

Original Article

Too Good to Be True? Similarities and Differences Between Engagement and Workaholism among Finnish Judges

¿DEMASIADO BUENO PARA SER CIERTO? SIMILITUDES Y DIFERENCIAS ENTRE EL ENGAGEMENT Y LA ADICCIÓN AL TRABAJO EN JUECES FINLANDESES

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ABSTRACT

Recently, it has been suggested that in addition to positive relationships between work engagement and organizational outcomes, work engagement may also have a dark side, i.e., it may also lead to negative consequences for the employee. This study of a representative sample of Finnish judges (N = 550) investigated the similarities and differences between work engagement and workaholism. Despite some similarities, our results generally supported previous findings that engagement and workaholism are distinct concepts. First, confirmatory factor analysis showed that engagement and workaholism are separate notions, although absorption, a sub-dimension of engagement, also loaded weakly on the workaholism factor. Second, structural equation modeling results showed that in contrast to workaholism, engagement was positively related to job resources (positive core self-evaluations and social capital) and to better sleep quality, life satisfaction, and work-family and family-work interface, and negatively related to presenteeism and turnover intentions. Unexpectedly, engagement was unrelated to detachment from work. Both engagement and workaholism were positively associated with organizational commitment, working hours and overtime. Interestingly, workaholics showed both organizational commitment and, tentatively, turnover intentions. All in all, engagement was mainly related to healthy and positive outcomes. However, even though engaged employees enjoy working, they should ensure sufficient recovery, such as detachment from work, in order to remain engaged.

Key words: WORK ENGAGEMENT; WORKAHOLISM; JUDGES; WELL-BEING; WORK-FAMILY; RECOVERY; LIFE SATISFACTION

RESUMEN

Recientemente, se ha sugerido que además de las relaciones positivas del engagement en el trabajo con los resultados organizacionales, el engagement también podría tener un lado negativo, es decir, también podría generar consecuencias negativas para los trabajadores. Este estudio en una muestra representativa de jueces finlandeses (N = 550), investigó las similitudes y diferencias entre el engagement y la adicción al trabajo. A pesar de tener algunas similitudes, nuestros resultados respaldan investigaciones previas donde se afirma que el engagement y la adicción al trabajo son conceptos diferentes. En primer lugar, el análisis factorial confirmatorio probó que el engagement y la adicción al trabajo son nociones distintas, aunque la absorción, una sub-dimensión del engagement, también mostró una débil saturación con adicción al trabajo. En segundo lugar, los resultados de ecuaciones estructurales demostraron que al contrario que la adicción al trabajo, el engagement se relaciona de manera positiva con los recursos laborales (core self-evaluations y capital social), y con una mejor calidad del sueño, satisfacción con la vida, y con la interacción trabajo-familia / familia-trabajo; y se relaciona negativamente con el presentismo y a las intenciones de abandono. Inesperadamente, el engagement no presentó relación con el proceso de desconexión del trabajo. Ambos, el engagement laboral y la adicción al trabajo, se asociaron positivamente al compromiso organizacional, horas trabadas y al trabajar horas extras. Curiosamente, los adictos al trabajo muestran también compromiso organizacional, y, ocasionalmente, desconexión del trabajo. En términos generales, el engagement se relacionó a estados saludables y a resultados positivos. No obstante, a pesar de que los trabajadores engaged disfrutaban del trabajo, ellos deberían asegurar una suficiente recuperación del mismo, con el objetivo de mantenerse engaged.

Palabras claves: ENGAGEMENT, ADICCIÓN AL TRABAJO, JUECES, BIENESTAR, TRABAJO -FAMILIA, RECUPERACIÓN, SATISFACCIÓN CON LA VIDA .

INTRODUCTION

Today, the borders of time, space and work organization are becoming increasingly blurred in the labor context. This boundaryless work tendency, characterized by individualized schedules, temporal and geographical flexibility and more job autonomy², has become more widespread among a broad range of occupations in the last decades, particularly among knowledge workers.¹ Judges form one particular occupational group characterized by long working hours, high responsibility, high autonomy and blurred borders between work and free time.³⁵ This boundaryless work context might be seen as a double-edged sword. On the one

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hand, flexible work arrangements and autonomy may enhance work engagement and thriving at work followed by other positive outcomes, but on the other, this flexibility may also pave the way for extensive working and workaholic tendencies, with detrimental consequences for well-being. Moreover, in the flexible and autonomous working conditions described above, it is not entirely clear whether positive states, such as work engagement and negative work orientations (e.g. workaholism), are completely distinct from each other particularly among employees who work hard and who have high responsibility at work. Indeed, several scholars have recently suggested that there may be a downside to work engagement, which, for example, could lead to workaholism over time.^{3,20}

The general aim of this study was to address the differences and similarities between work engagement and workaholism, regarding a variety of outcomes (at individual, work-family and organizational level), among Finnish judges. In addition, we explored the role of personal and social job resources (core self-evaluations and social capital) in work engagement and workaholism. We aimed at investigating, whether engagement – in addition to its positive correlates – could also have negative correlates similar to workaholism or even associate with workaholism, which would suggest that engagement could be even “too good to be true”.

WORK ENGAGEMENT AND WORKAHOLISM

Work engagement is defined as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication and absorption.⁴² Vigor refers to high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one's work, the ability to avoid being easily fatigued, and persistence in the face of difficulties. Dedication refers to strong involvement in one's work accompanied by feelings of enthusiasm and significance, and by a sense of pride and inspiration. Absorption refers to a state in which individuals are fully concentrated and engrossed in their activities, whereby time passes quickly and they find it difficult to detach themselves from work.

In contrast, workaholism has been defined as the tendency to work excessively hard and to be obsessed with work, which manifests itself through working compulsively.⁴⁶ Thus, workaholism consists of two main dimensions: (a) a strong inner drive to work hard, that leads to working compulsively, in combination with (b) high effort expenditure, that leads to working excessively.⁵³

At first glance, it seems there are some similarities between work engagement and workaholism. For instance, engaged employees work hard (vigor), are involved (dedicated) and feel happily engrossed (involved) in their work. Workaholics also work hard and are dedicated to their jobs. However the main difference is that engaged workers work hard because they like and enjoy work for its own sake, whereas workaholics are driven by a strong inner obsession with their job. Moreover, previous studies suggest that engaged employees are generally satisfied with their jobs and their lives, whereas workaholics are not.⁵³

It appears that engagement and workaholism are conceptually different, although some authors argue that workaholism may also have positive consequences for both workaholics and the organizations they work for since they are devoted to their work.^{28,34} However, only a few empirical studies^{43,44,46} of Dutch and Japanese employees have addressed the relationships between

these two concepts and their correlates. Thus it is necessary to also focus on other professional and cultural contexts to clarify the similarities and differences between these two concepts regarding their outcomes from a global point of view, namely on an individual, work-family and organizational level. In addition, further research is needed to show the distinctiveness of these two constructs in terms of their associations with personal and job resources, and their factorial relationships.

Work engagement vs. workaholism: Individual outcomes

As regards individual outcomes, we investigated the differences and similarities between work engagement and workaholism related to overwork (working hours and boundaryless work), recovery and health (detachment from work, working when sick and sleep problems), and well-being (life satisfaction). First, because of the behavioral tendency of workaholics to work excessively, these employees work more hours than is required.⁸ Likewise, boundaryless working, i.e., taking work home and working at weekends also characterizes workaholics.⁵⁴ However, engaged employees may also spend a lot of time working because they are enthusiastic about their jobs. In fact, work engagement has been found to associate with working overtime.^{44,46} Therefore we expect that both engagement and workaholism are positively related to working hours and boundaryless work (Hypothesis 1).

Individual health outcomes regarding engagement and workaholism have been relatively scarcely investigated. In previous studies, engagement has associated with perceived health and well-being^{32,40,46}, whereas workaholism has related to ill-health.⁴⁹ However, some controversy exists regarding engagement and workaholism and their relationships with health. In two studies, unexpectedly, both engaged employees and workaholics reported higher levels of psychosomatic complaints.^{44,46} Psychosomatic complaints can be expected to relate to the amount of time spent working and also to the lack of recovery (e.g. detachment, sleep quality). As regards workaholism, McMillan and O'Driscoll²⁹ found hardly any differences in the health status of workaholics and others. Thus, more research is needed to clarify the differences between work engagement and workaholism in terms of health.

Engagement has been positively linked to recovery experiences such as daily feelings of recovery⁵⁰ and detachment from work during short respites²⁶ suggesting that detachment from work may also be important for those whose jobs are engaging. In addition, engagement was negatively associated with working when sick, i.e., presenteeism, among Finnish dentists.¹⁷ Because of positive feelings generated at work, and not overworking at the expense of health, engaged employees assumingly sleep well most of the time. On the other hand, workaholics, due to excessive and compulsive working are not likely to be able to detach mentally from work and therefore may be prone to sleep problems¹⁰ and continue working even when they feel sick.⁴¹ However, to our knowledge, no empirical studies exist focusing simultaneously on engagement and workaholism and their relationships with sleep quality, detachment from work, and presenteeism. Based on previous research, we argue that engagement is positively related to detachment from work and negatively to sleep problems and presenteeism (Hypothesis 2a), whereas workaholism is negatively related to psychological detachment and positively to sleep problems and presenteeism (Hypothesis 2b).

Finally, some support exists for the positive association between

engagement and different aspects of general well-being and life satisfaction.^{32,44} In contrast, workaholics have reported lower levels of life satisfaction.^{6,9} Therefore we posit that work engagement is positively related to life satisfaction (Hypothesis 3a) whereas workaholism is negatively related to life satisfaction (Hypothesis 3b).

Work engagement vs. workaholism: Work-Family enrichment and conflicts

Another relevant and under-studied issue that may shed light on the similarities and differences between work engagement and workaholism is work-family interface. Interestingly, Halbesleben, Harvey, and Bolino²¹ found that engagement was positively associated with work-to-family conflict (WF-). They argue that those with excess work resources, i.e., high in engagement, are likely to reinvest those resources back into work (in the form of organizational citizenship behavior) and subsequently lack resources to devote to family life. However, we assume that engaged and energized employees may also be engaged in other areas of their lives and have a rich social and family life.⁴⁵ Experiencing positive emotions and cognitions at work due to a fulfilling job may also enrich one's family role. Indeed, using a full panel design, Hakanen, Peeters, and Perhoniemi¹⁶ found that engagement and work-to-family enrichment (WF+) reciprocally influenced each other over time.

In contrast, workaholics tend to have poor social relationships, and experience more WF- than others employees.^{4,6,54} In addition, instead of work enriching their family role, the opposite is true for workaholics: work impoverishes their family role. Therefore, we expect that engagement is positively related to WF+ and negatively related to WF- (Hypothesis 4a), whereas workaholism is negatively related to WF+ and positively to WF- (Hypothesis 4b).

Very little is known about the associations between engagement and/or workaholism and family-to-work enrichment (FW+) and family-to-work conflict (FW-). However, in previous longitudinal studies, job resources have predicted engagement, which in turn has also predicted future job resources^{15,56}, one interpretation being that engaged employees may be more capable of mobilizing new resources at work. We expect that due to surplus resources (being engaged and proactive), engaged employees may also be able to benefit from the family role and resources that can enrich and improve the quality of one's work role, and accordingly experience more FW+ and less FW-. In contrast, for workaholics, family role and expectations are in conflict with the obsession of working constantly and the secondary family role is unlikely to enrich workaholic's primary role as a hard worker. Therefore, we expect that engagement is positively related to FW+ and negatively to FW- (Hypothesis 5a), whereas workaholism is negatively related to FW+ and positively to FW- (Hypothesis 5b).

Work engagement vs. workaholism: Organizational outcomes

Research has shown that engagement can be positive not only for employees but particularly for organizations. Engaged employees enjoy their work, perform better and show high organizational commitment.^{14,39} Hence, engaged employees have also shown lower levels of negative organizational outcomes such as turnover intentions.^{32,40} On the other hand, some controversy exists regarding the positive vs. negative consequences of workaholism for organizations. Some authors argue that workaholism has positive consequences since workaholics work hard and are extremely

productive³⁴, whereas others state that they are rigid and do not perform particularly well.⁴⁷ As regards organizational attitudes, previous studies have found weak positive associations between workaholism and organizational commitment^{44,46} but no relationship between workaholism and turnover intentions.⁹ Due to limited research evidence, we expect that workaholics show organizational commitment both in terms of commitment and low turnover intentions. Thus, we hypothesize that both engagement and workaholism are positively related to organizational commitment and negatively to turnover intentions (Hypothesis 6).

Work engagement vs. workaholism: Personal and social job resources

Thus far, we have focused on the correlates of work engagement and workaholism regarding diverse outcomes. However, it is also necessary to know about the role that personal and social resources may play as antecedents of these two constructs. Previously, engagement has been related to several personal resources (e.g., self-efficacy, self-esteem, optimism) and job resources (e.g., autonomy, social support).^{15,40,56} In addition, it has been shown that job resources boost engagement over time, which in turn influences organizational commitment in the future.¹⁹ In contrast, a different association has been found regarding workaholism: the scant research evidence suggests that workaholism is related to a lack of job resources.⁴⁶ It is possible that workaholics experience a lack of resources (such as support) because, beyond external job demands they also work hard due to self-imposed demands and make their jobs even more complicated than necessary. Moreover, workaholics are perfectionists and therefore tend to evaluate their work characteristics negatively.⁵²

In this study, we specifically focused on two kind of "meta resources" that gather a variety of resources in themselves, namely core self-evaluations (personal resource) and social capital (social job resource). Core self-evaluation (CSE) is defined as a higher order trait representing the fundamental evaluations that people make about themselves and their worthiness, competence, and capability. In the core self-evaluations theory, the core concept is indicated by four traits: self-esteem, locus of control, neuroticism, and generalized self-efficacy.²⁴ Judge, Bono, and Locke²³ found that CSE is indeed a relevant personal resource by showing that positive self-evaluations were associated with job characteristics and job complexity, which were in turn related to job satisfaction. To our knowledge, only one recent study has explored the relationship between CSE and engagement³⁸, which showed that engagement fully mediated the relationship between CSE and task performance and organizational citizenship behavior.

Conversely, we found no studies addressing the relationship between CSE and workaholism. However, one explanation for the development of workaholism relates to the negative and distorted self-concept of workaholics.³⁶ Accordingly, because of low self-esteem and feelings of worthlessness, workaholics may strive through addictive working for more positive self-evaluation. As a result of using all their time and energy for working at the cost of their social lives and other potentially rewarding roles, they may, however, end up having an even more negative self-image.

Social capital refers to those features of social organization that act as resources for individuals and facilitate collective action. These include networks of associations, high levels of interpersonal trust and norms, or mutual aid and reciprocity.^{11,37} High

levels of social capital have been found to predict employee health and well-being.³⁰ Thus, social capital is a social and organizational job resource that may be positively related to engagement. In contrast, workaholism, which is often accompanied by poor social relationships at work, lack of social skills, and the inability to delegate and work in a team may be negatively related to social capital. In other words, we expect that work engagement is positively related to CSE and social capital (Hypothesis 7a), whereas workaholism is negatively related to CSE and social capital (Hypothesis 7b).

METHOD

Participants

The cross-sectional data for this study was gathered through a postal questionnaire survey as a part of a national well-being study initiated by the Supreme court of Finland. The study was aimed at every judge working in Finnish general courts at the time of the data collection (N = 707). General courts provided researchers with the contact information of judges. In October 2009, questionnaires were posted to every judge to his/her workplace. The letter included the questionnaire and a pre-paid envelope for returning the questionnaire. After two weeks, we posted a reminder including a new questionnaire to those who had not responded. Altogether, 550 judges responded to the questionnaire, yielding a response rate of 78%. The data was representative of Finnish judges working in district courts, the courts of appeal, and the Supreme Court. Of the participants, 55,5% were male, the mean age was 53,5 years (SD = 8,47) and the average number of years employed in present tasks was 11,4 (SD=9,9).

Measures

Work engagement was measured using the nine-item version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale.^{13,42} This includes three subscales that each comprise three items: vigor (e.g. "At my work, I am bursting with energy"), dedication (e.g. "I am enthusiastic about my job"), and absorption (e.g. "I am immersed in my work"). Items were rated on a seven-point scale ranging from 0 (never) to 6 (daily). The subscales showed good internal reliability: Cronbach's alphas (α) were 0,88 for vigor, 0,85 for dedication and 0,80 for absorption.

Workaholism was measured using the ten-item Dutch Workaholism Scale (DUWAS)⁴³, rated on a four-point scale from 1 (hardly never) to 4 (nearly always). The scale consists of two subscales: working excessively (e.g. "I find myself continuing to work after my coworkers have called it quits") and working compulsively (e.g. "It is important to me to work hard even when I do not enjoy what I am doing"). Both subscales had a good internal reliability; $\alpha = 0,82$ for working excessively and $\alpha = 0,82$ for working compulsively.

Overwork. Working hours were measured by one item ("How many hours a week do you usually work at your main occupation?"). Boundaryless work was estimated using three items comprising working on weekends, bringing work home, and working on vacation. The items were rated on a scale from 1 (almost never) to 4 (nearly always); $\alpha = 0,81$.

Recovery and health. Sleep problems was assessed by three questions from the Basic Nordic Sleep Questionnaire³¹ comprising trouble falling asleep, waking up in the middle of the night, and

waking up too early and not being able to fall asleep again, over the last three months. Items were rated on a scale from 1 (never or more rarely than once a month) to 5 (daily or almost daily); $\alpha = 0,68$. Presenteeism consisted of two items measuring working when feeling sick at home and/or at work during the last 12 months. Both items were scored on a four-point scale from 1 (not once) to 4 (more than five times). Intercorrelation between the items was $r = 0,54$. Detachment from work was measured using the four-item scale developed by Sonnentag and Fritz (2007; e.g. "I forget about work"). The items were rated on a five-point scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree); $\alpha = 0,86$.

Life satisfaction was measured using the five-item scale by Pavot and Diener³³ (e.g. "In most ways my life is close to the ideal"). The items were scored on a seven-point rating scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree); $\alpha = 0,90$.

Work-family interface was measured with four scales developed by Grzywacz and Marks.¹² The four scales cover both positive and negative work-to-family and family-to-work spillover (enrichment and conflict). The items were rated on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (all the time). WF+ was assessed using three items (e.g. "The things you do at work help you deal with personal and practical issues at home"); $\alpha = 0,79$. FW+ was similarly assessed using three items (e.g. "Your home life helps you relax and feel ready for the next day's work"); $\alpha = 0,73$. WF- was assessed using three items (e.g. "My job makes me feel too tired to do the things that need attention at home"); $\alpha = 0,84$. FW- was assessed using three items (e.g. "Personal or family worries and problems distract me when I am at work"); $\alpha = 0,82$.

CSE theoretically has the subscales of self esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control and (lack of) neuroticism, which should load on one factor.²⁴ However, CFA showed that the two-factor model consisting of a positive CSE factor (positively phrased items) and a negative CSE factor (negatively phrased items) fit the data better than the one-factor model. This solution also enabled us to use two indicators for the latent CSE factor in the study models. The items were scored on a five-point scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree); $\alpha = 0,79$ for the positive CSE factor and $\alpha = 0,83$ for the negative CSE factor.

Social capital was evaluated using four scales. Organizational climate was measured using a four-item scale by Lindström, Hottinen, and Bredenberg²⁷ (e.g. "Do you think the social climate in your workplace is comfortable and relaxed?"). Items were rated on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree); $\alpha = 0,85$. Sense of community, justice and respect, and trust were based on the Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire (COPSOQ).²⁵ Sense of community was measured using a three-item scale (e.g. "Do you feel part of a community at your place of work?"); $\alpha = 0,84$. Justice and respect was measured using a four-item scale (e.g. "Is the work distributed fairly?"); $\alpha = 0,84$. Trust was measured by one item inquiring whether supervisors and subordinates trusted each other. All COPSOQ items were rated on a scale from 1 (very rarely/ never) to 5 (very often).

Organizational attitudes. Organizational commitment was measured using two items by Lindström, Hottinen and Bredenberg²⁷ (e.g. "I'm willing to put serious effort into furthering the basic mission of my organization"). The intercorrelation between the items was $r = 0,55$ ($\alpha = 0,70$). Turnover intentions were measured using two items developed for the present study: "I often think about moving into another job inside the court system" and "I often think about moving into another job outside the court

system". Inter-correlation between the items was $r = 0,47$ ($\alpha = 0,64$). The items of both these scales were rated on a five-point scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Statistical analyses

We employed Structural Equation (SEM) techniques and Amos 16.0 software to test the study models. We used latent variables (indicated by respective scales or items) in all study models, except with working hours which were measured with one item. We applied Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to examine the factorial relationships between work engagement and workaholism. More specifically, we compared two factor ("engagement" and "workaholism") model with a one-factor (including both engagement and workaholism) model and also examined whether there would be cross-loadings between the two constructs. As regards the structural equation model including core self-evaluations, social capital, engagement and workaholism, and organizational attitudes we compared a fully mediated model with a partially mediated model. All model comparisons were based on chi-square difference tests and inspecting fit indices. We used the Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI) and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) as absolute goodness-of-fit indices, and the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and the Normed Fit Index (NFI) as relative fit indices. RMSEA values smaller than 0,05 are indicative of a good fit, whereas values greater than 0,1 should lead to model rejection.⁷ For the other indices, as a rule of thumb, values greater than 0,90 (and preferably greater than 0,95) are considered to indicate a good fit.²² In addition, we used bootstrapping to investigate the total effects of job and personal resources on the organizational outcomes. We also employed Sobel tests to further examine the mediated relationships.

Table 1.

Means, standard deviations, and correlations between the study variables among Finnish judges (N = 550).

Variables	M	Sd	1,	2,	3,	4,	5,	6,	7,	8,	9,	10,	11,	12,	13,	14,	15,	16,	17,	18,	19,	20,	21,
1. Vigor	4,40	1,18																					
2. Dedication	4,57	1,17	0,76																				
3. Absorption	4,61	1,11	0,56	0,66																			
4. Working excessively	2,27	0,65	-0,13	0,01	0,20																		
5. Working compulsively	1,93	0,65	-0,23	-0,12	0,10	0,66																	
6. Working hours (1 item)	41,68	6,94	0,05	0,14	0,22	0,41	0,29																
7. Boundaryless work	2,07	0,70	-0,04	0,07	0,19	0,64	0,51	0,52															
8. Sleeping problems	2,56	0,89	-0,26	-0,21	-0,11	0,25	0,32	0,05	0,20														
9. Presenteeism	1,88	0,84	-0,21	-0,15	-0,05	0,33	0,34	0,14	0,32	0,28													
10. Psychological detachment	2,87	0,89	0,13	0,06	-0,04	-0,39	-0,43	-0,18	-0,39	-0,33	-0,23												
11. Life satisfaction	5,13	1,18	0,47	0,44	0,24	-0,32	-0,37	-0,08	-0,20	-0,20	-0,23	0,27											
12. WF+	2,40	0,77	0,35	0,29	0,18	-0,14	-0,14	-0,01	-0,09	-0,11	-0,08	0,20	0,31										
13. FW+	3,37	0,78	0,19	0,25	0,18	-0,10	-0,07	0,03	-0,04	-0,16	-0,01	0,10	0,45	0,32									
14. WF-	2,87	0,77	-0,39	-0,24	-0,03	0,64	0,60	0,25	0,45	0,33	0,31	-0,37	-0,45	-0,25	-0,12								
15. FW-	1,97	0,65	-0,20	-0,20	-0,10	0,24	0,25	0,04	0,16	0,17	0,17	-0,16	-0,41	-0,03	-0,23	0,38							
16. Core self-evaluations	3,68	0,60	0,53	0,43	0,21	-0,38	-0,45	-0,12	-0,23	-0,36	-0,27	0,35	0,65	0,25	0,22	-0,57	-0,37						
17. Climate	3,41	0,85	0,28	0,27	0,13	-0,14	-0,24	-0,04	-0,15	-0,22	-0,19	0,14	0,25	0,13	0,11	-0,17	-0,13	0,26					
18. Sense of community	4,17	0,68	0,27	0,22	0,16	-0,06	-0,16	-0,04	-0,07	-0,19	-0,12	0,10	0,32	0,16	0,17	-0,21	-0,17	0,32	0,58				
19. Justice and respect	3,36	0,79	0,27	0,26	0,16	-0,12	-0,15	0,04	-0,04	-0,19	-0,20	0,12	0,26	0,17	0,20	-0,22	-0,12	0,30	0,67	0,61			
20. Trust (1 item)	3,63	0,88	0,21	0,20	0,13	-0,10	-0,16	-0,03	-0,05	-0,17	-0,14	0,10	0,23	0,14	0,15	-0,18	-0,11	0,26	0,63	0,54	0,74		
21. Organizational commitment	4,36	0,59	0,33	0,41	0,36	0,12	0,11	0,17	0,15	-0,09	0,01	0,01	0,22	0,19	0,16	0,03	-0,04	0,25	0,14	0,21	0,22	0,16	
22. Exit intentions	1,83	0,89	-0,22	-0,17	-0,09	0,19	0,21	0,01	0,07	0,05	0,20	-0,08	-0,33	-0,12	-0,04	0,21	0,13	-0,25	-0,19	-0,14	-0,20	-0,22	-0,17

Note. Correlations > 0,15 are statistically significant, $p < 0,001$; correlations between 0,12-0,15 are statistically significant, $p < 0,01$; correlations between 0,09-0,11 are statistically significant, $p < 0,05$.

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

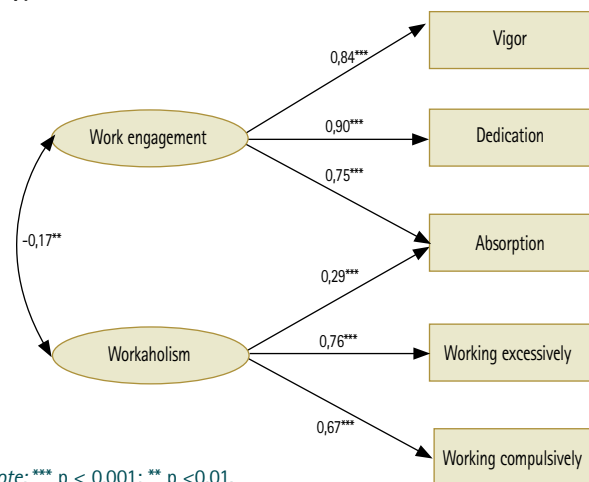
Table 1 shows the means, standard deviations, and the correlations between the study variables. As can be seen from this table, vigor correlated negatively, and absorption weakly but positively with both dimensions of workaholism. Dedication correlated negatively with working compulsively and was unrelated to working excessively.

Work engagement and workaholism

Confirmatory factor analysis showed that a one-factor model, in which all the scales of engagement and workaholism loaded on the same factor, had a poor fit ($\chi^2(6) = 735,40$, GFI = 0,65, CFI = 0,36, NFI = 0,36, and RMSEA = 0,484). Based on positive inter-correlations between absorption and workaholism, together with previous research, we next compared two 2-factor models ('engagement' and 'workaholism' factors) that were similar in all other respects, except that in the second model absorption was allowed to load both on engagement and workaholism. This latter model (Figure 1) had a good fit with the data. Moreover, this model had a better fit with the data than the model including 'pure' engagement and workaholism factors ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 45,66$, $p < 0,001$). Thus, engagement consisted of three highly loading scales: vigor, dedication, and absorption, whereas workaholism was indicated by scales of working excessively and working compulsively, and to a lesser extent by absorption (st. $\beta = 0,29$). To obtain more clear-cut, interpretable results, in subsequent analyses we removed absorption and focused on core dimensions of both engagement and workaholism.

Figure 1. Relationships between dimensions of work engagement and workaholism.

($\chi^2 = 37,55$; $df = 3$; $GFI = 0,97$; $CFI = 0,97$; $NFI = 0,97$; $RMSEA = 0,149$)



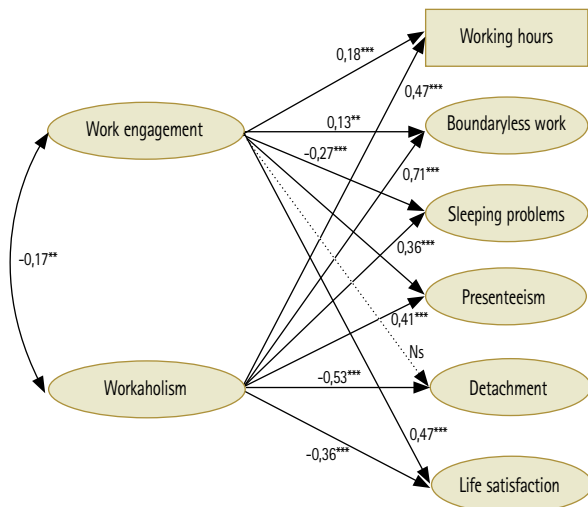
Note: *** $p < 0,001$; ** $p < 0,01$.

Relationships with overwork, recovery, and well-being

Figure 2 shows how engagement and workaholism were related to overwork, recovery and health, and life satisfaction. First, engagement was weakly but positively associated with working hours and boundaryless work (e.g. working during weekends or vacations), and unrelated to detachment from work. However, it was negatively related to working when sick and to sleep problems. Workaholism showed mainly different patterns of relationships. Although workaholism also correlated positively with working hours and boundaryless work, the associations were clearly stronger than those of engagement. In addition, workaholism was related to poor recovery as indicated by its negative association with detachment from work and positive associations with working when sick and with sleep problems. Finally, engagement was positively and workaholism negatively associated with life satisfaction.

Figure 2. Work engagement and workaholism, and their relationships with individual outcomes.

($\chi^2 = 495,69$; $df = 182$; $GFI = 0,92$; $CFI = 0,95$; $NFI = 0,92$; $RMSEA = 0,058$)



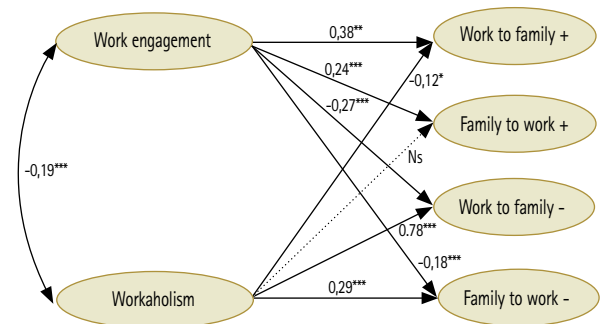
Note: *** $p < 0,001$; ** $p < 0,01$; * $p < 0,05$.

Relationships with work-family interface

In the next model (Figure 3), we investigated the relationships between engagement, workaholism and WF+, FW+, WF-, and FW-. Engagement was positively related to WF+ and FW+ and negatively to WF- and FW-. In contrast, workaholism positively associated with WF- and FW- and negatively with WF+.

Figure 3. Work engagement and workaholism, and their relationships with positive and negative interaction between work and family.

($\chi^2 = 276,28$; $df = 89$; $GFI = 0,94$; $CFI = 0,95$; $NFI = 0,93$; $RMSEA = 0,064$)



Note: *** $p < 0,001$; * $p < 0,05$.

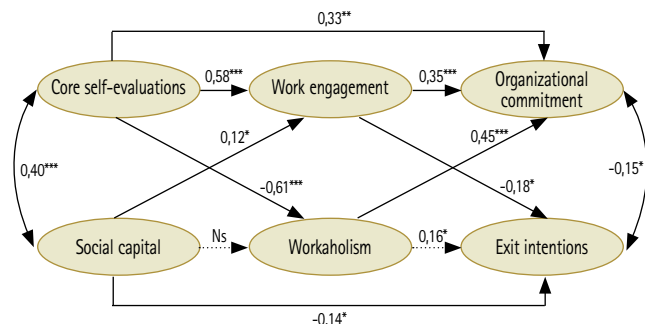
Relationships with job, and personal resources, and organizational attitudes

Finally, we tested a model in which engagement and workaholism mediated the impacts of social capital (job resource) and CSE (personal resource) on organizational commitment and turnover intentions. The partially mediated model ($\chi^2 = 176,93$; $df = 62$; $GFI = 0,95$; $CFI = 0,96$; $NFI = 0,94$; $RMSEA = 0,060$) fit the data better than the fully mediated ($\chi^2 = 194,11$; $df = 66$; $GFI = 0,95$; $CFI = 0,96$; $NFI = 0,924$; $RMSEA = 0,062$) model ($\Delta\chi^2 (4) = 17,17$, $p < 0,01$). Figure 4 shows that both social capital, and particularly CSE positively associated with engagement, whereas CSE had a negative and social capital a non-significant relationship with workaholism. In addition, engagement was positively related to organizational commitment and negatively to turnover intentions. Interestingly, workaholism was both positively related to organizational commitment and tentatively also to turnover intentions ($p = 0,06$). CSE also had a direct positive effect on organizational commitment, whereas social capital had a negative direct impact on turnover intentions. The Sobel tests further confirmed three mediated relationships. Engagement fully mediated the association between social capital and organizational commitment ($z = 2,17$; $p < 0,05$), and both engagement ($z = 4,00$; $p < 0,001$) and workaholism ($z = 4,69$; $p < 0,001$) partially mediated the relationship between CSE and organizational commitment. Finally, both engagement ($z = 1,96$; $p = 0,05$) and workaholism ($z = 1,83$; $p = 0,067$) tentatively mediated the relationship between CSE and turnover intentions. All in all, the bootstrapping analysis showed that core self-evaluations had a total effect (including direct and indirect effects) on both organizational commitment ($p < 0,01$) and on exit intentions ($p < 0,001$). Similarly, social capital had significant total effects on organizational commitment ($p < 0,01$) and on exit intentions ($p < 0,05$).

Figure 4.

Work engagement and workaholism as mediators between core-self evaluations and social capital, and organizational attitudes.

($\chi^2 = 176,93$; $df = 62$; $GFI=0,95$; $CFI=0,96$; $NFI=0,91$; $RMSEA=0,060$)



Note: *** $p < 0,001$; ** $p < 0,01$; * $p < 0,05$; a $p = 0,06$.

DISCUSSION

Previous studies have consistently shown that engagement is related to various positive outcomes and may be fostered by a variety of resources.^{16,39,46} However, Halbesleben and colleagues²¹ showed that being highly engaged may also associate with increased levels of work-family conflict. These results raise the question as to whether engagement is even too good to be true and whether there is a downside to engagement, e.g. it could lead to workaholism in the long term.³ In this study, using a representative sample of Finnish judges, we focused on the associations of engagement and workaholism with job (social capital) and personal (core self-evaluations) resources, and with a set of individual, work-family, and organizational outcomes. All in all, the results supported previous findings that engagement can be differentiated from workaholism.^{46,49} However, engagement showed some similarities with workaholism that also deserve attention.

Similarities between engagement and workaholism

CFA between the sub-dimensions of engagement and workaholism supported the two-factor model consisting of engagement and workaholism factors. However, similarly to a previous study by Schaufeli and colleagues⁴⁶ the third sub-dimension of engagement, i.e. absorption, loaded not only on engagement but also positively – albeit weakly – on the workaholism factor. Obviously, employees may become absorbed in their work for different motivational reasons.⁵³ Thus, vigor and dedication seem to be “pure” indicators of engagement, whereas high level of absorption could also be a sign of workaholic tendency.

In addition, supporting the finding by Schaufeli et al.⁴⁶ engagement was positively related to working hours and boundaryless working. This means that engaged judges were also likely to work longer hours, take work home, and occasionally also work at weekends and on vacation. It is plausible that because of boundaryless working, the association between engagement and detachment from work during free time was unexpectedly non-significant. However, Kühnel et al.²⁶ findings suggest that in order to foster engagement, individuals should detach from work demands and take care of recovery, through for example short (2-4 days) respites. Similarly to engagement, workaholism was also positively related to

overwork, but this association was clearly stronger, and workaholism further associated negatively with psychological detachment.

As expected, engagement positively associated with organizational commitment and negatively with turnover intentions. Interestingly, workaholism positively related both to commitment and tentatively also to turnover intentions. It is noteworthy that although workaholics are assumed to work hard because of inner pressures, regardless of feelings related to a particular organization,⁴⁷ a positive association between workaholism and organizational commitment has also been previously found.⁴⁶ The present study suggests that in contrast to engaged employees, workaholics may not be truly loyal to their organizations; they may at the same time consider alternative jobs. Longitudinal studies are needed to compare how engagement and workaholism may lead to different types of organizational attitudes.

Differences between engagement and workaholism

Thus far, only a handful of studies have focused on the relationship between engagement and health.⁵ Our study lends further support to the positive association between engagement and subjective indicators of health. Although engagement was positively associated with overwork and not related to detachment from work, our results showed that engaged employees would not however work when sick (presenteeism). In addition, engagement was negatively related to sleep problems. These findings suggest that being engaged means that one may overwork as long as it remains within reasonable limits and is not at the expense of one's health. In contrast, workaholism associated with less detachment and more presenteeism and sleep problems, indicating that workaholics indeed work compulsively and beyond what is good for their health and well-being. The difference between engagement and workaholism was also evident in their associations with life satisfaction – positive for engagement and negative for workaholism.⁴⁹

Moreover, this was the first study to show that engagement may be good for all four possible types of work-family interaction whereas the opposite holds true for workaholism: Engagement was positively related to WF+ and FW+ and negatively to WF- and FW-. In contrast, workaholism was negatively related to WF+, positively to WF- and FW-, and unrelated to FW+. Several previous studies have shown that workaholism is related to WF-.^{4,6,54} Recently, Halbesleben et al.²¹ found that engagement may also predict WF- via organizational citizenship behavior. It is possible that judges are not actively involved in extra-role behavior and therefore their engagement does not lead to conflicts between work and family. On the contrary, engagement seems to promote enrichment experiences from work to family.¹⁶ Instead, for a workaholic, enrichment between two conflicting roles is not plausible, and even reasonable role expectations and demands from the family may interfere with work and thereby influence FW-.

Previous studies have constantly shown that the main drivers of engagement are job resources but that in some cases, for example after having recovered from a serious disease, the role of personal resources may be even more important.¹⁵ This was one of the first studies to show that positive core self-evaluations (CSE), i.e. valuing oneself (self-esteem), belief in one's capabilities of performing (self-efficacy), seeing events as being contingent on one's own behavior (locus of control), and emotional stability (low neuroticism) were closely related to engagement.³⁸ Moreover, we found that CSE was even more strongly related to engagement than job resources (social capital as indicated by justice, trust, community, and climate). The rather weak relationship between social capital and engagement can

relate to the secondary role of interpersonal job resources in judges' jobs compared to task resources, such as autonomy. Is it however noteworthy that engagement was a mediator between social capital and commitment, as well as between CSE and commitment. Schaufeli and colleagues^{44,46} have found that workaholics may perceive their job resources negatively, whereas we found that workaholism was unrelated to job resources. One explanation is that job resources help to meet job demands and foster well-being but that workaholism is about self-imposed demands regardless of the available job resources. Workaholics are also often characterized by a lack of social skills, undervaluing their colleagues, and an inability to delegate work, which all imply difficulties in mobilizing social resources at work. Furthermore, our study showed quite a strong negative relationship between workaholism and positive self-evaluations. This finding supports the cognitive theory of workaholism, which posits that workaholism is based on deeply-rooted negative core-beliefs.⁵⁵ Our study, albeit cross-sectional, encourages paying more attention to this theory in investigating the origins of workaholism.

Limitations

This study has two noteworthy limitations. First, all the variables were based on self-reports. It is a challenge for future studies to use for example other-rated estimates (e.g. ratings by a family member and/or a close colleague) of work-family relationships.⁴⁸ In addition, it would be valuable to use an objective measure of turnover in comparing the outcomes of engagement and workaholism. Second,

this study was cross-sectional. An interesting future challenge would be to test our study models longitudinally using a panel design. It would also be important to longitudinally investigate the mutual relationship between engagement and workaholism; particularly the role of absorption in relation to other dimensions of engagement and workaholism. As an additional limitation, scales measuring sleep problems ($\alpha = 0,68$) and turnover intentions ($\alpha = 0,64$) showed rather low internal consistencies. Including more items per each scale would apparently have improved Cronbach alphas of these measures. However, the latent variables of sleeping problems and exit intentions both had factor loadings over 0,60 which is well above the conventional limit of 0,40.

CONCLUSION

Engagement had mainly healthy and positive associations with individual, work-family, and organizational outcomes and was also positively associated with core self-evaluations and social capital. However, engaged employees also overwork and therefore perhaps do not necessarily pay enough attention to sufficient detachment from work. All in all, this study suggests that work engagement is not a risk factor for workaholism although longitudinal studies are needed to address this issue properly. According to the present study, engagement seems to be beneficial for employees, their families and organizations without having a dark side and therefore we conclude that engagement is not too good to be true.

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