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WORKAHOLISM AMONG MANAGEMENT AND WORKERS IN AN ITALIAN COOPERATIVE ENTERPRISE

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The Workaholism construct — still little explored within Italian organizational contexts — was analyzed in a cooperative enterprise characterized by the workers' great participation in the company governance and profits. The possible combinations (high-low) of the two workaholism dimensions (Work Excessively and Work Compulsively) confirmed, through cluster analysis, the presence of four worker profiles: Workaholic, Non-workaholic, Hard Worker, and Compulsive Worker. The relations between the workers' different profiles, organizational variables, individual and demographic resources were also assessed. Generally, workaholics have a more critical profile, compared to the other three categories, on many of the variables examined, and in particular: workload, POS, organizational conflict (work-life, between groups, intra-role, and with superiors), psychological strain, burnout (emotional exhaustion and disaffection), and negative affectivity. As far as organizational citizenship behaviors and self-efficacy are concerned, on the contrary, results are less critical.

Key words: Cooperative enterprise; Job stress; Management; Well-being; Workaholism.

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INTRODUCTION

The term *Workaholism* describes the uncontrollable desire to work that characterizes some people (Oates, 1971). Interest in such construct has progressively grown, as the steady increase in publications devoted to the study of work addiction proves. Though it is not easy to reach a consensus on its definition, Scott, Moore, and Miceli (1997) highlighted a common ground between the different definitions and theoretical models of workaholism, identifying three core traits: 1) the large amount of time devoted to work; 2) the difficulty to disengage from work and the persistent thinking about it even when engaged in other activities; 3) the commitment well beyond organizational demands and one's own financial needs.

As Shimazu and Schaufeli (2009) pointed out, these three features can be traced back to two components constituting the central nucleus of workaholism: a behavioral dimension — excessive work — and a cognitive dimension — compulsive work. Accordingly, Schaufeli, Taris, and Bakker (2008, p .204) defined workaholism as "the tendency to work excessively hard in a compulsive way." Schaufeli, Bakker, van der Heijden, and Prins (2009a), moreover, identified

four possible profiles on the basis of the scores achieved on the two dimensions, Work Excessively (WE) and Work Compulsively (WC), only one of which, though, can be properly defined Workaholic. Comparing the four profiles, Workaholics (high WE, high WC) achieve significantly more critical mean scores, on their perceptions, compared to Non-workaholics (low WE, low WC), Hard Workers (high WE, low WC), and Compulsive Workers (low WE, high WC) on the dimensions assessing workload, perceived organizational support, and individual disease in terms of burnout and psychological strain.

The objective of this study was to examine workaholism in an Italian organization, considering that in our country few scholarly publications are found on such construct and its relations with organizational well-being/disease, demographic, and personality variables. On some of these relations, as we will see, agreement exists in the international literature. On others, further study is needed because the results appear to be contradictory, and on yet others, no empirical evidence has been found to date. Our study makes a specific contribution on the subject.

Besides, to the best of our knowledge, no international investigations have been conducted on organizations characterized by the workers' great participation in the governance and business profits. The present study, hence, also intended to consider how workaholism can be related to such a variable, that we may define "highly participatory organization," given that many of the respondents are partners of the cooperative enterprise in which they work and the others are strongly involved in it.

Correlates of Workaholism

The previously presented definition described workaholism as a construct characterized by two factors: excessive work and a strong inner drive to work.

In line with such definition, a positive relation emerged between the number of work hours and workaholism (Aziz & Zickar, 2006; Schaufeli et al., 2008). Accordingly, the continuous commitment to work as well as constant thinking about it, and the difficulty to relax lead workaholic individuals to high levels of psychological and physiological strain and, in general, to problems of individual health, as evidenced by numerous studies (Buelens & Poelmans, 2004; McMillan, O'Driscoll, & Burke, 2003; Ng, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2007; Schaufeli et al., 2008; Shimazu & Schaufeli, 2009; Spence & Robbins, 1992; Taris, Schaufeli, & Verhoeven, 2005). Together with the number of work hours, it is important to also consider other aspects of work overload such as cognitive, time, and problem-solving demands, greatly felt by workaholics (Kanai & Wakabayashi, 2001; Kanai, Wakabayashi, & Fling, 1996; Schaufeli et al., 2009a). The link between workload and workaholism could be influenced, in our study, by the presence of a high number of workers-partners in the organization and by the other employees being particularly involved in it, with the consequent tendency to take on more work engagements, because all the workers perceive they are working in their own interest.

Another widely-studied relation is that between workaholism and work-life conflict. Workaholic individuals score higher on conflicts between work and private life (Aziz & Cunningham, 2008; Aziz & Zickar, 2006; Bakker, Demerouti, & Burke, 2009; Bonebright, Clay, & Ankenmann, 2000; Dewilde, Dewettinck, & De Vos, 2007; Killinger, 1991; Robinson, 1989; Robinson, Flowers, & Carrol, 2001; Spence & Robbins, 1992; Taris et al., 2005). The workaholic

person works a great number of hours and is driven by internal motivations rather than financial needs or extrinsic motivations (Spence & Robbins 1992); he/she wastes a great deal of energies and time at work and is not able to maintain social relations outside the work environment (Ng et al., 2007).

A typical trait of workaholics' is also their perfectionism at work, their high standards of performance, their being unable to delegate their work and to create a sound competitiveness (Clark, Lelchook, & Taylor, 2010; Kanai & Wakabayashi, 2001; Ng et al., 2007; Porter, 1996, 2001). These traits can also lead workers to establish poorer and conflictual relations with colleagues because of the lack of trust in their work group (Porter, 2001). Besides, workaholic workers experience higher levels of role conflict; in particular, Kanai and Wakabayashi (2001) found a positive relation between compulsive work and role conflict. Schaufeli, Bakker, van der Heijden, and Prins (2009b) in a study on a group of medical residents, pointed out that role conflict mediates the relation between workaholism and job demands, burnout, and well-being indicators. We are not aware of any studies focusing on the conflict with superiors, which is addressed in our research.

With reference to the relation between workaholism and burnout, many publications acknowledged a positive relation between the constructs (Andreassen, Ursin, & Eriksen, 2007; Burke, Richardsen, & Mortinussen, 2004; Schaufeli et al., 2009b; Taris et al., 2005). In particular, one of the dimensions of burnout, emotional exhaustion, has a stronger positive relation to workaholism. Schaufeli et al. (2009a) suggested that such relation is compatible with the fact that working hard and for long hours doesn't allow the necessary recovery and, consequently, causes exhaustion of the worker's mental and physical energies.

Concerning turnover, few studies in the literature demonstrated a relation between workaholism and intention to leave the organization (Burke, 2001). This author found a negative relation between these two variables, in line with what Scott et al. (1997) maintained on the low turnover level in two of the workaholic behavior patterns they identified — perfectionist and achievement-oriented. In the organization we studied we considered it appropriate to verify turnover intentions, that were hypothesized as in general rather low.

As regards the relation between work satisfaction and workaholism, the results in the literature provide conflicting data deriving from the different theoretical models underlying workaholism; some authors highlighted a negative relation between workaholism and work satisfaction (Aziz & Zickar, 2006), others, such as Machlowitz (1980), reported a positive relation between workaholism and work satisfaction; others still, like Scott et al. (1997), noticed a positive or negative relation based on the different behavioral patterns in which workaholics can be divided. The negative relation between workaholism and work satisfaction can be accounted for through the compulsive nature of workaholism.

Further, workaholism, seems to have a positive, though weak, relation with organizational commitment (Burke, 1999; Burke & Koskal, 2002; Burke et al., 2004).

A further variable that needs close examination is organizational citizenship. Schaufeli, Taris, and Bakker (2006) identified a positive relation between workaholism and this extra-role behavior, in accord with what was claimed by Scott et al. (1997) according to whom a peculiar workaholic trait is to exceed organizational demands. Given that the literature has so far considered only the aspect of extra-role behaviors inherent in the organization in general, without dis-

tinguishing them from help behaviors toward specific people, in our study the theme of altruism was also explored.

Just like many authors who consider workaholism as a stable individual variable (McMillan et al., 2003; Robinson, 1998; Spence & Robbins 1992), Ng et al. (2007) hypothesized that there is a higher chance of displaying workaholic behaviors when one's perception of self-efficacy relating to work is higher than that in other fields. Also, Burke and Matthiesen (2004) found a positive relation between workaholism and negative affectivity. Such relation is accounted for by relating overall negative emotions to the dimensions of cynicism, emotional exhaustion, and sense of inadequacy connected to the compulsive dimension (Burke & Matthiesen, 2004). We deemed it fitting to also include some individual variables in the study, because the relation between workaholism and personal resources, such as negative affectivity, self-efficacy, and resilience, have not been much investigated. Besides, such variables have been mainly studied using Spence and Robbins' model (1992).

Finally, some demographic variables were analyzed to determine their effects on workaholism. The results reported in the literature are contradictory or don't consider the effects of such variables on the onset of workaholism. For instance, Harpaz and Snir (2003) noticed that people working in the private sector, and in particular managers, are more prone to workaholic behaviors. Besides, there seem to be gender differences, with men being more workaholic than women; some studies, however (for instance, Burke, 1999; Burke et al., 2004), didn't detect any significant differences in this respect. Similarly, no significant differences were found in other variables, among which age (Burke, 2001). In this study, we examined the role of the above-mentioned demographic variables and also included others, such as being a partner or not in the organization, and job seniority.

OBJECTIVES

The present work aimed to test the following hypotheses.

1. To confirm the presence of four different worker profiles, as suggested by Schaufeli et al. (2009a), considering the possible different combinations of the (high-low) scores on the two dimensions — Work Excessively and Work Compulsively — that constitute workaholism (Hypothesis 1).
2. To analyze the relation between the different profiles identified by cluster-analyses and the workers' demographic variables. In particular, we hypothesized the presence of more frequent workaholic behaviors in partners of the cooperative enterprise, managers, and workers with greater age and job seniority (Hypothesis 2).
3. To evaluate the relation between the different profiles and the variables correlated to workaholism. Particularly, we expected that, compared to non-workaholics (or any other group that might emerge from the previous cluster-analyses), workaholics would show more unfavorable scores on workload, job control, as well as different conflict dimensions, POS, psychological strain and burnout, on negative affectivity and the various work satisfaction components. Conversely, less unfavorable scores should emerge on commitment, turnover intentions, organizational citizenship behaviors, resilience, and self-efficacy (Hypothesis 3).

METHODS

Materials

All the members of the organization ($N = 813$) were administered the scales of the test for the assessment of work-related stress risk in the organizational well-being perspective, Q_u-Bo (De Carlo, Falco, & Capozza, 2008), an instrument validated in the Italian context, made up of the following scales, together with the (specifically adapted) DUWAS (Dutch Workaholism Scale; (Schaufeli et al., 2006).

Antecedents of Organizational Disease/Well-being

Organizational Conflict (Rahim, 2001) was assessed through 24 items and divided into role conflict (person-role conflict, work-life conflict, intra-role conflict) and organizational conflict (conflict with superiors and colleagues). *Perceived Organizational Support* (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986) was measured through three items. *Workload* (Karasek et al., 1998) was measured through 13 items and comprised three dimensions: cognitive load, time pressure, and problem-solving. *Job control* (Karasek et al., 1998) was measured through six items.

The four above-mentioned constructs were rated on a 6-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 6 = *strongly agree*).

Consequences and Effects

Burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 2000) was measured through nine items on a 6-point scale (1 = *very rarely*; 6 = *very frequently*) and includes three dimensions: emotional exhaustion, professional inefficacy, and work disaffection. *Psychological Strain* (Leiter 1993) was measured through nine items on a 6-point scale (1 = *very rarely*; 6 = *very frequently*) and divided into three dimensions: emotional instability, disengagement, and leisure. *Work Satisfaction* (Griffin & Bateman, 1986) was measured through 15 items on a 6-point scale (1 = *very unsatisfied*; 6 = *very satisfied*) and divided into five dimensions: satisfaction with work, pay, relations, processes, and growth. *Turnover* (Hom, Caranikas-Walker, Prussia, & Griffeth, 1992) was measured through two items on a 6-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 6 = *strongly agree*). *Altruism and Compliance* (Schnake, 1991) were measured on a 6-point scales (1 = *strongly disagree*; 6 = *strongly agree*). *Organizational Commitment* (Meyer & Allen, 1991) was measured through nine items on a 6-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 6 = *strongly agree*) and divided into three dimensions: affective, normative and continuance commitment.

Individual Resources

Self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997) was measured through three items. *Resilience* (Connor & Davidson, 2003) was measured through four items. *Negative Affectivity* (Fortunato & Stone-Romero, 1999) was measured through eight items.

A 6-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 6 = *strongly agree*) was used for the three constructs.

Workaholism

Finally, for workaholism (Schaufeli et al., 2006), the DUWAS was adopted, adapting the items to the Italian context, reducing them to 14 and using a 6-point scale as in the Q_u-Bo (1 = *strongly disagree*; 6 = *strongly agree*). The resulting scale is composed of two dimensions: Work Excessively (eight items) and Work Compulsively (six items).

Because, to the best of our knowledge, no scientific publications exist on the Italian validation of the DUWAS, the latter was submitted to confirmatory factor analysis, as described below.

The Organizational Context

The present study was conducted on the 733 workers of an Italian cooperative industry, who answered all the DUWAS items. The participants' characteristics in terms of demographic variables (gender, age, position held in the organization, job seniority, type of relation to the company) are reported in Table 1.

TABLE 1
Participants' characteristics

	N	Valid %	Missing
Gender	710	–	23
Women	158	22.3	
Men	552	77.7	–
Age	*708*	–	*25*
Between 20 and 30 years	109	15.4	
Between 31 and 45 years	376	53.1	-
Above 45 years	223	31.5	
Position held in the organization	710	–	23
Executive	52	7.3	
Clerk	309	57.6	–
Workman	249	35.1	
Job seniority	712	–	21
Below 10 years	296	41.6	
Between 11 and 20 years	191	26.8	–
Above 20 years	225	31.6	
Relation to the cooperative enterprise	708	–	25
Partner	240	33.9	
Non-partner	468	66.1	–

RESULTS

Predictive Validity of the DUWAS

The evaluation of the metric properties of the scale was done by using confirmatory factor analysis (LISREL 8; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993).

In order to check the goodness of fit of the model, the following indices — besides χ^2 — were applied (see Hu & Bentler, 1999):

- RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation); values equal or below .08 indicate a good fit;
- CFI (Comparative Fit Index); values equal or greater than .95 indicate a good fit;
- SRMR (Standardized Root Mean Square Residual); values equal or lower .08 indicate a good fit.

Indices used did not show a goof fit: $\chi^2 = 746.76$, $p < .001$; RMSEA = .11; CFI = .90; SRMR = .09.

We, thus, proceeded to eliminate items 6, 8, 10, and 14, because exploratory factor analysis, conducted with principal components, suggested that such items pertained to a not easily definable third factor. The metric properties of the 10-item scale were then assessed once more.

The analysis of indices proved a good fit to data. Chi-square is significant but it must be noted that χ^2 value strongly depends on the sample size. Moreover, confirmatory factor analysis showed a high, but lower than 1 correlation between the Work Excessively and Work Compulsively dimensions, $\Phi_{21} = .71$, indicating that the two factors are distinct variables. Such results agree with previous studies on workaholism two-factor structure, as described by the DUWAS, analyzed in several work settings and countries (del Líbano et al., 2010; Schaufeli et al., 2006). Loadings of the 10-item scale on the respective factor are shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2
10-item scale; WE = Work Excessively; WC = Work Compulsively

	Item		λ
1	I keep working even when my colleagues have already left.	WE	.55
2	I am always in a hurry and I feel I am fighting against the clock.	WE	.69
3	I devote much more time to work than to my friends and spare time activities.	WE	.70
4	I commit to my work excessively, beyond my abilities.	WE	.62
5	When working, I set deadlines for myself to keep myself under pressure.	WE	.38
7	I find myself doing several things at the same time, such as answering the phone and taking notes during lunch.	WE	.54
9	Commitment to my work is an obligation for me, even when I don't like what I'm doing.	WC	.47
11	I feel I have an inner drive to work hard: a feeling that I must do it, like it or not.	WC	.69
12	I feel there is something in me driving me to work hard.	WC	.73
13	I cannot refrain from always working with great commitment.	WC	.67

$\chi^2 = 157.64$, $p < .001$; RMSEA = .072; CFI = .97; SRMR = .044

Identification of Profiles

As previously mentioned, Schaufeli et al. (2009a) identified four different profiles based on the combination of the scores on the Work Excessively and Work Compulsively dimensions. To test their presence (Hypothesis 1), hierarchical and non-hierarchical cluster analysis was used.

In the first step, a hierarchical cluster analysis was performed using Ward's method based on squared Euclidean distances. The analysis of the dendrogram proved the soundness of the four-cluster solution. In the second step, non-hierarchical (*k*-means) cluster analysis was performed; findings are presented in Figure 1 (*z* scores).

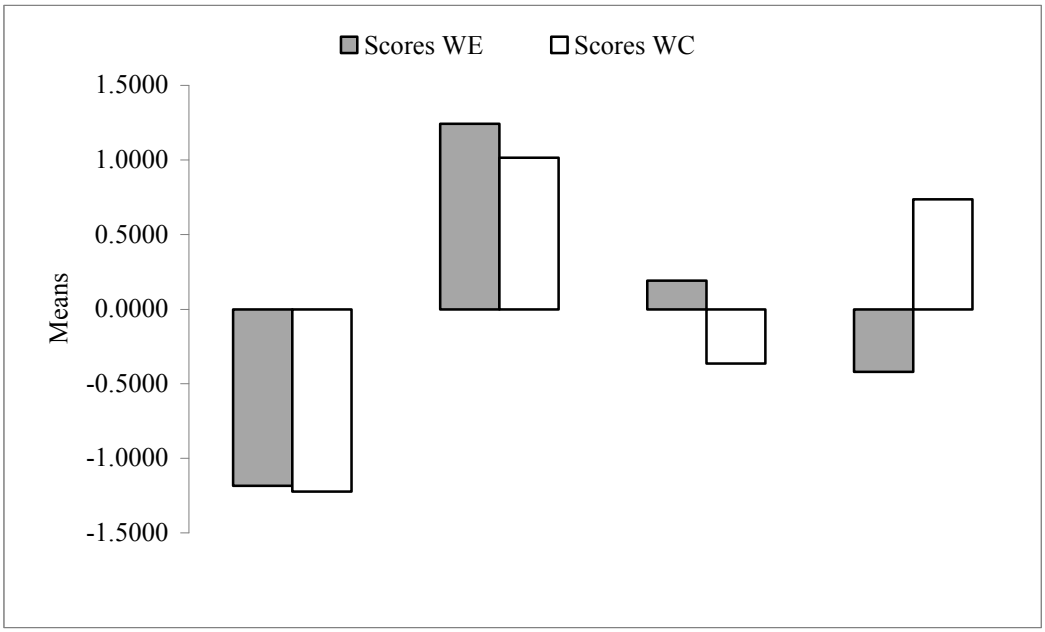

FIGURE 1
Representation of the four clusters, *z* scores.

These group differences are confirmed by an analysis of variance (ANOVA) with cluster membership as independent variable. The ANOVA reveals a highly significant difference between clusters in levels of both Work Excessively and Work Compulsively. Each cluster differed ($p < .001$), compared to the other three, on each of the two dependent variables: this finding confirmed the presence of four different profiles resulting from the high-low combinations of Work Excessively and Work Compulsively dimensions.

In line with the labels originally assigned by Schaufeli et al. (2009a), and supported by data we obtained, we can define the four individualized clusters as follows, thus confirming Hypothesis 1.

Non-workaholic: combination of low-low scores in the WE and WC dimensions, represented by the first cluster in Figure 1. Participants that can be defined non-workaholics are 158, that is, 21.6% of the sample.

Workaholic: combination of high-high scores in the WE and WC dimensions, represented by the second cluster in Figure 1. Participants that can be labeled workaholics are 166, corresponding to 22.6% of the sample.

Hard Worker: combination of high-low scores in the WE and WC dimensions, represented by the third cluster in Figure 1. Participants that can be defined Hard Workers are 25.1, which equals 34.2% of the sample.

Compulsive Worker: combination of low-high scores in the WE and WC dimensions, respectively, represented by the fourth cluster in Figure 1. Participants that can be labeled Compulsive Workers are 158, that is, 21.6% of the sample.

Effects of Demographic Variables and Composition of the Four Profiles

Table 3 presents the composition of the four profiles according to the demographic features: gender, age (between 20 and 30 years, between 31 and 45 years, above 45 years), position held in the organization (executive/manager, clerk, workman), job seniority (below 10 years, between 11 and 20 years, above 20 years) and type of relation with the cooperative enterprise (partner or non-partner). To find differences on such variables, the contingency tables and chi-square were analyzed. Results of Table 3 show a significant difference on the "Role held in the organization" variable ($p < .001$): 42.3% of the 52 executives of the organization ($n = 22$) fall within the workaholic profile, and 40.4% ($n = 21$) in the hard worker profile. The age variable was statistically significant as well ($p < .03$), with a slight prevalence of younger people in the compulsive worker category. Therefore, in contrast with our hypothesis, being partner of the organization, age, job seniority, and gender don't favor workaholic behaviors. Hypothesis 2 was only partially verified.

Differences between Groups

In order to test the presence of differences between groups, the analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted using membership in the four previously identified clusters as independent variable and the different indicators of organizational well-being/disease, as well as of some individual resources, as dependent variables. Table 4 presents means, comparisons between groups, *F*-values, and η^2 of the variables with at least one significant difference between the four profiles. For a more analytical interpretation, see the discussion section.

Workaholics presented more critical scores than the other three groups on many of the variables examined. The workload (time pressure and problem-solving), work-life conflict, some dimensions of psychological strain (emotional instability and leisure) and emotional exhaustion variables showed higher η^2 values ($\eta^2 > .10$). Besides, though having lower η^2 values ($\eta^2 < .10$), workaholics displayed higher levels of intra-role conflict than the other three profiles, of conflict between groups compared to non-workaholics, and of conflict with superiors compared to non-workaholics and compulsive workers. Conversely, they showed higher levels of job control in comparison to the other profiles. Also, workaholic individuals obtained higher

TABLE 3
Chi-square, number, and percentage for the four profiles divided by demographic variables

	Total		Non-workaholic		Workaholic		Hard Worker		Compulsive Worker		χ^2
	N	%	*N*	%	*N*	%	*N*	%	*N*	%	*p*
Gender	710	100	155	100	158	100	243	100	154	100	
Female	158	22.3	29	18.7	35	22.2	54	22.2	40	26.0	= .501
Male	552	77.7	126	81.3	123	77.8	189	77.8	114	74.0	
Age	708	100	155	100	158	100	241	100	154	100	
Between 20 and 30 years	109	15.4	21	13.5	18	11.4	35	14.5	35	22.7	< .03
Between 31 and 45 years	376	53.1	84	54.2	91	57.6	118	49.0	83	53.9	
Above 45 years	223	31.5	50	32.3	49	31.0	88	36.5	36	23.4	
Position held	710	100	154	100	161	100	242	100	153	100	
Executive/ Manager	52	7.3	3	1.9	22	13.7	21	8.7	6	3.9	< .001
Clerk	409	57.6	70	45.5	102	63.4	146	60.3	91	59.5	
Workman	249	35.1	81	52.6	37	23.0	75	31.0	56	36.6	
Job seniority	712	100	155	100	161	100	241	100	155	100	
Below 10 years	296	41.6	55	35.5	70	43.5	96	39.8	75	48.4	= .114
Between 11 and 20 years	191	26.8	42	27.1	43	26.7	62	25.7	44	28.4	
Above 20 years	225	31.6	58	37.4	48	29.8	83	34.4	36	23.2	
Relation to the cooperative enterprise	708	100	152	100	160	100	240	100	156	100	
Partner	240	33.9	51	33.6	60	37.5	81	33.7	48	30.8	= .655
Non-partner	468	66.1	101	66.4	100	62.5	159	66.3	108	69.2	

scores on organizational citizenship components, with higher levels of compliance than all the other profiles and of altruism compared to non-workaholics and hard workers. Finally, as for individual resources, workaholics displayed higher levels of negative affectivity than non-workaholics as well as higher levels of self-efficacy than both non-workaholics and hard workers.

Non-workaholics, therefore, presented a better configuration in terms of well-being than the other three profiles. In fact, they had the lowest levels on: two dimensions of workload (temporal pressure and problem-solving) and some dimensions of organizational conflict (work-life, between groups, and intra-role), especially when compared to hard working and workaholic individuals. Besides, non-workaholics also presented lower levels than workaholics on conflict with superiors.

Workaholics and hard workers obtained more critical scores than the other groups on emotional exhaustion and disengagement (psychological strain); besides, workaholics got more critical scores than the other three groups on emotional instability (psychological strain); this last

TABLE 4
Mean scores for each cluster, as well as *F*-values, and η^2

Variable	Non-workaholic[1]	Workaholic[2]	Hard Worker[3]	Compulsive Worker[4]	*F*-value	η^2
Work Excessively	2.38 [2,3,4]	4.69 [1,3,4]	3.69 [1,2,4]	3.11 [1,2,3]	577.28***	.704
Work Compulsively	2.74 [2,3,4]	4.99 [1,3,4]	3.60 [1,2,4]	4.71 [1,2,3]	624.02***	.720
POS	3.48 [2]	3.12 [1,4]	3.41	3.47 [2]	3.98**	.017
Cognitive Load	4.39 [2]	4.78 [1,3]	4.54 [2]	4.56	7.43***	.030
Time Pressure	3.33 [2,3,4]	4.66 [1,3,4]	4.02 [1,2]	3.79 [1,2]	54.50***	.186
Problem-solving	3.43 [2,3,4]	4.53 [1,3,4]	3.97 [1,2]	3.90 [1,2]	30.67***	.116
Job Control	4.10 [2,3,4]	4.75 [1,3,4]	4.40 [1,2]	4.35 [1,2]	20.39***	.079
Work-life Conflict	2.28 [2,3]	4.20 [1,3,4]	3.28 [1,4]	2.50 [2,3]	88.55***	.273
Conflict between Groups	3.45 [2,3]	3.79 [1]	3.73 [1]	3.53	4.60**	.021
Intra-role Conflict	2.38 [2,3]	3.12 [1,3,4]	2.79 [1,2]	2.64 [2]	14.69***	.059
Conflict with Superiors	2.09 [2]	2.48[1,4]	2.34 [4]	1.93 [2,3]	9.37***	.039
Work Satisfaction	4.04 [4]	4.27	4.12	4.34 [1]	3.78**	.016
Disengagement	2.35 [2,3]	3.26 [1,3,4]	2.82 [1,2,4]	2.51 [2,3]	27.00***	.100
Emotional Instability	2.16 [2,3]	3.35 [1,3,4]	2.72 [1,2]	2,46 [2]	39.11***	.139
Leisure	5.05 [2,3]	4.15 [1,3,4]	4.60 [1,2,4]	5.02 [2,3]	34.29***	.124
Compliance	4.12 [2,3]	4.75 [1,3,4]	4.45 [1,2]	4.33 [2]	14.27***	.056
Altruism	4.80 [2,4]	5.10 [1,3]	4.83 [2,4]	5.09 [1,3]	7.19***	.030
Commitment to Continuity	4.60	4.44 [4]	4.40 [4]	4.83 [2,3]	4.26**	.018
Emotional Exhaustion	1.86 [2,3]	2.71 [1,3,4]	2.35 [1,2,4]	1.96 [2,3]	30.10***	.111
Disaffection	1.56	1.61	1.70 [4]	1.41 [3]	4.00**	.017
Negative Affectivity	3.60 [2,3]	3.87 [1]	3.76 [1]	3.75	7.66***	.035
Resilience	4.55	4.75 [3]	4.52 [2,4]	4.76 [3]	5.81**	.024
Self-efficacy	4.95 [2,4]	5.45 [1,3]	5.01 [2,4]	5.28 [1,3]	21.42***	.082

Note. Each group is identified in the first line of the table by a number. In the cells, superscripts indicate the groups between which a significant difference (at least $p \leq .05$) exists. POS = Perceived Organizational Support.
[1] $n = 158$ (21.6%); [2] $n = 166$ (22.6%); [3] $n = 251$ (34.2%); [4] $n = 158$ (21.6%); **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

variable was also critical for hard worker but only compared to the non-workaholic and the workaholic.

Finally, when comparing hard working and compulsive working participants, more similarities than differences emerged. Among differences, compulsive workers had a lower level of conflict between work and private life compared to hard working individuals, and higher scores on the self-efficacy and resilience variables. Finally, it can be noted that hard workers and compulsive workers generally displayed a more negative configuration compared to non-workaholics and a more positive one compared to workaholics.

Hypothesis 3 was therefore partially supported: workaholics had more unfavorable scores on workload, POS, conflict (work-life, between groups, intra-role, and with superiors), psychological strain, burnout (emotional exhaustion and disaffection), and more favorable scores on self-efficacy and organizational citizenship behaviors.

DISCUSSION

The first aim of this investigation was to verify the existence of the four different profiles highlighted by Schaufeli et al. (2009a) in the workers' group we studied. Cluster analysis confirmed the presence of four profiles: Non-workaholics (low WE, low WC), Workaholics (high WE, high WC), Hard Workers (high WE, low WC), and Compulsive Workers (low WE, high WC). Such subdivision was also useful in categorizing the different perceptions of antecedents and effects of organizational well-being/disease.

The second aim was to analyze the effect of demographic variables. Results showed that the position held inside the organization is discriminating in terms of being workaholic or not, and in particular that executives/managers are more prone to work addiction. This result is in line with what Harpaz and Snir (2003) had already noted: there is a preponderance of workaholics in professions requiring high levels of responsibility.

Being a partner in the organization (or not) doesn't seem to influence the onset of work addiction, even if literature suggests that the self-employed (who, however, cannot be considered like partners) are in general a category at risk for workaholism. Gender, age, and job seniority are not predictive of being workaholic or not. As regards gender, results agree with some studies (see Burke, 1999) and differ from others (among which Harpaz & Snir, 2003).

The third aim was to verify the relation between the different profiles and organizational variables. In general, in line with the results obtained by Schaufeli et al. (2009a), workaholic workers have a worse profile than the other three categories on many of the variables examined. In particular, they have higher mean scores on workload (both cognitive and problem-solving), work-life conflict, and psychological strain (leisure and emotional instability). Such results agree with the theoretical background: it is plain that high WE scores correspond to the worker's tendency to take on a great deal of work, driven by the compulsive dimension of work addiction. Consequently, it doesn't surprise that such overload may affect the relation between work and private life favoring the onset of psychological strain and exhaustion. Such factors may explain the higher disengagement in workaholics, whose compulsive urge could justify the continual feelings of inadequacy in their work.

Non-workaholics have the least negative profile of the four. At the same time, hard workers and compulsive workers show more similar than differing aspects in terms of consequences of organizational well-being/disease: these results confirm, hence, those previously obtained by Schaufeli et al. (2009a). Comparing the results of the two research studies, differences emerge in some of the variables studied, together with some novelties due to the introduction of new variables. In our group, workaholics have higher scores on vertical conflict dimensions (conflict with superiors) than on horizontal dimensions (conflict with colleagues) as, instead, noted by Schaufeli et al. (2009a). Such result could be explained also considering the data on the job control variable (again opposite to Schaufeli et al.'s findings, 2009a) and on perceived organizational support. Workaholics' high levels of control, probably deriving from their being workers-partners, correspond to lower levels of perceived organizational support. This group perceives high levels of job control, but the emergence of vertical conflicts could generate low levels of perceived organizational support, because the workers, though partners of the organization, are bound by directives and hierarchies. Besides, lower scores on perceived organizational support agree with the declared conflict between work and private life: POS, indeed, refers to perceived organization support in both work and extra-work settings.

As for work satisfaction, no significant differences emerge between workaholic and non-workaholic participants. This doesn't surprise because workaholics' compulsive tendency to work excessively engages them in the continuous effort to improve their working performance, and leaves them no more satisfied than non-workaholics.

The dimensions of organizational commitment are not discriminating between workaholics and non-workaholics, either. Such result can be interpreted in the light of the peculiarity of the organization, where high levels of participation favor a greater sense of belonging.

With reference to organizational citizenship, workaholics score higher than non-workaholics in the two dimensions underlying such construct: compliance and altruism. Higher scores on compliance can be accounted for considering that workaholics, in their drive to work excessively, have the tendency to help the organization, taking on commitments and activities not required by the organization itself. Besides, such result is in accord with Ng et al.'s (2007) assertion that companies typically don't discourage workaholic behaviors, but rather favor them. The explanation of workaholics' tendency to score higher on altruism, that is on helping behaviors toward specific people (for instance colleagues and superiors), may appear more complex. A possible explanation, calling for further examination, is that workaholics perform helping behaviors toward specific people because they are essentially driven by the compulsive tendency to work excessively. In other words, such altruistic behaviors not being fully intentional are, hence, somehow egoistic, because induced by the compulsive need to work excessively also taking on other people's work.

Finally, as regards individual resources, significant differences emerge between workaholics and non-workaholics in the self-efficacy and negative affectivity variables. On the former, workaholics score higher than non-workaholics: such difference can be explained by the workaholic worker's trust in his/her abilities to achieve work goals thanks to his/her tendency to work excessively. Workaholics also score higher on the negative affectivity construct: it could be hypothesized that high scores on both WE and WC dimensions may lead these workers to negative emotional states because of the evident and sustained investment of energies and resources, as well as of the compulsive drive provoking a general sense of inadequacy toward their own activity.

Concerning the possible practical fallouts of the present study, it must be remembered that workaholism is often strengthened and even encouraged by companies, especially within the management, and this has overall negative effects for the management itself, the workers and, in the end, for the whole organization. Both in the company at issue, and in business contexts in general, it would hence be useful to promote a greater awareness on the possible disadvantageous effects of workaholism. In fact, it may at first seem to increase productivity, but can instead, in the long run, be particularly detrimental to the person and the organization. In this connection, it is advisable that companies implement proper and *sustainable* incentive systems (nevertheless necessary) on the performance of the management and workers of all grades.

A few limitations of the present study should be acknowledged, as well as its future developments. Given that the measures used in the present study are self-report type, the relations observed between the variables could be favoured by the common method variance. In the future, it would be useful to also use objective indicators, such as, for instance, the number of work hours, overtime, or workers' health as certified by the competent physician. Moreover, information on the organization colleagues' and stakeholders' involvement would be valuable as well.

A further limitation is that all the workers examined belong to the same organization; therefore further investigations on Italian workaholism in different work areas will be necessary. At the same time, and this is a new element, the characteristics of the organization considered are very peculiar, and the percentage of workaholics in it is rather high (22.6%), probably favoured by such peculiarities. On these grounds as well, a future extension of the investigation to other organizational contexts is desirable.

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