work.	
Burnout _2	I feel used up at the end of the workday.	
Burnout _3	I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	
Burnout _6	Working with people all day is really a strain for me.	
Burnout _8	I feel burned out from my work.	

1	Burnout _13	I feel frustrated by my job.	
2	Burnout _14	I feel I'm working too hard on my job.	
3	Burnout _16	Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.	
4	Burnout _20	I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.	
5	Depersonalization		
6	Burnout _5	I feel I treat some customers as if they were impersonal objects.	
7	Burnout _10	I've become more callous toward people since I took this job.	
8	Burnout _11	I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.	
9	Burnout _15	I don't really care what happens to some customers.	
10	Burnout _22	I feel customers blame me for some of their problems.	

25	Intention to Quit	Please read each statement and indicate your agreement.	Strongly Disagree =1 Disagree =2 Somewhat Disagree = 3 Neutral=4 Somewhat Agree = 5 Agree= 6 Strongly Agree=7
26	Intent_to_quit_1	I may look for another job soon	
27	Intent_to_quit_2	I often think of quitting my present job	
28	Intent_to_quit_3 ¹⁰	I intent to stay in my present job	

42 Appendix B: Validity assessment

43 Table B.1 contains the standardized factor loadings of the single items on the constructs as well as
 44 the average variance extracted, and construct reliabilities. Identification in the CFA is obtained by
 45 fixing the variances of the three constructs to one. Note that in the estimated measurement model
 46 all cross-loadings are constrained to zero.

55 ¹⁰ For the estimation of the model we reverse the coding of this item to align the ordering of the categories with the previous two
 56 items.

	Burnout	Employee engagement	Intention to quit
Emotional exhaustion			
Burnout_1	0.77		
Burnout_2	0.80		
Burnout_3	0.82		
Burnout_6	0.84		
Burnout_8	0.83		
Burnout_13	0.77		
Burnout_14	0.72		
Burnout_16	0.84		
Burnout_20	0.83		
Depersonalization			
Burnout_5	0.75		
Burnout_10	0.79		
Burnout_11	0.81		
Burnout_15	0.77		
Burnout_22	0.75		
Employee engagement			
Employee_engagement_1		0.76	
Employee_engagement_2		0.78	
Employee_engagement_3		0.75	
Employee_engagement_4		0.77	
Employee_engagement_5		0.69	
Employee_engagement_6		0.83	
Employee_engagement_7		0.85	
Employee_engagement_8		0.78	
Employee_engagement_9		0.64	
Intention to quit			
Intent_to_quit_1			0.81
Intent_to_quit_2			0.87
Intent_to_quit_3_rev			0.19
Average variance extracted	62.88%	58.30%	48.30%
Construct reliability	0.97	0.93	0.69

Table B.1: Standardized factor loadings, average variance extracted, and reliabilities for constructs

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3 Standardized factor loadings of the single item measures on their respective constructs are well
4 above the recommended minimum value of 0.5 (Chin, 1998) and statistically significant, indicating
5 that there is a strong correlation between the single items and the corresponding constructs
6 (convergent validity). The third indicator of the intention to quit falls below the recommended
7 threshold, however, we decide to keep this indicator in order to avoid identification problems for
8 the construct.
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12 Values for the average variance extracted (AVE) are 62.88%, 58.20%, and 48.30% for burnout,
13 employee engagement, and the intention to quit, respectively. These AVE values are adequate
14 (above 50%) except for the intention to quit, where it is slightly below 50%.
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17 In order to test discriminant validity of the constructs, we compare the AVE values with the
18 squared correlation estimates between the constructs (Table B.2, above diagonal). With the
19 exception of the intention to quit, all constructs display higher average variance-extracted than
20 squared correlations with the other constructs. There appears to be some overlap in the information
21 extracted from the single items reflecting the intention to quit and the observed variables reflecting
22 the degree of burnout.
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	Burnout	Employee engagement	Intention to quit
Burnout	1	0.00	0.60
Employee engagement	-0.01	1	0.01
Intention to quit	0.78***	-0.09**	1

44 Table B.2: Construct correlation matrix, Significance Level : ** = .01, ***= .001, values below the diagonal
45 are correlation estimates among constructs, diagonal elements are construct variances, and values above the
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47 diagonal are squared correlations
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