

# The Relationship between Organizational Climate, Occupational Type and Workaholism

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Two dimensions of workaholism – *Drive to work* and *Enjoyment of work* – and four aspects of organizational climate – *Work Pressure; Involvement; Supervisor Support; Co-worker Cohesion* – were considered in the reported research. The relationship between these variables revealed that aspects of the workplace environment were related to levels of both *Drive* and *Enjoyment*. Work pressure, Involvement, Co-worker Cohesion and Supervisor Support were all related to work enjoyment, with Co-worker Cohesion and Supervisor Support the strongest predictors. Only Work Pressure was related to the drive to work. Further, comparisons between two occupational groups – *Business Services (n=85); Social Services (n=66)* – revealed differences in levels of the components of workaholism. Those in the Business Services had higher *Drive* and lower *Enjoyment* than those in the Social Services. Implications for understanding and reducing workaholism are discussed.

When introduced by Oates (1971), the term 'workaholic' was a negative one. Workaholism was considered to be an addiction, an uncontrollable compulsion to work incessantly. As such workaholism was compared to other addictions, such as alcoholism, and attention was focused on negative effects of this compulsion to work, and on ways to overcome or reduce workaholism. Indeed, workaholism has been associated with high stress levels, physical and emotional health complaints, poor family functioning, work-life conflict, co-worker stress and employee burnout (Burke, 2000; Spence & Robbins, 1992). A strong drive to work can also, however, have positive consequences for both an individual and an organization. For example, a strong drive to work has been associated with high job satisfaction and high

productivity (Scott, Moore & Miceli, 1997).

Accordingly, more recent definitions have incorporated both positive and negative components of workaholism. For example, Spence and Robbins' (1992) tripartite model and measurement scale has recently been revised to a two-dimensional structure (McMillian, Brady, O'Driscoll, & Marsh, 2002; WorkBAT-R), and consists of *Drive to work* and *Enjoyment of work*. *Drive* relates to an inner pressure to work and captures the compulsion to work that was central to the early definitions of workaholism. *Enjoyment* refers to the level of pleasure derived from work, in accordance with evidence that high job satisfaction may be associated with workaholism (Scott et al., 1997). Consistent with traditional definitions, a workaholic would score highly on *Drive* but low on *Enjoyment*. The "happy

workaholic", however, scores highly on both *Drive* and *Enjoyment*; he or she may feel driven to work but at the same time derive much pleasure from that work (Spence & Robbins, 1992).

To further the understanding of workaholism and its consequences for both individuals and organizations, it is important to consider both of these components of workaholism, and the balance of positive and negative outcomes. The present research used the WorkBAT-R to assess levels of *Drive* and *Enjoyment* amongst workers in two distinct types of occupation – Social Service professions (teachers, nurses, social workers) and Business professions (lawyers, accountants, management consultants) – and to relate components of workaholism to aspects of organizational climate.

The recent introduction of the Health and Safety in Employment Amendment Act (2003) in New Zealand renders addressing workaholism particularly pertinent. Employers are liable for large fines or two years' imprisonment if they do not take preventive measures to minimise the hazards of workplace stress and fatigue. If employers are found to be creating a climate that is conducive to, or may cause, workplace stress (akin to workaholism) in employees they may be liable for prosecution.

## Workaholism and Organizational Climate

Much research has focused on identifying the characteristics of the workaholic individual. Parallels with other addictions

have led some researchers to suggest a medical model of workaholism based on adrenaline release (Fassel, 1990) and propose an inherited component to workaholism (Robinson, 2001). Others have conceptualized workaholism as a stable personality disposition, with traits such as perfectionism, obsessiveness, hypomania and compulsiveness all having been identified as possible contributors to the development of workaholism in an individual (Clark, Livesley, Schroeder, & Irish, 1996; McMillan et al., 2002; Spence & Robbins, 1992). Situational, or environmental, factors may also influence the incidence of workaholic behavior within an organization, however. Individuals learn the beliefs, values, behaviors, skills and orientations needed to function effectively within a given environment (van Maanen & Schein, 1979), so if an organizational climate encourages and rewards workaholic behaviors, then workaholics are likely to develop and flourish. When high pressure and long working hours are the norm, individuals are likely to work longer hours in order to succeed.

Arnott (2000) introduced the concept of "corporate cults" where organizations encourage devotion and intense loyalty from their employees to the extent that the organization becomes all-consuming. Organizations that promote work/life imbalance have also been associated with high levels of workaholism (Burke, 2001; Porter, 2001). Few features of these environments have been considered however, with little past research having considered the relationship between organizational climate and workaholism. In the present research, we considered the relationship between 4 aspects of organizational climate and the incidence of components of workaholism, specifically *Drive* and *Enjoyment*.

Organizational climate has been defined as a "perception of the psychologically important aspects of the work environment" (Ashforth, 1985; p. 837) and is recognized as a potential influence on employees' workplace behavior and job satisfaction (Ashforth, 1985). The individual worker's perception of their work environment rather than a consensus view is considered as

different individuals may perceive the same workplace in different ways (Klein, Conn, Smith, & Sorra, 2001). In the present research, we focused on four aspects of work environment, as measured by the Work Environment Scale (WES; Moos, 1994), that have previously been associated with aspects of occupational stress or job satisfaction, and that we therefore reasoned would be related to the *Drive* and *Enjoyment* components of workaholism. The four dimensions we considered were: *Co-worker Cohesion*; *Supervisor Support*; *Work Pressure* and *Involvement*.

Social support within organizations has been shown to lessen the effects of potential occupational stressors and to assist individuals to cope better with work environments (Cooper & Cartwright, 1994; Peterson, 1997). Occupational burnout, which has been cited as a potential consequence of workaholism (Scott et al., 1997), has been found to be more likely in environments low in *Supervisor Support* and in *Co-worker Cohesion* (Pretty, McCarthy, & Catano et al., 1992; Turnipseed, 1998). Consequently, the work environment dimensions of *Supervisor Support* and *Co-worker Cohesion*, as measured by the WES, are both hypothesised to have an impact on workaholism, specifically by increasing the *Enjoyment* people have in work. In addition, Porter (2001) proposed that workaholics high in *Drive* were likely to have poorer relationships with their co-workers and were also less likely to trust and value the work of others. Accordingly, we hypothesised that there would be negative correlations between those workplace climate factors associated with social support (*Supervisor Support*, *Co-worker Cohesion*) and *Drive*. That is, greater supervisor and co-worker support within an organization was predicted to be associated with greater work *Enjoyment* and less compulsion or *Drive* to work.

High work demands and time pressure have been cited as encouraging the development (Killinger, 1991; Naughton, 1987) and perpetuation (Porter, 1996) of workaholism, and it has been suggested that individuals high in *Drive* to work are attracted to organizations that support and encourage pressured work behaviors. Accordingly,

it was hypothesised that ratings of *Work Pressure* would be positively correlated with ratings of *Drive*. In addition, *Work Pressure* has been found to be related to workplace burnout (Pretty et al., 1992; Turnipseed, 1994). Accordingly, we predicted that *Work Pressure* would be negatively correlated with ratings of *Enjoyment*.

Finally, *Involvement*, "the extent to which employees are concerned about and committed to their jobs" (Spence & Robbins, 1992), has been considered to be integral to the concept of workaholism (Greenhalgh, 1996; Thorne 1987). *Involvement* with one's job and commitment to an organization can be related to both a pressure to work hard in the job and also with the pleasure and challenge that is derived from the work. The items in the WES related to involvement relate not only to pressure to work hard (congruent with the *Drive* component of workaholism) but also to the pleasure and challenge that employees derive from their work (compatible with the *Enjoyment* component of workaholism). Employees working in an organizational environment high in *Involvement* are therefore hypothesised to rate themselves high in both *Drive* and *Enjoyment*.

#### *Workaholism and Worktype*

The empirical data on workaholism has tended to come from single organizations or across similar occupations, which shed little light on the differential incidence of workaholism across occupations (McMillan, O'Driscoll, Marsh, & Brady, 2001). Bacharach and Bamberger (1992) argued that generic models of occupational stress are likely to overlook occupation specific factors and argued for an examination of stress in different jobs. Similarly, Bonebright, Clay and Ankenmann (2000) recommended that differential workaholism rates across occupations and types of organizations be explored. Consequently, in the present research, we included participants from two different occupational groupings – from Social Services (nurses, teachers, social workers) and from Business Services (lawyers, accountants, consultants) – and compared their scores on components of workaholism. Differences in organizational climate

between the occupational groups were also considered.

Individuals in Social Service and Business occupational groupings have been shown to differ in those features of employment which they value most. Those in 'helping' professions have been found to emphasize intrinsic factors such as having positive relationships with others whilst those in business professions emphasize extrinsic factors such as prestige, security and economic returns (Shapira & Griffith, 1990). Such differences in work values led us to predict that Business Services employees would score higher on *Drive* and on *Work Pressure* but lower on *Enjoyment* than Social Services employees, as a consequence of the Business Services employees greater focus on trying to achieve highly at work, and the greater emphasis within Social Services employees on having positive workplace relationships. Previous findings of a greater emphasis amongst Social Services employees on having positive workplace relations (Ribak, 1994; Shapira & Griffith, 1990), also led us to predict that those in the Social Services would have higher levels of Co-worker Cohesion and Supervisor Support than those in the Business Services.

In summary, the present research investigated levels of two workaholism factors – *Drive to work* and *Enjoyment of work* – and four features of organizational climate – *Co-worker Cohesion*, *Supervisor Support*, *Work Pressure* and *Involvement* – and their relationships, in two occupational groups. Scores for Business Service employees were contrasted with those for Social Services employees. It was predicted that those in the Business Services were score higher on *Drive* and *Work Pressure* but lower on *Enjoyment*, *Co-worker Cohesion* and *Supervisory Support* than those in the Social Services. Further, we predicted that, across all participants, *Work Pressure* would be positively related to *Drive* but negatively related to *Enjoyment*, that *Co-worker Cohesion*, and *Supervisory Support* would be positively related to *Enjoyment*, and that *Involvement* would be positively related to both *Drive* and *Enjoyment*.

## Method

### Participants

Participants came from 15 organizations whose Human Resources (HR) manager had previously agreed to distribute questionnaires amongst employees. Six of the organizations were from the Social Services and eight from the Business Services. The six Social Service organizations were two high schools from which teachers were recruited (n=29), three city council offices from which social workers were recruited (n=27) and one hospice from which nurses were recruited (n=10). The eight Business Service organizations were four law firms from which lawyers were recruited (n=28), three accountancy firms from which accountants were recruited (n=24) and two management consultancy firms from which consultants were recruited (n=33).

Three hundred and twenty questionnaires were distributed to the organizations and one hundred and fifty-one completed questionnaires returned (47.2% response rate). Eighty-five responses came from Business Services employees (53 female, 32 male), and 66 from Social Services employees (42 female, 24 male). On average, participants worked 43.92 hours per week ( $SD = 10.26$ ) compared with the average work week of 38.56 hours for full time employees in New Zealand. Participants earned, on average, \$54,348 per annum ( $SD = \$27,168$ ) in comparison with New Zealand average annual earnings of \$37,984. Table 1 provides a breakdown by occupational group of the demographic data.

### Materials

Participants completed the WorkBAT-R and the WES and indicated their sex, age, income bracket and weekly hours worked.

The WorkBAT-R has 7 items each relating to *Drive* and to *Enjoyment* and is based on a New Zealand population sample (McMillan et. al., 2002). The scale utilises a 7-point response format. Examples of items from the *Drive* scale are: "I often find myself thinking about work, even when I want to get away from it for a while"; "I get bored and restless on vacations when I haven't

anything productive to do". Examples of items from the *Enjoyment* scale are: "My job is so interesting that it often doesn't seem like work"; "I seldom find anything to enjoy about my work" (reverse-scored). In the present study, the alpha co-efficient for the enjoyment items was 0.85 and for the drive items 0.71. Accordingly, scores were summed to produce *Drive* and *Enjoyment* scores for each participant. Each of these scores had a possible range of between 7 and 49. The actual range of scores for participants was between 16 and 48 for the *Drive* subscale and between 11 and 43 for the *Enjoyment* subscale. Mean drive score was 33.53 and enjoyment score 29.34. The scores for both subscales were normally distributed. For both *Drive* and *Enjoyment*, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov  $d$  was .07,  $p > .20$ .

The WES (3rd Edition; Moos, 1994) is a 90-item true-false questionnaire assessment of the general social climate of an organization on 10 subscales (each with nine items). Four subscales were considered in the present research: *Work Pressure*, *Involvement*, *Supervisor Support*, and *Co-worker Cohesion*. Examples of items from the *Work Pressure* subscale include: "People often have to work overtime to get their work done" and "There is constant pressure to keep working". Examples of items from the *Involvement* subscale include: "People put quite a lot of effort into what they do" and "It's hard to get people to do any extra work" (reverse-scored). Examples of items from the *Supervisor Support* subscale include: "Supervisors really stand up for their people" and "Employees discuss their personal problems with supervisors". Examples of items from the *Co-Worker Cohesion* subscale include: "People go out of their way to help a new employee feel comfortable" and "People take a personal interest in each other". Each subscale can provide a possible score ranging from 0-9. The actual range for the four subscales of interest was between 0 and 9 for *Co-worker Cohesion* and *Supervisor Support* and between 1 and 9 for *Work Pressure* and *Involvement*. Mean scores in the present sample were 6.93, 7.45, 6.59 and 5.93 for the *Work Pressure*,

*Involvement, Supervisor Support, Co-worker Cohesion* subscales respectively.

**Procedure**

The Human Resource Manager at potential participatory organizations was contacted and, if he or she was willing to approach employees, sent questionnaires to distribute. Three hundred and twenty questionnaires, each accompanied by a stamped, self-addressed envelope for direct return to the researcher, were distributed to 15 organizations. On receipt of a completed questionnaire, the participant was sent a debriefing sheet. This project was conducted after review and approval by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee.

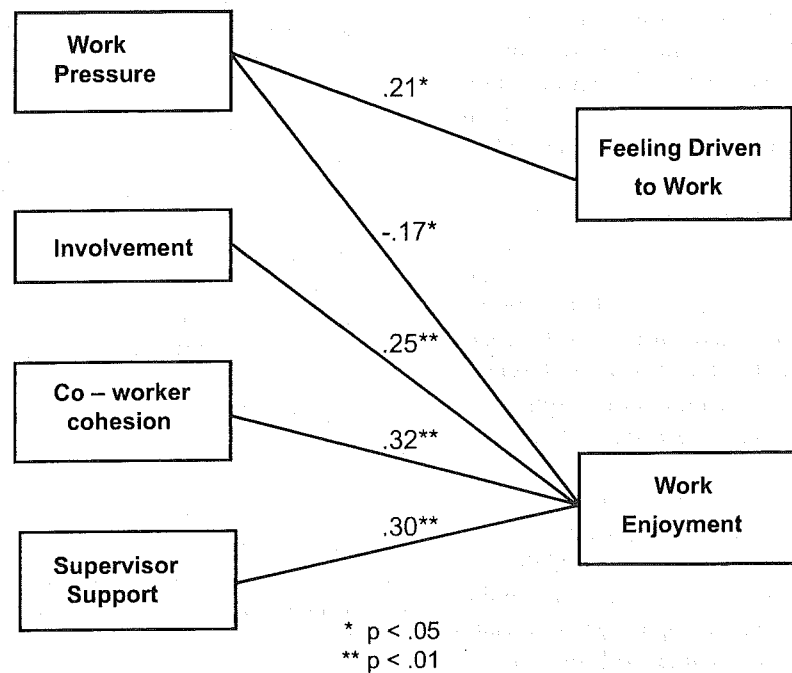
**Results**

Preliminary analyses revealed only one significant effect of participant sex. Men earned more than women ( $t(149) = 3.98, p < .01$ ; Means = \$65,558 vs. \$47,407). Accordingly, participant sex was not considered in the reported analyses. Within each occupational type (Business Services; Social Services) there was no difference between individual organizations on any of the measures of workaholism or organizational climate. Accordingly, individual organizations were not considered in the data analyses reported.

**Organizational Climate and Workaholism**

The four subscales of WES subscales were correlated with *Drive* and *Enjoyment*; see Figure 1<sup>1</sup>. The only significant correlation with *Drive* was a positive correlation with *Work Pressure*,  $r(151) = .21, p < .05$ . As predicted, the higher people rated their *Work Pressure*, the higher their *Drive*. For *Enjoyment* there were significant correlations with *Involvement*,  $r(151) = .25, p < .01$ , *Co-worker Cohesion*,  $r(151) = .32, p < .01$ , *Supervisor Support*,  $r(151) = .30, p < .01$ , and *Work Pressure*,  $r(151) = -.17, p < .05$ . As predicted, individuals who perceived their workplace climates as high in *Involvement, Co-worker Cohesion* and *Supervisor Support* but low in *Work Pressure* enjoyed their

Figure 1. The relationship between organizational climate dimensions and workaholism components.



Note: For ease of interpretation, only significant ( $p < .05$ ) relationships are shown.

work more. There was no significant relationship between ratings of *Drive* and of *Enjoyment*,  $r(151) = .13, p = .122$ .

To assess which variables best predicted *Drive* and *Enjoyment*, separate stepwise regression analyses were computed. For *Drive*, the variables of Age, Work Pressure, Occupational Type and Hours Worked each had first-order correlations and so were entered in a forward stepwise method. The regression was significant,  $F(3,147) = 11.51, p < .01$ , and Age (8.6%), *Work Pressure* (6.0%), and Occupational Type (4.4%) each added significant variance in predicting *Drive*. All other variables were then regressed one at a time in addition to Age, *Work Pressure* and Occupational Type, but none contributed significant additional variance in predicting *Drive*.

For *Enjoyment*, *Work Pressure, Involvement, Co-Worker Cohesion* and *Supervisor Support* were all entered into the regression analysis using a forward stepwise method. The regression was significant,  $F(2,148) = 10.91, p < .01$ , and *Co-Worker Cohesion* (10.1%), and *Supervisor Support* (2.8%) each

explained significant variance in *Enjoyment*. All other variables were regressed one at a time in addition to *Co-Worker Cohesion* and *Supervisor Support*, but none contributed any significant additional variance in predicting *Enjoyment*.

**Workaholism and Organizational Climate as a function of Occupation Type**

Means for all the variables are shown in Table 1. Business Services and Social Services participants differed on age ( $t(149) = 5.42, p < .001$ ), salary ( $t(147) = -3.60, p < .001$ ), *Drive* ( $t(149) = -2.95, p < .001$ ) and *Work Pressure* ( $t(149) = 3.58, p < .001$ ). Business Service employees were younger (Means = 35.58 vs. 44.55 yrs), received higher salaries (Means = \$60,529 vs. \$46,237), had higher *Drive* (Means = 34.89 vs. 31.77) and felt less *Work Pressure* (Means = 28.95 vs. 29.85) than Social Services employees. There were no differences between the business services and social services employees on any of the four components of organizational climate considered.

Table 1. Means (and standard deviations) of demographic characteristics, workaholism and organizational climate measures as a function of occupation type.

		Business Services	Social Services
<b>Demographic characteristics</b>	Age	35.58 (10.47)	44.55 (9.65)
	Hours worked (per week)	43.51 (10.48)	44.44 (10.03)
	Salary (\$ pa)	60, 529 (33,335)	46, 237 (11,433)
<b>Workaholism</b>	Drive	34.89 (6.53)	31.77 (6.34)
	Enjoyment	28.95 (6.66)	29.85 (8.00)
<b>Organizational climate</b>	Work pressure	6.42 (2.09)	7.59 (1.85)
	Involvement	7.36 (1.99)	7.56 (1.61)
	Co-worker cohesion	6.40 (2.24)	6.83 (2.08)
	Supervisor support	5.92 (2.34)	5.95 (2.20)

There were significant correlations between *Drive* and age ( $r(151) = -.30, p < .01$ ), and between *Drive* and hours worked ( $r(151) = .20, p < .05$ ). Younger individuals and those who worked longer hours reported higher *Drive*. There was also a significant correlation between *Work Pressure* and the number of hours worked ( $r(151) = .24, p < .01$ ); participants who perceived their organization to be higher in work pressure reporting working more hours.

Given the significant correlations between both age and hours worked and *Drive*, the analysis of *Drive* as a function of occupation type was repeated with age and hours worked entered as covariates. The difference between the Business and Social Services remained significant when hours worked was entered as a covariate. Differences between the occupational groups cannot, then, be explained by differences in the mean number of hours worked by employees in each of the occupational groups. When age was entered as a covariate, however, the effect of occupational type was no longer significant, but there was a significant effect of age,  $F(2,147) = 3.981, p < .05$ . It is possible that the difference in *Drive* could be accounted for by age differences between the Business and Social Services groups. It is noteworthy, however, that in the

regression analysis reported above, age (8.6%) and occupational type (4.4%) each contributed a significant proportion of the variance in *Drive* scores, suggesting that the effects of occupational type cannot fully be accounted for by differences in age across those occupational types.

### Discussion

The present research showed aspects of organizational climate to be related to dimensions of workaholism and revealed differences in workaholism as a function of occupational type.

Somewhat surprisingly, no relationship was found in the present work between the two components of workaholism measured by the WorkBAT-R (McMillan et al., 2002). In the present sample of workers, the extent to which one enjoyed one's work was independent of the extent to which one felt driven to work. This finding is consistent, however, with the notion that there are a variety of types of workers that can be identified from scores on *Drive* and *Enjoyment* – traditional workaholics who are high on *Drive* but low on *Enjoyment*; enthusiastic workaholics who are high on both *Drive* and *Enjoyment*; relaxed workers who are low on *Drive* but high on *Enjoyment* and unengaged workers who have low scores on both *Drive* and *Enjoyment* (Spence & Robbins, 1992; McMillan et al., 2002). This finding

also emphasizes the importance, for both researchers and employers, of considering the two components of workaholism separately rather than considering it simply as a unitary construct (McMillan et al., 2001). It also highlights the importance of consideration being given to both negative and positive components of workaholism (Scott et al., 1997; Spence & Robbins, 1992).

This study found considerable support for the hypothesis that organizational climate would relate in systematic ways to the construct of workaholism. Individuals who perceived their work environments as highly pressured were more likely to feel driven to work hard, while employees who perceived their work climates to be highly supportive, cohesive, involving, and low in pressure were more likely to report high levels of enjoyment in their work. *Work Pressure* accounted for significant variance in *Drive* in addition to that explained by age and by occupational type, demonstrating work pressure to be an important factor to consider in understanding the *Drive* component of workaholism. This finding provides some support for claims that demanding work environments, where staff are pushed to work extra hours and to dedicate themselves to the company, are likely to contribute to the development and maintenance of workaholism (Porter, 1996, 2001).

Given the consistent research findings that individuals reporting high levels of *Drive* also experience more physical and psychological health problems, job stress and work-life conflict, any factor that potentially contributes to high levels of *Drive* needs to be taken seriously. Given the correlational nature of the present research, however, it is unclear whether work pressure causes high levels of *Drive*, or whether high levels of *Drive* leads to greater perceived work pressure, or indeed whether high levels of both *Work Pressure* and *Drive* might be caused by additional factors.

Some writers suggest that although managers believe that pressured work environments encourage workers to be more productive, the opposite is actually the case, and that individuals displaying workaholic tendencies as a result of a demanding work environment may actually perform poorly (Porter, 1996; Scott et al., 1997). Therefore, managers need to be aware that the work environment they are creating may be having potentially deleterious effects on the health, well-being and performance of their employees by creating workaholic behavior tendencies. By demanding long hours and unflinching commitment and pressuring employees to work long and hard, it is possible that managers may be contributing to the development, or maintenance, of workaholism among their employees. It should be remembered also, however, that a strong drive to work has been associated with high job satisfaction and high productivity (Scott et al., 1997). Although there was a negative relationship between *Work Pressure* and *Enjoyment* in the present study, there was a positive relationship between *Involvement* and *Enjoyment*, indicating that greater commitment to one's work is associated with greater enjoyment of that work. Encouraging commitment to, and involvement in, the organization may also, then, have positive consequences for employees.

Social support within an organization was also shown to be related to greater *Work Enjoyment*. Supervisor support and co-worker cohesion each predicted *Enjoyment*. Social support has a key role in how much employees enjoy their work. The findings in this research relating supportive organizational

climate to *Enjoyment* of work are perhaps not surprising given the documented relationship between social support in organizations and employee job satisfaction (Burke, 2001; McMillan et al., 2002). Supervisor support has been found to relate strongly to job satisfaction in a number of different occupations (Baruch-Feldman, Brondolo, Ben-Dayana, & Schwartz, 2002; Bradley & Cartwright, 2002). Social support from co-workers has also been found to contribute significantly to employee job satisfaction (Ducharme & Martin, 2000; Terry, Neilsen & Perchard, 1993). It is unclear from the present cross-sectional study whether a socially supportive climate may prevent workaholic behavior patterns from developing in the first place or diminish the negative consequences of workaholism through helping employees to enjoy their work. If organizations can create an environment in which employees are proud and committed to the organization, supervisors support and listen to their reports, and co-workers help each other, the results of this research suggest that the incidence of workaholism is likely to be lower.

If indeed a 'workaholic organizational climate' exists, the present research would suggest that individuals are more likely to suffer the negative consequences of workaholism if the organization's climate places pressure on people to work long and hard, if co-workers do not get on and if supervisors provide little or no support to employees. Conversely, individuals are most likely to benefit from the positive aspects of workaholism if an organization's climate is one that fosters involvement of employees with their work, has strong supervisory support and fosters co-worker cohesion and reduces work pressures. With the introduction of the Health and Safety in Employment Amendment Act (2003) in New Zealand, employers need to attend to issues related to workaholism in their organizations. The present research suggests that employers may be advised to take proactive steps to alter their organizational climates if they are overly pressured or lacking in social support, environments that, in this study, were associated with negative aspects of workaholism,

namely high *Drive* and low *Enjoyment*. Employers should also enhance factors that have been associated with high *Enjoyment*, such as social support. Although not assessed in the present research, it is possible that factors such as absenteeism and staff turnover could be reduced as a consequence of increasing *Enjoyment* and reducing *Drive* amongst employees, hence providing benefit for the organization, as well as for the individual. In making such recommendations, however, it is noted that the current sample size was relatively low and the occupational types from which that sample was recruited relatively restricted.

Given the differences found between Business and Social Services employees in the present study it is important that generalizations not be made across all occupational types with respect to either workaholism or organizational climate. The Business Services staff in the present sample, were younger, had higher *Drive* but rated their workplace as lower in *Work Pressure* than Social Services staff. Further, occupational type, along with *Work Pressure* and age, was one of the significant predictors of *Drive*. The finding that Business Services staff rated themselves as significantly more driven to work, placing internal pressure on themselves to invest heavily in their jobs, was in line with workaholism and work values literature (Bonebright et al., 2000), although the possible impact of age differences between the occupational groups in our study should be noted. Occupational type may, then, an important factor to consider in research on workaholism, especially when considering *Drive* to work. Contrary to predictions, however, there was no difference in *Enjoyment* between occupational groups.

Our research also considered various demographic factors amongst our sample – sex, age, hours worked, salary. We investigated whether these factors were related to *Drive* and *Enjoyment*. Males and females in our sample did not differ in their scores on either *Drive* or *Enjoyment*, in line with past research findings (Burke, 1999; Spence & Robbins, 1992), or on their ratings of the work environment. Salary showed no significant relationship with *Drive* and there was only a

significant relationship between salary and *Enjoyment* for individuals working in social services. Having workaholic tendencies is not, then, necessarily linked to better pay. Consistent with past research, however, individuals who rated themselves higher on the workaholism component of *Drive*, also indicated that they worked longer hours (Bonebright et al., 1999; McMillan et al., 2002). Interestingly, age showed a significant negative relationship with the workaholism component of *Drive*. It may be that levels of *Drive*, or internal pressure, decrease with age, as suggested by literature on work values, which proposes that extrinsic factors such as status assume less importance as people get older. Alternatively, this finding could represent a generational or cohort effect. Older respondents may be of the generation where one had a 'job for life', there were few worries about job insecurity, and promotion was afforded on the basis of tenure or age rather than hard work. Younger respondents may feel more driven to work in today's primarily meritocratic society where hard work and 'face time' are required simply to retain one's job. This relationship between age and *Drive* is certainly a finding worth exploring further in future research.

In summary, the present research pointed to certain aspects of the work environment as being associated with components of workaholism. In addition, the nature of the employment itself was related to differences in levels of *Drive*, supporting suggestions that research on workaholism should consider occupation specific factors (Bacharach & Bamberger, 1992; Bonebright et al., 2000). Future research should further consider aspects of the work environment as contributing to workaholism, especially using longitudinal research designs. Relationships with personality characteristics of workers might also be considered, to disentangle the extent to which certain types of individuals (e.g., workaholics) are attracted to certain occupations and organizations and the extent to which certain organizations create workaholic tendencies within the employees.

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## Notes

1. The same pattern of correlations was seen when the business services and social services participant groups were considered separately.
2. Computing these correlations separately for the business services and social services occupational types revealed the same pattern of correlations as reported above for each group with the addition of the following. For the business services group there was also a significant correlation between salary and age,  $r(83) = .536, p < .001$ . For the social services group there were significant correlations between salary and enjoyment,  $r(65) = .283, p < .05$ , and between age and Supervisor support,  $r(65) = -.297, p < .05$ .

## Acknowledgement

This research was carried out by the first author in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the MSc (Hons) in Applied Psychology, under the supervision of the second author. Thanks are extended to Neville Blampied for his helpful comments.

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