**West Science Social and Humanities Studies**
Vol. 4, No. 11, November 2026: pp. 1343-1353

# Burnout and Quiet Quitting among Generation Z Workers in Indonesia: Does Psychological Capital Weaken the Effect?

**Redo Tridinata Wijaya[1], Rezky Eka Wardana[2], Nazir Ultama Anugrah[1], Dewi Fransiska Simanjuntak[1], Khairina Widya Primandari H.[1], R. A. Fadhallah[1]**
[1] Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Negeri Jakarta, Indonesia
[2] Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Negeri Makassar, Indonesia

**Article Info**

***Article history:***

Received Nov, 2026
Revised Nov, 2026
Accepted Nov, 2026

***Keywords:***

Burnout
Quiet Quitting
Psychological Capital
Generation Z
Moderation Analysis

**ABSTRACT**

Quiet quitting means doing only the minimum that a job formally requires, without extra effort. It is increasingly common among Generation Z workers. This study tested whether burnout increases quiet quitting and whether psychological capital (PsyCap) weakens that effect among Generation Z workers in Indonesia. We surveyed 199 Generation Z workers (aged 19–29 years, 76.9% women) selected through purposive sampling. Burnout was measured with the Maslach Burnout Inventory (17 items), PsyCap with the Psychological Capital Inventory (PSI-16), and quiet quitting with the Quiet Quitting Scale (10 items). Confirmatory factor analysis supported the measurement model, and all scales were reliable ($\alpha$ = .805–.946). Hierarchical regression showed that workers with more burnout reported more quiet quitting ($\beta$ = .455, $p < .001$), while workers with more PsyCap reported less quiet quitting ($\beta$ = −.222, $p < .001$). Together, they explained 28.7% of the variance. However, the burnout × PsyCap interaction was not significant ($\Delta R^2 < .001$, $p = .875$). In other words, PsyCap protects against quiet quitting on its own, but it does not reduce the effect of burnout. Organizations should prevent burnout and, separately, build their employees' PsyCap.

*This is an open access article under the CC BY-SA license.*

***Corresponding Author:***

Name: Redo Tridinata Wijaya
Institution: Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Negeri Jakarta, Jl. Rawamangun Muka, Jakarta Timur 13220, Indonesia
Email: redo.tridinata@unj.ac.id

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Quiet quitting has become a major concern for human resource management since the COVID-19 pandemic. It describes employees who deliberately do only what their job formally requires. They do not put in extra effort, take initiative, or show emotional commitment to the organization [1]. Unlike employees who resign, quiet quitters stay in their jobs but mentally step back from anything beyond their basic duties. This trend has been discussed together with the Great Resignation as a change in how workers see the limits of their jobs [2]. Because quiet quitting happens quietly and gradually, it can reduce productivity, innovation, and teamwork before managers notice it [3], [4].

This issue is especially relevant in Indonesia, where young workers face heavy digital work demands. Studies of young Indonesian workers show that fast technological change, constant connectivity,

and unclear boundaries between work and personal life are major psychological challenges [5]. Technology-related stress (technostress) has also been linked to burnout and poorer mental health among Generation Z employees [6]. Research on digital overload shows that too much exposure to digital information and devices causes exhaustion and strain, which can lead people to withdraw [7], [8]. Generation Z, born roughly between 1997 and 2012, is now entering the workforce in large numbers and will soon make up much of Indonesia's labor force. Understanding why they withdraw from work is therefore important for organizations.

Burnout, especially emotional exhaustion, is often seen as a main cause of quiet quitting. People who are burned out tend to pull back mentally to protect themselves from ongoing work pressure [9], [10]. On the other hand, research on positive organizational behavior suggests that *psychological capital* (PsyCap) may help. PsyCap consists of four parts: self-efficacy, optimism, hope, and resilience. It can act as a personal resource that reduces the harmful effects of work stress [11]. Studies of health workers found that people with more PsyCap experience less burnout and cope better with workplace stress [12], [13]. Meta-analyses also show that PsyCap is consistently linked to more positive work attitudes [14], [15].

Research on burnout and work engagement in Indonesia has grown, but few studies have examined how burnout affects quiet quitting while also testing whether PsyCap changes this effect among Generation Z workers. Most Indonesian studies on quiet quitting have focused on developing measurement scales or describing the phenomenon [16]. They have rarely tested whether personal resources make the link between burnout and quiet quitting weaker. This question matters for practice. If PsyCap weakens the effect of burnout, organizations should build PsyCap in employees who are already burned out. If PsyCap works independently, organizations need two separate strategies: preventing burnout and developing PsyCap.

This study therefore aims to (1) test the effect of burnout on quiet quitting among Generation Z workers in Indonesia, (2) test the direct link between PsyCap and quiet quitting, and (3) test whether PsyCap weakens the effect of burnout on quiet quitting. The study is new in that it tests this moderation model in a sample of Indonesian Generation Z workers from many sectors, using recently developed and validated measures: the Quiet Quitting Scale [3] and the Psychological Capital Inventory (PSI-16) [17].

## 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

### *2.1 Quit Quitting*

Quiet quitting refers to behaviors in which employees complete their formal job duties but do not go beyond them. For example, they avoid extra responsibilities, keep improvement ideas to themselves, communicate only when necessary, and turn down voluntary activities [3]. Quiet quitting is different from leaving the job, because the employee stays. It is also different from counterproductive behavior, because the employee does not break any formal rules [1]. Karrani et al. [3] developed the Quiet Quitting Scale and found that it measures one single factor across three samples from the service sector. They also found that quiet quitting is related to disengagement, job dissatisfaction, job stress, and feeling disconnected from work. Galanis et al. [4] similarly described detachment, lack of initiative, and low motivation as key features. In Indonesia, Manullang et al. [16] developed a quiet quitting scale for Generation Z employees, showing growing local interest in this topic.

### 2.2 *Burnout and Quiet Quitting*

Burnout is a psychological condition caused by long-term stress at work. It has three parts: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization (feeling distant or cynical toward others), and a reduced sense of personal accomplishment [18], [9]. The Job Demands–Resources (JD-R) model explains that high job demands drain employees' energy and cause exhaustion, which then leads them to withdraw and disengage [19], [20], [21]. Conservation of Resources (COR) theory adds that people who have lost resources try to protect what they have left by investing less in activities that are not required [22], [23]. From this view, quiet quitting is a way to save energy. Exhausted employees still do their formal duties, but they hold back extra effort. Research on IT workers suggests that quiet quitting is often a way for employees to protect their mental health [10]. This leads to the first hypothesis.

H1: Burnout has a positive effect on quiet quitting among Generation Z workers.

### 2.3 *Psychological Capital as a Personal Resource*

Psychological capital is a positive psychological state with four parts: self-efficacy (confidence to handle challenging tasks), optimism (expecting to succeed now and in the future), hope (persisting toward goals and finding new paths when needed), and resilience (bouncing back from difficulties) [24], [11]. PsyCap is not a fixed trait, so it can be developed. Research shows that PsyCap predicts positive outcomes such as job satisfaction, commitment, and helping behavior at work, as well as lower cynicism and lower intention to quit [14], [15]. Since quiet quitting is basically holding back extra effort, employees with more PsyCap should show less quiet quitting. Therefore:

H2: Psychological capital has a negative effect on quiet quitting among Generation Z workers.

According to the JD-R and COR theories, personal resources should also soften the impact of stress on work outcomes [21], [23]. People with high self-efficacy, optimism, hope, and resilience should be better able to cope with exhaustion, find other ways forward, and recover. As a result, their burnout should lead to less withdrawal. Studies of nurses support the protective role of PsyCap against burnout [12], [13], and research on digital overload shows that resilience can reduce the effect of digital strain on burnout [8]. This leads to the third hypothesis. The research model is shown in Figure 1.

H3: Psychological capital moderates the effect of burnout on quiet quitting, so that the effect is weaker when psychological capital is higher.

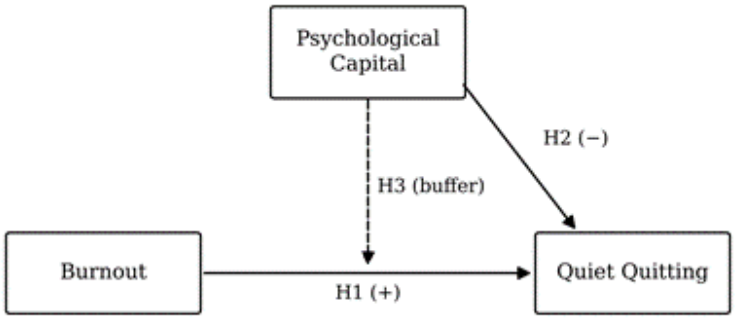


Figure 1. Research model

## 3. METHODS

### 3.1 Research Design

This study used a quantitative approach with a cross-sectional survey, meaning data were collected at one point in time. The study had two steps. First, we checked the validity and reliability of the measures of burnout, psychological capital, and quiet quitting using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Second, we tested the effect of burnout on quiet quitting and the moderating role of psychological capital using hierarchical moderated regression [25], [26].

### 3.2 Participants and Procedure

The population was Generation Z workers in Indonesia. Participants were selected through purposive sampling, using three criteria: (a) belonging to Generation Z (aged 29 or younger at the time of the study), (b) currently working in Indonesia, and (c) willing to take part voluntarily. Data were collected online through Google Forms from 23 to 26 October 2026. Before answering, participants read a consent statement explaining that their data would be kept confidential and that taking part was voluntary. The questionnaire included two attention-check items. We received 214 responses. After screening, we removed 15 responses that did not meet the criteria or failed the attention checks, leaving 199 valid responses. The participants' demographic profile is described in Section 4.1.

### 3.3 Measures

We used three measures, summarized in Table 1. All items were presented in Indonesian. Higher total scores mean higher levels of the measured variable. The structure of the measures was tested with a combined CFA model using the WLSMV estimator (weighted least squares mean and variance adjusted). Reliability was checked using Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha$) and McDonald's omega ($\omega$).

Table 1. Research Instruments

| Variable | Instrument | Dimensions (number of items) | Items | Scale | Sample item | $\alpha/\omega$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Burnout | Maslach Burnout Inventory, Indonesian adaptation [27] | Emotional exhaustion (8), personal accomplishment (4), depersonalization (5) | 17 | 1–4 | "I feel emotionally drained when doing my work." | .805 / .888 |
| Psychological capital | Psychological Capital Inventory (PSI-16) [17] | Hope (4), self-efficacy (4), resilience (4), optimism (4) | 16 | 1–6 | "I am confident that things will get better." | .946 / .969 |
| Quiet quitting | Quiet Quitting Scale (QQS) [3] | Unidimensional (10) | 10 | 1–5 | "I only do the work that is expected of me, without | .911 / .955 |

| Variable | Instrument | Dimensions (number of items) | Items | Scale | Sample item | $\alpha/\omega$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | additional initiative." | |

Source: Processed Primary Data (2026)

*Burnout* was measured with the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), using the Indonesian version applied by Wardana and Arafat [27]. It has 17 items covering three dimensions: emotional exhaustion (8 items, e.g., "I feel my work is exhausting"), personal accomplishment (4 items, e.g., "I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job"), and depersonalization (5 items, e.g., "I have become less concerned about other people after doing my work"). Participants answered on a four-point scale (1–4). The combined measurement model fit the data adequately: $\chi^2(850) = 1623.053$, $p < .001$, CFI = .935, TLI = .931, RMSEA = .068, 90% CI [.063, .073] [28]. Standardized factor loadings ranged from .494 to .865 for emotional exhaustion, .540 to .812 for personal accomplishment, and .362 to .813 for depersonalization (all $p < .001$). In the second-order model, the loadings were .826 for emotional exhaustion, −.714 for personal accomplishment, and .967 for depersonalization. Reliability was adequate for the whole scale ($\omega = .888$, $\alpha = .805$) and for each dimension (emotional exhaustion $\omega = .907$, $\alpha = .889$, personal accomplishment $\omega = .745$, $\alpha = .748$, depersonalization $\omega = .741$, $\alpha = .735$).

*Psychological capital* was measured with the Psychological Capital Inventory (PSI-16) developed by Lorenz [17]. It has 16 items, four for each dimension: hope (e.g., "The belief that there is always a way keeps me from giving up easily"), self-efficacy (e.g., "I feel able to handle daily life because I can find ways to solve problems"), resilience (e.g., "Accepting change makes me stronger and tougher"), and optimism (e.g., "I am confident that things will get better"). Participants answered on a six-point scale (1–6). Standardized factor loadings ranged from .619 to .893 for hope, .816 to .914 for self-efficacy, .818 to .903 for resilience, and .846 to .937 for optimism (all $p < .001$). The second-order loadings were .884 (hope), .954 (self-efficacy), .949 (resilience), and .853 (optimism), which supports the four-part structure of PsyCap. Reliability was high for the whole scale ($\omega = .969$, $\alpha = .946$) and for each dimension (hope $\omega = .841$, $\alpha = .834$, self-efficacy $\omega = .880$, $\alpha = .875$, resilience $\omega = .904$, $\alpha = .879$, optimism $\omega = .906$, $\alpha = .904$).

*Quiet quitting* was measured with the Quiet Quitting Scale (QQS) developed by Karrani et al. [3] and adapted into Indonesian. It has 10 items measuring a single dimension: the tendency to limit one's involvement and contribution to assigned duties (e.g., "I do not volunteer to take on extra responsibilities" and "I only communicate when necessary"). Participants answered on a five-point scale (1–5). All items had positive and significant standardized loadings, ranging from .654 to .856 ($p < .001$), which supports the single-factor structure. Reliability was high ($\omega = .955$, $\alpha = .911$).

### 3.4 Data Analysis

The data were analyzed in three steps. First, we used descriptive statistics to describe the participants and the level of each variable. Scores were grouped into low, moderate, and high categories using the mean ± 1 SD. Second, we ran Pearson correlations and checked the regression assumptions (normality of residuals, multicollinearity, and heteroscedasticity). Third, we tested the hypotheses using hierarchical regression. In Step 1, burnout and psychological capital were entered to test H1 and H2. In Step 2, the burnout × psychological capital interaction was added to test H3. Moderation is supported when the interaction is significant and $R^2$ increases significantly [25], [26]. All analyses were run in IBM SPSS Statistics with a significance level of .05.

## 4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### 4.1 Demographic Profile of Participants

Table 2 shows the demographic profile of the 199 participants. Most were women (76.9%) and single (78.4%). Their ages ranged from 19 to 29 years (M = 25.95, SD = 2.27), and most were 26–29 years old (67.8%). This means the sample mainly consisted of older Generation Z workers in the early stages of their careers. Most participants lived in DKI Jakarta (27.1%), West Java (25.6%), Lampung (18.1%), and Banten (13.6%). The rest lived in other provinces in Java, Sumatra, Sulawesi, Bali, and Papua. Contract employees were the largest group (42.7%), followed by permanent employees (26.1%) and civil servants (11.1%). Almost half had worked for more than one to three years (48.7%), and about a quarter had worked for one year or less (26.1%). Participants worked in many different sectors. The most common were national private companies (35.7%), followed by schools and universities (11.6%), government institutions (11.6%), state- or regionally owned enterprises (10.1%), and their own businesses (10.1%). One third (33.7%) earned more than IDR 6,000,000 per month. The sample therefore covers a wide range of Generation Z work settings, with a high share of non-permanent workers.

Table 2. Demographic Characteristics of Respondents (N = 199)

| Characteristic | Category | n | % |
|---|---|---|---|
| Gender | Female | 153 | 76.9 |
| | Male | 46 | 23.1 |
| Age (years) | 19–22 | 17 | 8.5 |
| | 23–25 | 47 | 23.6 |
| | 26–29 | 135 | 67.8 |
| | M = 25.95, SD = 2.27, range = 19–29 | | |
| Marital status | Single | 156 | 78.4 |
| | Married | 43 | 21.6 |
| Province of residence | DKI Jakarta | 54 | 27.1 |
| | West Java | 51 | 25.6 |
| | Lampung | 36 | 18.1 |
| | Banten | 27 | 13.6 |
| | East Java | 7 | 3.5 |
| | South Sumatra | 6 | 3.0 |
| | Other provinces | 18 | 9.0 |
| Employment status | Contract employee | 85 | 42.7 |
| | Permanent employee | 52 | 26.1 |
| | Civil servant (ASN/PPPK) | 22 | 11.1 |
| | Freelancer | 17 | 8.5 |
| | Entrepreneur | 7 | 3.5 |
| | Gig/digital platform worker | 2 | 1.0 |
| | Others (e.g., teacher, midwife, honorary staff) | 14 | 7.0 |
| Length of employment | < 6 months | 15 | 7.5 |
| | 6 months–1 year | 37 | 18.6 |
| | > 1–3 years | 97 | 48.7 |
| | > 3–5 years | 37 | 18.6 |
| | > 5 years | 13 | 6.5 |
| Type of organization | National private company | 71 | 35.7 |
| | School or university | 23 | 11.6 |
| | Government institution | 23 | 11.6 |
| | State/regional-owned enterprise | 20 | 10.1 |
| | Own business | 20 | 10.1 |
| | Multinational/foreign company | 17 | 8.5 |
| | Digital platform/technology company | 14 | 7.0 |

| Characteristic | Category | n | % |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Hospital/health facility | 11 | 5.5 |
| Monthly net income (IDR) | < 1,500,000 | 17 | 8.5 |
| | 1,500,000–2,999,999 | 19 | 9.5 |
| | 3,000,000–4,499,999 | 42 | 21.1 |
| | 4,500,000–5,999,999 | 54 | 27.1 |
| | > 6,000,000 | 67 | 33.7 |
| Total | | 199 | 100.0 |

*Source: Processed Primary Data (2026)*

### 4.2 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics, reliability, and correlations. The average burnout score per item was 2.45 on a 1–4 scale, which indicates a moderate level. Emotional exhaustion (2.40 per item) was higher than depersonalization (2.08). Psychological capital was high (5.12 per item on a 1–6 scale), with optimism as the strongest dimension (5.34). Quiet quitting averaged 2.73 per item on a 1–5 scale, which indicates a moderate tendency. Using the mean ± 1 SD categories, 16.1% of participants had high burnout, 65.8% moderate, and 18.1% low. For PsyCap, 16.6% were high, 68.3% moderate, and 15.1% low. For quiet quitting, 13.6% were high, 70.4% moderate, and 16.1% low. Burnout was positively correlated with quiet quitting ($r = .489$, $p < .001$). PsyCap was negatively correlated with quiet quitting ($r = -.292$, $p < .001$). Burnout and PsyCap had a weak negative correlation ($r = -.155$, $p = .029$).

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics, Reliability, and Correlations among Study Variables (N = 199)

| Variable | k | M | SD | Min–Max | $\alpha$ | $\omega$ | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Burnout | 17 | 41.60 | 7.58 | 27–68 | .805 | .888 | 1 | |
| Emotional exhaustion | 8 | 19.18 | 5.79 | 8–32 | .889 | .907 | | |
| Personal accomplishment | 4 | 12.01 | 2.31 | 5–16 | .748 | .745 | | |
| Depersonalization | 5 | 10.41 | 3.17 | 5–20 | .735 | .741 | | |
| 2. Psychological capital | 16 | 81.91 | 10.56 | 47–96 | .946 | .969 | −.155* | 1 |
| Hope | 4 | 19.73 | 3.14 | 10–24 | .834 | .841 | | |
| Self-efficacy | 4 | 20.42 | 2.94 | 12–24 | .875 | .880 | | |
| Resilience | 4 | 20.40 | 2.97 | 11–24 | .879 | .904 | | |
| Optimism | 4 | 21.37 | 3.02 | 8–24 | .904 | .906 | | |
| 3. Quiet quitting | 10 | 27.25 | 8.79 | 10–50 | .911 | .955 | .489*** | −.292*** |

Note. k = number of items, correlations are Pearson's r. *p < .05, ***p < .001.
*Source: Processed Primary Data (2026)*

### 4.3 Assumption Tests

The residuals were normally distributed (Kolmogorov–Smirnov $D = .031$, $p = .989$, Shapiro–Wilk $W = .994$, $p = .562$). There was no multicollinearity between burnout and PsyCap in Model 1 (tolerance = .976, VIF = 1.025). Model 2 showed high VIF values (up to 74.95), but only because the interaction term was calculated from uncentered scores. After mean-centering, all VIF values were below 1.05, and the interaction result did not change ($B = 0.001$, $p = .875$). The Breusch–Pagan test showed heteroscedasticity ($\chi^2(2) = 17.32$, $p < .001$). We therefore re-ran the model with robust (HC3) standard errors, and the conclusions stayed the same (burnout $p < .001$, PsyCap $p < .001$, interaction $p = .858$).

### 4.4 Hypothesis Testing

Table 4 shows the regression results. Model 1 was significant, $F(2, 196) = 39.50$, $p < .001$, and explained 28.7% of the variance in quiet quitting ($R^2 = .287$, adjusted $R^2 = .280$). Burnout positively predicted quiet quitting ($B = 0.527$, $SE = 0.071$, $\beta = .455$, $t = 7.448$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [0.387, 0.666]), so H1 was supported. Psychological capital negatively predicted quiet quitting ($B = -0.185$, $SE = 0.051$, $\beta = -.222$,

t = −3.636, p < .001, 95% CI [−0.285, −0.085]), so H2 was supported. Burnout was the stronger of the two predictors.

Table 4. Hierarchical Regression Predicting Quiet Quitting (N = 199)

| z | B | SE | β | t | p | 95% CI |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Model 1 | | | | | | |
| Burnout | 0.527 | 0.071 | .455 | 7.448 | < .001 | [.387, .666] |
| Psychological capital | −0.185 | 0.051 | −.222 | −3.636 | < .001 | [−.285, −.085] |
| $R^2$ = .287, adjusted $R^2$ = .280, F(2, 196) = 39.50, p < .001 | | | | | | |
| Model 2 | | | | | | |
| Burnout | 0.443 | 0.540 | .382 | 0.820 | .413 | [−.622, 1.507] |
| Psychological capital | −0.227 | 0.272 | −.272 | −0.834 | .405 | [−.763, .309] |
| Burnout × Psychological capital | 0.001 | 0.006 | .082 | 0.158 | .875 | [−.012, .014] |
| $R^2$ = .287, $\Delta R^2$ < .001, $\Delta F(1, 195)$ = 0.025, p = .875 | | | | | | |

Note. B = unstandardized coefficient, β = standardized coefficient, CI = confidence interval for B.
*Source: Processed Primary Data (2026)*

In Model 2, adding the burnout × PsyCap interaction did not explain any additional variance ($\Delta R^2$ < .001, $\Delta F(1, 195)$ = 0.025, p = .875). The interaction was not significant (B = 0.001, SE = 0.006, β = .082, t = 0.158, p = .875, 95% CI [−0.012, 0.014]). Figure 2 shows that the effect of burnout on quiet quitting was almost the same at low (B = 0.515), average (B = 0.525), and high (B = 0.536) levels of PsyCap. Therefore, H3 was not supported: PsyCap did not change how strongly burnout was related to quiet quitting. As a robustness check, we reverse-scored the personal accomplishment items and found the same pattern (burnout B = 0.439, p < .001, PsyCap B = −0.112, p = .039, interaction p = .431).

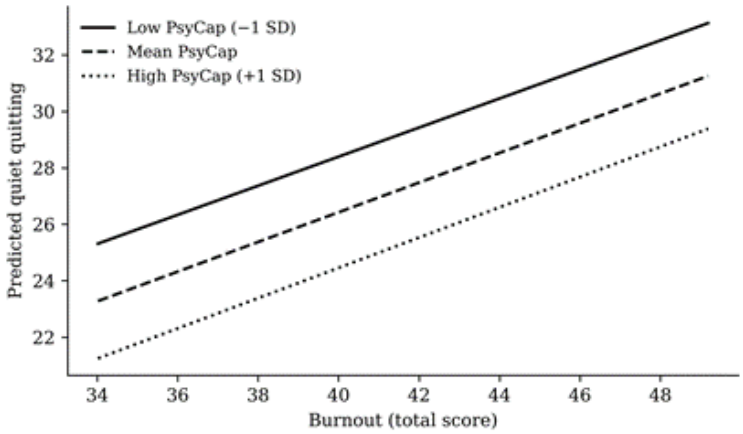


Figure 2. Effect of Burnout on Quiet Quitting at Low, Average, and High Levels of Psychological Capital

### 4.5 Discussion

The first finding confirms that burnout is a strong predictor of quiet quitting among Generation Z workers in Indonesia. This fits the JD-R model, which states that constant job demands lead to exhaustion and then to withdrawal [19], [21]. It also fits COR theory, which sees withdrawal as a way to save resources that are running low [22], [23]. Emotionally drained employees seem to protect their remaining energy by doing only their formal duties and holding back extra effort. This supports the view that quiet quitting is a form of self-protection [10], [1]. Emotional exhaustion was the most prominent part of burnout in this sample.

Together with the heavy digital workload of young Indonesian workers [5], [6], this suggests that digital and workload pressures may be important sources of exhaustion that lead to quiet quitting. Research on digital overload points in the same direction [7], [8].

The second finding shows that PsyCap is linked to less quiet quitting, regardless of the level of burnout. Employees who are confident, hopeful, optimistic, and resilient are less likely to limit their work to the bare minimum. This agrees with meta-analyses showing that PsyCap is linked to more positive work attitudes and more effort beyond formal duties [14], [15]. It also supports the idea that PsyCap is a motivational resource that keeps people working toward their goals [24], [11].

Contrary to our expectation, PsyCap did not weaken the effect of burnout on quiet quitting. There are several possible reasons. First, PsyCap in this sample was high and fairly similar across participants (5.12 out of 6 per item). This small spread makes it hard to detect an interaction. Second, interaction effects in field studies are usually small and need larger samples to be detected [29]. Third, once burnout has developed, exhaustion may use up the very resources that make up PsyCap. In that case, personal resources can no longer change how stress turns into withdrawal. This matches the COR principle that losing resources has a stronger impact than gaining them [23]. Fourth, quiet quitting among Generation Z may also be driven by workplace factors that personal resources cannot fully offset, such as job insecurity (42.7% of participants were on contracts) or an "always-on" digital work culture [2], [5]. Burnout and PsyCap therefore seem to work as two separate paths: burnout increases quiet quitting and PsyCap reduces it, but PsyCap does not weaken the effect of burnout.

In practice, organizations should not rely only on resilience or positive-thinking training to reduce quiet quitting among employees who are already burned out. The main strategy should be to prevent burnout through reasonable workloads, clear limits on digital work, time for recovery, and supportive supervisors. PsyCap development programs can then be added as a second strategy to improve engagement in general. This study has some limitations. Because the data were collected at one point in time, we cannot draw conclusions about cause and effect. All data were self-reported from the same source at the same time, which may cause common method bias [30]. The sample was mostly women and people living in Java and Lampung, so the results may not apply to all Generation Z workers. The sample may also be too small to detect small interaction effects. Finally, the total burnout score combined the three MBI dimensions, so future studies should analyze each dimension separately.

## 5. CONCLUSION

This study concludes that burnout increases quiet quitting among Generation Z workers in Indonesia, while psychological capital reduces it. However, psychological capital does not weaken the effect of burnout on quiet quitting. The two work independently. Emotionally exhausted workers tend to limit their effort to formal duties no matter how confident, hopeful, optimistic, or resilient they are. At the same time, workers with stronger psychological capital generally show less quiet quitting. To reduce quiet quitting, organizations should first prevent burnout and, at the same time, strengthen their employees' psychological capital.

Future studies should use larger and more balanced samples in terms of gender, region, and sector. They should also use longitudinal or multi-source designs, analyze the dimensions of burnout and psychological capital separately, and test workplace factors such as job insecurity, digital overload, leadership, and organizational support. These factors may better explain when burnout leads to quiet quitting.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors thank all Generation Z workers who voluntarily took part in this study. The authors also thank Universitas Negeri Jakarta, especially the Faculty of

Psychology, for funding this research through the Faculty/Postgraduate Basic Research scheme (D-FP).

## REFERENCES

[1] T. Mahand and C. Caldwell, "Quiet quitting – causes and opportunities," *Bus. Manag. Res.*, vol. 12, no. 1, pp. 9–19, 2023, doi: 10.5430/bmr.v12n1p9.

[2] S. Formica and F. Sfodera, "The Great Resignation and Quiet Quitting paradigm shifts: An overview of current situation and future research directions," *J. Hosp. Mark. Manag.*, vol. 31, no. 8, pp. 899–907, 2022, doi: 10.1080/19368623.2022.2136601.

[3] M. A. Karrani, S. Bani-Melhem, and F. Mohd-Shamsudin, "Employee quiet quitting behaviours: Conceptualization, measure development, and validation," *Serv. Ind. J.*, vol. 44, no. 3–4, pp. 218–236, 2024, doi: 10.1080/02642069.2023.2286604.

[4] P. Galanis *et al.*, "The quiet quitting scale: Development and initial validation," *AIMS Public Health*, vol. 10, no. 4, pp. 828–848, 2023, doi: 10.3934/publichealth.2023055.

[5] C. Sitinjak, Y. Donatrin, V. Kristiyani, and J. Ober, "Psychological challenges faced by young workers in the digital era: A systematic literature review in the Indonesian context," *Psympathic: J. Ilm. Psikol.*, vol. 12, no. 2, pp. 1–20, 2025, doi: 10.15575/psy.v12i2.45128.

[6] K. Handayani and R. G. Purnasiwi, "Mental health pekerja Generasi Z: Technostress dan burnout," *J. Manaj.*, vol. 15, no. 1, pp. 39–57, 2026, doi: 10.46806/jm.v15i1.1927.

[7] W. Tafesse, M. P. Aguilar, S. Sayed, and U. Tariq, "Digital overload, coping mechanisms, and student engagement: An empirical investigation based on the S-O-R framework," *SAGE Open*, vol. 14, no. 1, pp. 1–14, 2024, doi: 10.1177/21582440241236087.

[8] F. K. Al-enezi, "The mediating role of academic resilience between digital overload and school burnout among high school students in Kuwait," *Educ. Process Int. J.*, vol. 17, Art. no. e2025341, 2025, doi: 10.22521/edupij.2025.17.341.

[9] C. Maslach and M. P. Leiter, "Understanding the burnout experience: Recent research and its implications for psychiatry," *World Psychiatry*, vol. 15, no. 2, pp. 103–111, 2016, doi: 10.1002/wps.20311.

[10] J. Duda and S. Drożdżyńska, "Mental health and well-being of IT workers: Analysis of the 'quiet quitting' phenomenon," *Eur. Res. Stud. J.*, vol. 27, no. Special Issue A, pp. 927–937, 2024, doi: 10.35808/ersj/3756.

[11] F. Luthans and C. M. Youssef-Morgan, "Psychological capital: An evidence-based positive approach," *Annu. Rev. Organ. Psychol. Organ. Behav.*, vol. 4, pp. 339–366, 2017, doi: 10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-032516-113324.

[12] S.-R. Bae, H.-J. Hong, J.-J. Chang, and S.-H. Shin, "The association between Korean clinical nurses' workplace bullying, positive psychological capital, and social support on burnout," *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health*, vol. 18, no. 21, Art. no. 11583, 2021, doi: 10.3390/ijerph182111583.

[13] M. A. Opoku, S.-W. Kang, and S. B. Choi, "The influence of sleep on job satisfaction: Examining a serial mediation model of psychological capital and burnout," *Front. Public Health*, vol. 11, Art. no. 1149367, 2023, doi: 10.3389/fpubh.2023.1149367.

[14] J. B. Avey, R. J. Reichard, F. Luthans, and K. H. Mhatre, "Meta-analysis of the impact of positive psychological capital on employee attitudes, behaviors, and performance," *Hum. Resour. Dev. Q.*, vol. 22, no. 2, pp. 127–152, 2011, doi: 10.1002/hrdq.20070.

[15] S. Loghman, M. Quinn, S. Dawkins, M. Woods, S. Om Sharma, and J. Scott, "A comprehensive meta-analyses of the nomological network of psychological capital (PsyCap)," *J. Leadersh. Organ. Stud.*, vol. 30, no. 1, pp. 108–128, 2023, doi: 10.1177/15480518221107998.

[16] Y. C. Manullang, Y. A. Ramadhan, E. K. Purwaningrum, P. N. Azizah, H. Fitriana, and D. A. R. Pinanda, "Penyusunan skala quiet quitting pada karyawan Gen Z di Indonesia," *MARAS: J. Penelit. Multidisiplin*, vol. 3, no. 3, pp. 984–996, 2025, doi: 10.60126/maras.v3i3.1142.

[17] T. Lorenz, "Assessing psychological capital: Construction and validation of the psychological capital inventory (PSI-16) using automated item selection," *Gruppe. Interaktion. Organisation. (GIO)*, vol. 56, pp. 203–215, 2025, doi: 10.1007/s11612-025-00789-1.

[18] C. Maslach, W. B. Schaufeli, and M. P. Leiter, "Job burnout," *Annu. Rev. Psychol.*, vol. 52, pp. 397–422, 2001, doi: 10.1146/annurev.psych.52.1.397.

[19] E. Demerouti, A. B. Bakker, F. Nachreiner, and W. B. Schaufeli, "The job demands-resources model of burnout," *J. Appl. Psychol.*, vol. 86, no. 3, pp. 499–512, 2001, doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.86.3.499.

[20] W. B. Schaufeli and A. B. Bakker, "Job demands, job resources, and their relationship with burnout and

engagement: A multi-sample study," *J. Organ. Behav.*, vol. 25, no. 3, pp. 293–315, 2004, doi: 10.1002/job.248.

[21] A. B. Bakker and E. Demerouti, "Job demands–resources theory: Taking stock and looking forward," *J. Occup. Health Psychol.*, vol. 22, no. 3, pp. 273–285, 2017, doi: 10.1037/ocp0000056.

[22] S. E. Hobfoll, "Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress," *Am. Psychol.*, vol. 44, no. 3, pp. 513–524, 1989, doi: 10.1037/0003-066X.44.3.513.

[23] S. E. Hobfoll, J. Halbesleben, J.-P. Neveu, and M. Westman, "Conservation of resources in the organizational context: The reality of resources and their consequences," *Annu. Rev. Organ. Psychol. Organ. Behav.*, vol. 5, pp. 103–128, 2018, doi: 10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-032117-104640.

[24] F. Luthans, B. J. Avolio, J. B. Avey, and S. M. Norman, "Positive psychological capital: Measurement and relationship with performance and satisfaction," *Pers. Psychol.*, vol. 60, no. 3, pp. 541–572, 2007, doi: 10.1111/j.1744-6570.2007.00083.x.

[25] L. S. Aiken and S. G. West, *Multiple Regression: Testing and Interpreting Interactions*. Newbury Park, CA, USA: Sage, 1991.

[26] A. F. Hayes, *Introduction to Mediation, Moderation, and Conditional Process Analysis: A Regression-Based Approach*, 3rd ed. New York, NY, USA: Guilford Press, 2022.

[27] R. E. Wardana and M. Arafat, "Pengaruh job autonomy dan burnout terhadap job crafting," *Psikobuletin: Bul. Ilm. Psikol.*, vol. 5, no. 1, pp. 36–42, 2024, doi: 10.24014/pib.v5i1.24266.

[28] L. Hu and P. M. Bentler, "Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives," *Struct. Equ. Model.*, vol. 6, no. 1, pp. 1–55, 1999, doi: 10.1080/10705519909540118.

[29] G. H. McClelland and C. M. Judd, "Statistical difficulties of detecting interactions and moderator effects," *Psychol. Bull.*, vol. 114, no. 2, pp. 376–390, 1993, doi: 10.1037/0033-2909.114.2.376.

[30] P. M. Podsakoff, S. B. MacKenzie, J.-Y. Lee, and N. P. Podsakoff, "Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies," *J. Appl. Psychol.*, vol. 88, no. 5, pp. 879–903, 2003, doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879.